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THE JAPAN YEAR BOOK 1935

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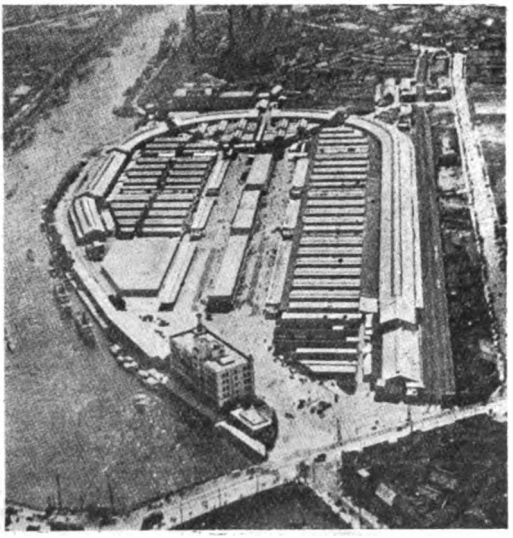

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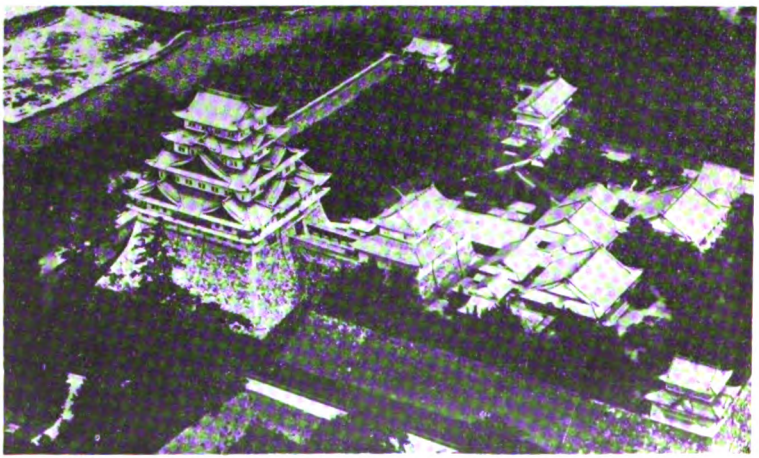

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The Kobe Chamber of Commerce and Industry Building, Kyobashi, Kobe

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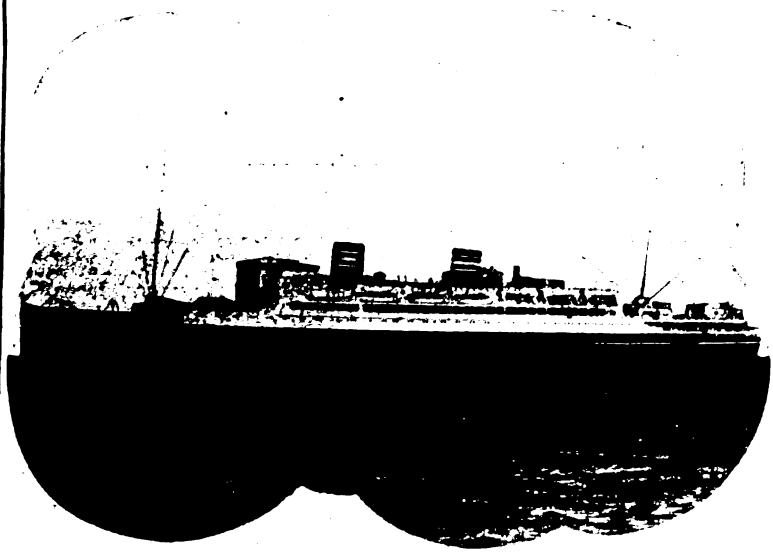

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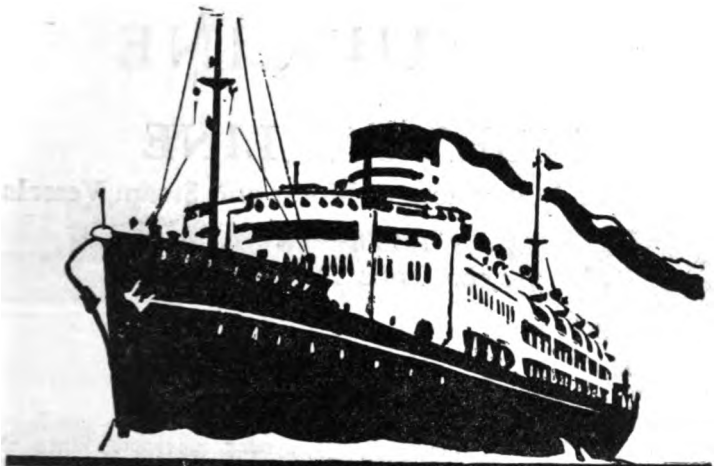

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Kamaishi „ „	Kamaishi-machi, Kamihei-gun, Iwate Pref.
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Osaka Steel Tubes Plant :	City of Osaka

Main Products :—

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Seamless & Butt-welded Gas Pipes, Seamless Steel Pipes for Uuderground Mains, Oil Well Pipes (Tubings, Casings & Drill Pipes), Boiler Tubes, Locomotive Tubes, Radiator Tubes, Conduit Tubes, Steel Poles and every other kind of Steel Tubings, of Black, Galvanized or Coated with Asphalted Jute Cloth

Steel Bars and Shapes **Annual Production** **300,000 tons**

Bars (round, square, flit and rib), Angles and Rails

Ferro-Alloys **Annual Production** **30,000 tons**

Ferro-manganese, Ferro-silicon, Ferro-titanium, Ferro-chrome, Spiegeleisen, etc.

Special Steels **Annual Production** **20,000 tons**

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1935

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PREFACE

In the compilation of The Japan Year Book, 1935, care has been taken to preserve the features which characterized the preceding editions, while adding some new ones. All the chapters have been gone over thoroughly and revised so as to bring the material up to date and to insure greater balance as between the various sections. In this attempt some sections and even chapters have had to be entirely or partially re-written.

Both in selection and classification of material the original plan used in the previous editions of the Year Book has been followed as the most convenient one to present this country as it is before the reader.

Tokyo, September, 1935 K. Inahara, *Editor*

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JAPANESE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Weights

Kan (Kwan)=1,000 mommé= { 8.26733 lb. (Avoir.) / 10.04711 lb. (Troy) } =3.75000 kilogrammes

Mommé = { 0.13223 oz. (Avoir.) / 0.12057 oz. (Troy) } =3.75000 grammes

Kin=160 mommé = { 1.32277 lb. (Avoir.) / 1.60754 lb. (Troy) } =0.60000 kilogramme

Koku (fish)=40 kan

Metric system,

Kilogramme= 2.20459 pounds (Avoir.)=0.26667 kan
Gramme =15.43210 grains (Avoir.) =0.26667 mommé
Ton =1,000 kilogrammes=2,204.6 pounds
Gross Ton =1,016.064 kilogrammes=2,240 pounds

Measures of Length

Ri=36 cho=2,160 ken=2.44030 miles=3.92727 kilometres
Ken=6 shaku =5.96516 feet=1.81818 metres
Shaku=10 sun =0.99419 foot=0.30303 metre
Shaku (cloth measure)=1.25 shaku
Tan (a roll of cloth)=about 35 shaku

Metric system,

Kilometre=0.62137 mile=3,280 feet 10 inches=9.16667 cho

Measures of Surface

Square ri=1,296 cho=5.95505 sq. miles=15.42347 sq. kilometres
Cho (chobu)=10 tan=3,000 tsubo=2.45064 acres=99.17355 ares
Tsubo (bu)=3.95369 sq. yards=3.30579 centiares
Ko (Formosa)=2,934 tsubo

Metric system,

Hectare=10,000 m^2=2.471 acres=1.00833 cho
Are=100 m^2=119.6 sq. yards=30.25000 bu
Sq. kilometre=0.386 sq. mile=247.10 acres=0.06484 sq. ri

Measures of Capacity

Koku=10 to=100 sho=1,000 go= { 4.96005 bushels (U.S.A.) / 5.11902 bushels (U.S.A.) / 47.95389 gallons (U.S.A.) / 39.6804 „ (British) } =1.80391 hl.

Koku (capacity of vessels)=10th of a ton
Koku (timber) =about 1 cubic foot×10
Shakujimé (timber) =about 1 cubic foot×12
Taba (fagot, etc.) =about 3×6×6 feet

Metric system,

Hectolitre= { 2 bush., 3.35 pecks (Dry) / 26.42 gal. (Liquid) } =5.54352 sho

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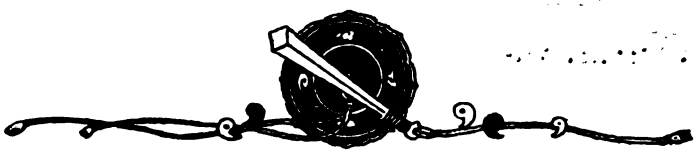

THE IMPERIAL COURT

At the heart of the Japanese nation and at the head of the Japanese State is the Emperor,[1] known to the people as the Tenshi, the Son of Heaven, or Tenno, Heavenly King. Though the ancient title Mikado persists in foreign countries, it has lost currency in Japan itself except in poetry or on very formal occasions.

The Imperial Dynasty of Japan is the oldest reigning family in the world, Japanese history dating its earthly origin from 660 B. C. The present Emperor is the 124th of the line.

H.I.M. THE EMPEROR

His Imperial Majesty HIROHITO, Emperor of Japan, 1st son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born in the Aoyama Palace, Tokyo, on April 29, 1901, and shortly afterwards was entrusted for bringing up to the family of Count Kawamura (Sumiyoshi),[2] a retired Admiral. Upon the Count's death in 1903, the Imperial Prince entered the Imperial Palace, with Marquis Kido (Takamasa) and later Mr. Kinsaku Maruo, chamberlain at the Aoyama Palace, in charge of his affairs. At the age of 7, he entered the elementary department of the Peers' School. In 1912, the year of his father's accession to the Throne, he was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army and Sub-lieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy and decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Chrysanthemum.

On completion of the elementary course in the Peers' School in 1914, he continued the study of various subjects in a special school instituted for the purpose under Admiral Togo. Promotion to the ranks of Lieutenant in the Army and Sublieutenant, 1st Class in the Navy came the same year; to Captain and Lieutenant in 1916, and to Major and Lieutenant-Commander in 1920. Ending his special studies in 1921, His Majesty toured Europe, the first Crown Prince to do so.

Because of the Emperor Taisho's illness, he was appointed Regent on November 25, 1921. Two years later, his ranks in the defence services were raised to those of Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander. Marriage to Princess Nagako took place on January 26, 1924. In 1925, he was promoted to the ranks of Colonel in the Army and Captain in the Navy. On the demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25, 1926, he succeeded to the Throne, and the new era was named Showa, meaning Light and Peace. Formal installation took place in Kyoto on November 10, 1928, and the grand ceremony of making offerings to the Imperial Ancestors was held on November 14 and 15.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS

Her Imperial Majesty NAGAKO, Empress of Japan, was born on

1 For the powers of the Emperor, see Chapter IV, and Articles I—XVII of the Constitution (Appendix).

2 The personal names of members of the Imperial Family and Peers are parenthesized.

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March 6, 1903, 3rd child and 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince[1] Kuni (Kuniyoshi), in his residence at 1, Roppongi-machi, Azabu-ku, Tokyo. She entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in April, 1909, and advanced to the higher course in March, 1915. Shortly after becoming Crown Princess-elect on January 17, 1918, she left the Peers' School for Girls and engaged in special study at home. Imperial sanction was given for marriage to the Crown Prince in June of the same year, and their betrothal took place on September 28, 1922. At that time she was decorated with the 1st Order of Merit. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on the day of the marriage, January 26, 1924, and Empress on December 25, 1926.

H.I.M. THE EMPRESS DOWAGER

Her Imperial Majesty SADAKO, the Empress Dowager, was born on June 25, 1884, 4th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michitaka) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank. She entered the Peers' School for Girls in 1890 and advanced to the higher course six years later, leaving in 1899. Her marriage to Crown Prince Yoshihito, later the Emperor Taisho, took place on May 10, 1900. She was proclaimed Crown Princess on that day ; Empress on July 30, 1912, and Empress Dowager on December 25, 1926. Her Majesty now resides in the Omiya Palace, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H.I.H. THE CROWN PRINCE

H. I. H. Imperial Prince TSUGU-NO-MIYA (Akihito) was born on December 23, 1933, and is Heir Apparent.

DAUGHTERS OF THE EMPEROR

H. I. H. Imperial Princess TERU (Shigeko) was born on December 6, 1925, and entered the elementary department of the Peers' School for Girls in 1932.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess TAKA (Kazuko) was born on September 30, 1929.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess YORI (Atsuko) was born on March 7, 1931.

BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR

H. I. H. Imperial Prince CHICHIBU (Yasuhito), Major in the Infantry, was born on June 25, 1902, 2nd son of the late Emperor Taisho. The name Atsu was given to him at first. In 1909, he entered the Peers' School and on completion of the second year of the middle course in 1917 was enrolled in the Central Military Preparatory School. This course he finished in 1920, when he joined the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Azabu-ku, Tokyo, as a first private. Later in the same year, he entered the Military Academy, completing the regular course in 1922.

On attaining his majority in 1922, he took the name Chichibu and by Imperial order founded a new house. He was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum in the same year and promoted to the rank of Second Lieutenant, attached to the 3rd Infantry Regiment. After becoming Lieutenant in May, 1925, he went abroad, studying at Oxford University until the illness of the Emperor Taisho compelled his return to Japan in January, 1927. While in England, he was decorated by King George V with the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order.

Marriage to Miss Setsuko Matsudaira, born on September 9, 1909, 1st daughter of Mr. Tsuneo Matsu-

1 Imperial Prince (Shinno) or Prince (ō) means Prince of the Blood except when the name is followed by the word Peer in brackets, thus [Peer]. For the difference between Imperial Prince and Prince see the Imperial House Law, Chapter VII, Art. XXXI (Appendix).

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daira (at present Ambassador to the Court of St. James's), took place on September 28, 1928. The Imperial Prince was promoted to the rank of captain in 1930 and to that of major in 1935. After a course in the Military Staff College and a term as Company Commander in the 3rd Infantry Regiment, he was attached to the General Staff, then removed to Hirosaki as Battalion Commander in the 31st Infantry Regiment on August 1, 1935. His residence is at Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku, Tokyo.

H. I. H. Imperial Prince TAKAMATSU (Nobuhito), Lieutenant in the Navy, 3rd son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on January 3, 1905. At first he was named Teru. He entered the Peers' School in 1911 and left in 1920 to enroll in the Naval College. On graduation four years later, he was granted the name of Takamatsu and founded a new house to revive that of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, which had become extinct.

In 1925, on appointment Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy, he was ordered to take up duties aboard the battleship Fuso. At the same time, he was decorated with the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum. Promotion to the rank of Sublieutenant, 1st Class came in 1927.

On February 4, 1930, he married Miss Kikuko Tokugawa, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshihisa) [Peer], who was born on December 26, 1911. The mother of the Princess was the 1st daughter of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, whose house Imperial Prince Takamatsu revived. In April of the same year, the Imperial Prince and his consort made a tour of the world, partly to return the courtesies shown by King George V of England in sending a mission to Japan to present the Order of the Garter to the Emperor. They returned to Japan in June, 1931, and took up residence in a new house at Takanawa, Shiba-ku, Tokyo. The Imperial Prince, now a Lieutenant, is a student in the Naval War College.

H. I. H. Imperial Prince SUMI (Takahito), 4th son of the late Emperor Taisho, was born on December 2, 1915. He entered the Peers' School in 1922 and left in 1932 to enter the Military Academy. A special residence is maintained for him in the park of the Aoyama Palace.

OTHER IMPERIAL PRINCES AND PRINCES

In addition to those of the Emperor's brothers, there are 11 Houses of Imperial male descendants :

KAN-IN. The present and 6th head of the House is H. I. H. Imperial Prince Kan-in (Kotohito), Field Marshal, who was born on November 10, 1865, the 16th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé), and adopted in 1867 by the Emperor Komei, the immediate predecessor of the Emperor Meiji. Ordered to France in 1882 for military studies, he remained there until 1891. After participation in the wars with China and Russia, his rise in the Army was rapid, and in 1912 he was appointed General and member of the High Military Council. In 1916, he was ordered to Russia for returning courtesies to the Russian Grand Duke's visit. The Imperial Prince became a Field Marshal in 1919, accompanied the Crown Prince to Europe in 1921 and headed the commission in charge of the Enthronement in 1928. In December, 1931, he was appointed Chief of the General Staff.

His consort, H. I. H. Imperial Princess Kan-in (Chiyéko), whom he married in 1891, was born on June 30, 1872, 2nd daughter of the late Prince Sanjo (Sanétomi) [Peer], a

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Court noble of the first rank.

The heir is H. I. H. Prince Kan-in (Haruhito), Captain in the Cavalry, the 2nd son, who was born on August 3, 1902. He was graduated from the Odawara Middle School in 1921, appointed Lieutenant in 1927, promoted to the rank of Captain in 1932 and in the same year, following a course in the Military Staff College, given command of a company in the 16th Cavalry Regiment at Narashino. On July 14, 1926, he married Princess Ichijo (Naoko), 4th daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Saneteru) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank, who was born on November 7, 1908.

The House of Kan-in was founded in 1718 by Prince Naohito, a son of the Emperor Higashiyama. The residence is at Nagata-cho, Kojimachiku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-FUSHIMI. The House is extinct except for H. I. H. Imperial Princess Higashi-Fushimi (Kanéko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Higashi-Fushimi (Yorihito), who married her on February 10, 1898 and died in 1922. She was born on August 29, 1876, 1st daughter of the late Prince Iwakura (Tomosada) [Peer]. The residence is at Tokiwamatsu-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

FUSHIMI. The 23rd head of the House is H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), Admiral of the Fleet, who was born on October 16, 1875, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru). Ordered to Germany in 1889, he studied there for five years. He was appointed Admiral in 1922, a member of the High Military Council in 1925, Chief of the Naval General Staff in February, 1932, and Admiral of the Fleet in April of the same year.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Tsuneko), was born on September 23, 1882, 9th daughter of the late Prince Tokugawa (Yoshinobu) [Peer]. They were married on January 9, 1897. The 1st son and heir, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyoshi), Commander in the Navy, was born on December 8, 1897, and graduated from the Naval College in 1917. He married, on December 23, 1919, Tokiko, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Ichijo (Saneteru) [Peer], who was born on June 20, 1902. Their 1st son, H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroaki), was born on January 26, 1932. Their first daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Mitsuko), was born on July 28, 1929.

The second daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Yoshiko) was born on February 14, 1933.

The third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Fushimi (Ayako) was born on February 11, 1934.

Also members of the House are H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hirohidé), 4th son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu), who was born on October 4, 1912.

The House of Fushimi was founded by a great-grandchild of the Emperor Gofushimi. The residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

YAMASHINA. The 3rd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Yamashina (Takehiko), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, was born on February 13, 1898, 1st son of the late Prince Yamashina (Kikumaro). He was appointed Sublieutenant, 2nd Class in the Navy in August, 1919, and on July 19, 1922, married Princess Kaya (Sakiko), who died in the great earthquake the following year. The Prince now leads a retired life in his residence at Fujimi-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

His step-mother, H. I. H. Princess Yamashina (Hisako), was born on February 7, 1874, 3rd daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

The House of Yamashina was founded in 1864 by the late Prince

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Yamashina (Akira), 1st son of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé), who had earlier entered the priesthood and taken the name Kanshuji.

KAYA. The 2nd head of the House, H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Tsunenori), Lieutenant-Colonel in the Cavalry, was born on January 27, 1900, 1st son of the founder, the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori). He was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Cavalry in 1920 and is now Lieutenant-Colonel and Commander of the 10th Cavalry Regiment. On March 9, 1934, he left Tokyo, with his consort, for a tour round the world and returned to Tokyo on September 18 of the same year.

On May 3, 1921, he married Toshiko, who was born on May 16, 1903, 5th daughter of the late Prince Kujo (Michizané) [Peer], a Court noble of the first rank. They have five children: H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Kuninaga), born on April 21, 1922; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Harunori), born on July 3, 1926; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Akinori), born on August 17, 1929; H. I. H. Prince Kaya (Fuminori), born on July 12, 1931, and H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Michiko), born on July 29, 1923.

H. I. H. Princess Kaya (Yoshiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kaya (Kuninori), was born on December 7, 1865, 1st daughter of the late Marquis Daigo (Tadayori).

The House of Kaya was founded in 1892 by the late Prince Kaya (Kuninori), 2nd son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). The residence is at Sanban-cho, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Asaakira), Lieutenant-Commander in the Navy, 3rd of the line, was born on February 2, 1901, 1st son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi). His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Tomoko), whom he married on January 26, 1925, was born on May 18, 1907, 3rd daughter of H. I. H. Prince Fushimi (Hiroyasu). There are four children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Kuniaki), born on March 25, 1929; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Masako), born on December 8, 1926; H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Asako), born on October 23, 1927; and the third daughter, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Michiko) was born on September 4, 1933.

H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Chikako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Kuniyoshi), was born on October 19, 1879, 7th daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer].

H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Taka), Chief Priest of the Grand Shrines of Isé, 5th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), was born on August 17, 1875. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Shizuko), whom he married on March 9, 1907, was born on September 25, 1884, 1st daughter of the late Viscount Minasé (Takasuké). There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Iyéhiko), born on March 17, 1920; H. I. H. Prince Kuni (Norihiko), born on November 19, 1922, and H. I. H. Princess Kuni (Kuniko), born on May 18, 1917.

The House of Kuni was founded in 1875 by the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko), 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé). The residence is at Miyashiro-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

NASHIMOTO. H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa), Field Marshal, was born on March 9, 1874, 4th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko); ordered to inherit the Nashimotos, December 2, 1885; entered Central Military Preparatory School, 1886; graduated from Military Academy, May 27, 1898; Second Lieutenant, January, 1899; Captain, March 1901; sent to Europe for study, 1903; returned home

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and immediately sent to the front at the Russo-Japanese War, 1904; again in Europe for study, August 1906—July, 1909; Lieutenant-General and Commander of the 16th Division, August, 1917; High Military Councillor, November, 1919; General, August, 1923; Field Marshal, August, 8, 1932.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Nashimoto (Itsuko), whom he married on November 28, 1900, was born on February 2, 1882, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Nabéshima (Naohiro). The residence is at Mitaké-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo.

ASAKA. H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Yasuhiko), Lieutenant-General, was born on October 2, 1887, 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Asaka in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Army in 1908, studied in Europe from 1922 to 1925 and is now Commander of the Imperial Guard Division.

His consort, H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Nobuko), whom he married on May 6, 1910, was born on August 7, 1891, 8th daughter of the Emperor Meiji and died on November 3, 1933. There are three children: H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Takahiko), Second lieutenant, 1st son, born on October 8, 1912; H. I. H. Prince Asaka (Tadahiko), 2nd son, born on January 5, 1914, and H. I. H. Princess Asaka (Kiyoko), 2nd daughter, born on August 2, 1919. The residence is at Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

HIGASHI-KUNI. H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Naruhiko), Lieutenant-General, was born on December 3, 1887, 9th son of the late Imperial Prince Kuni (Asahiko). He founded the House of Higashi-Kuni in 1906, was appointed Second Lieutenant in the Infantry in 1908, studied in France from 1920 to 1927, was given command of the 3rd Infantry Regiment of the Imperial Guard Division in 1928, was promoted to command of the Nagoya Brigade in 1930 and is now Commander of the Fourth Division (Osaka).

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Higashi-Kuni (Toshiko), his consort, whom he married on May 18, 1915, was born on May 11, 1896, 9th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. There are three sons: H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Morihiro), 1st son, born on May 6, 1916; H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Akitsuné), 3rd son, born on May 13, 1920, and H. I. H. Prince Higashi-Kuni (Toshihiko), 4th son, born on March 24, 1929. The residence is at Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku, Tokyo.

KITASHIRAKAWA. H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa (Nagahisa), Lieutenant in the Artillery, 4th of the line, was born on February 19, 1910, only son of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), who died in Paris in 1923. His consort, H. I. H. Princess Sachiko, whom he married on April 26, 1935, was born on August 26, 1916, second daughter of Baron Yoshikuni Tokugawa.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Kitashirakawa (Tomiko), consort of the late Imperial Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa), 2nd of the line, was born on October 1, 1862, 2nd daughter of the late Marquis Daté (Munénori) and later adopted daughter of the late Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu) [Peer].

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Kitashirakawa (Fusako), consort of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa), 3rd of the line, was born on January 28, 1890, 7th daughter of the Emperor Meiji. One of her three daughters remain in the House: H. I. H. Princess Kitashirakawa (Tayéko), 3rd daughter, born on April 15, 1920.

The House of Kitashirakawa was founded in 1870 by the late Imperial

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Prince Kitashirakawa (Tomonari), 8th son of the late Imperial Prince Fushimi (Kuniiyé). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

TAKÉDA. H. I. H. Prince Takéda (Tsuneyoshi), Lieutenant in the Cavalry, 2nd of the line, was born on March 4, 1909, only son of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa). He married Miss Mitsuko, second daughter of Prince Sanjo (Kinteru) [Peer], on May 12, 1934.

H. I. H. Imperial Princess Takéda (Masako), consort of the late Imperial Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), was born on September 30, 1888, 6th daughter of the Emperor Meiji.

The House of Takéda was founded in 1906 by Prince Takéda (Tsunéhisa), 1st son of the late Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa). The residence is at Takanawa Minami-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

Korean Royalty

Treatment equal to that accorded members of the Imperial House is given to members of the Royal House of Chosen, and a Civil List of ₹1,800,000 for their maintenance is included in the budget of the Chosen Government-General.

H. H. Prince RI (Gin), Colonel in the Infantry, head of the House of Shotoku-kyu since the death in 1926 of his brother, Prince Ri (Seki), former Emperor, was born on October 20, 1897, 7th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei). He studied at the Peers' School in Tokyo and the Military Academy in preparation for a military career. He was promoted to the rank of captain on August 1, 1935, and appointed Commander of the 59th Infantry Regiment.

H. H. Princess RI (Masako), whom he married in 1920, was born on November 4, 1901, 1st daughter of H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto (Morimasa). On promotion to the rank of captain in 1923, the Prince was attached for a time to the Headquarters of the General Staff and in 1927-28 he and Princess Ri made a year's tour of Europe. They have a daughter Ri (Kyu) who was born on December 29, 1931.

H. H. Princess IN, consort of the late Prince Ri (Seki), was born on September 19, 1894, 1st daughter of Marquis In Taku-yei.

In Keijo, the capital of Chosen, the residence of this branch of the Royal House of Chosen is the Garyudo, and in Tokyo its residence is at Kioi-cho, Kojimachi-ku.

H. H. Prince Ri (Ken), Lieutenant in the Cavalry, heir of the retired Prince Ri (Ko), was born on October 28, 1909. On graduation from the Military Academy in 1930, he was appointed Lieutenant in the Cavalry.

H. H. Princess RI (Yoshiko), whom Prince Ri (Ken) married in 1931, was born on October 6, 1911, 1st daughter of Captain Yutaka Matsudaira, of the Navy. Their first son, Ri (Chu), was born on August 14, 1932, second son Ri (Ki) was born on March, 1935.

H. H. Prince RI (Ko), 5th son of the late Grand Prince Ri (Kei), father of Prince Ri (Ken), was born on March 30, 1877. His consort, H. H. Princess Kin, whom he married in 1893, was born on December 22, 1880, 1st daughter of the late Baron Kin Shi-ei.

H. H. Prince RI (Gu), 2nd son of Prince Ri (Ko), was born on November 15, 1912, and in 1917 was made successor to the late Prince Ri (Shun), who had died heirless.

H. H. Princess Ri (Sanshu), whom Prince Ri (Gu) married on May 3, 1935, was born on November 11, 1914, granddaughter of Marquis Boku-Ei.

H. H. Princess RI, consort of the

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late Prince Ri (Ki), was born on July 10, 1883, 1st daughter of Ri Rin-kyu, and married the Prince in 1901.

H. H. Princess KIN, consort of the late Prince Ri (Shun), was born on July 8, 1878, 1st daughter of Kin Zai-tei.

Former Princes

In accordance with the Imperial Household Law, Princes of the Imperial Family may be created peers, either by order of the Emperor or at their own wishes, with family names to be granted by the Emperor. The following table shows those living who have renounced membership in the Imperial Family:

Name	Princely Father	Year of Change
Marquis Komatsu (Teruhisa)	Late Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1910
Marquis Yamashina (Yoshimaro)	„ Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1920
Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	1926
Marquis Tsukuba (Fujimaro)	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	1928
Count Katsuragi (Shigemaro)	„ „ „	1929
Count Higashi-Fushimi (Kunihidé)	„ Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	1931

Former Princesses

The following table shows Princesses of the Imperial Family and the Royal House of Chosen who have married into the families of Peers:

Name	Princely Father	Consort	Year of Marriage
Ayako	Late Kuni (Asahiko)	Late Viscount Takenouchi (Koretada)	1892
Yeiko	„ „ „	„ Viscount Higashizono (Motoharu)	1899
Teiko	„ Fushimi (Sadanaru)	Marquis Yamanouchi (Toyokagé)	1901
Sadako	„ Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Arima (Yoriyasu)	1903
Mitsuko	„ „ „	Count Kanroji (Osanaga)	1904
Suzuko	„ Kuni (Asahiko)	Count Mibu (Motoyoshi)	1906
Takeko	„ Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Viscount Hoshina (Masaaki)	1911
Shigeko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Kuroda (Nagamichi), heir of Marquis	1914
Yukiko	Late Kaya (Kuninori)	Machijiri (Kazumoto), heir of Viscount	1915
Hiroko	„ Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	Count Futaara (Yoshinori)	1915
Yukiko	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Viscount Ando (Nobuaki)	1915
Yasuko	Late Yamashina (Kikumaro)	Asano (Nagataké), heir of Marquis	1920
Satoko	„ Kuni (Kuniyoshi)	Count Otani (Kocho)	1924
Nobuko	„ „ „	Sanjo-nishi (Kin-osa), heir of Viscount	1924
Atsuko	Fushimi (Hiroyasu)	Count Kiyozumi (Yukiyasu)	1926
Noriko	Nashimoto (Morimasa)	Count Hirohashi (Tadamitsu)	1926
Hanako	Kan-in (Kotohito)	Marquis Kwacho (Hironobu)	1926
Tokukei	Late Ri (Kei)	Count So (Takeyuki)	1931
Kikuko	Asaka (Yasuhiko)	Nabeshima (Naoyasu), heir of Marquis	1931
Mineko	Late Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Tachibana (Tanekatsu), heir of Viscount	1933
Ayako	„ Takeda(Tsunehisa)	Sano (Tsunemitsu) heir of Count	1934
Sawako	„ Kitashirakawa (Naruhisa)	Viscount Higashizono (Motobumi)	1935

Palaces, Gardens, etc.

Imperial Palace The residence of the Emperor covers an area of about 531 acres in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo. Originally built in 1457 by a provincial general, Dokan Ota, who named it Yédo Castle, it became the headquarters of the Tokugawa Shogunate in the 16th century and was greatly extended. With the transfer of the capital from Kyoto to Tokyo in 1869, the second year of the Meiji Restoration, it was selected as the Imperial Residence and renamed Tokyo Castle. Much of it

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was destroyed in the great fire of 1873. The present palace, built between 1880 and 1888, cost ¥3,968,000. On completion, the name was changed to Kyujo, or Imperial Palace.

(1) Kyoto Palace. Situated in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto, it was the Imperial Residence for 1,075 years, from 794 A. D., when the capital was moved from Nara to Kyoto, until 1869, when the seat of government was transferred to Tokyo. In accordance with the Accession Law, the ceremony of ascension to the Throne is always held here. The grounds cover about 229 acres.

(2) Aoyama Palace. Situated in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, the palace was formerly the residence of the Lord of Tamba, but in 1873 the late Empress Dowager Yeisho made it her home. Within its large park is the residence of the Imperial Prince Sumi.

(3) Omiya Palace. Also within the park of the Aoyama Palace, it is the residence of the Empress Dowager, mother of the reigning Emperor.

(4) Shinjuku Imperial Garden. At Naito-Shinjuku-machi, Yotsuya-ku, Tokyo, the garden was originally the site of the residence of the Lord of the Takato Clan in Shinano, but in 1879 it came under the control of the Imperial Household Department and in 1906 was given its present name. Here are held the spring and autumn Imperial garden parties.

(5) Akasaka Detached Palace. Also on part of the former property of the Lord of Kii, in Akasaka-ku, Tokyo, it was made a detached palace in 1872 and became a temporary residence of the Imperial Family from 1873 to 1889 during the construction of the present Imperial Palace. Royal and princely visitors from abroad are guests here while in Tokyo.

(6) Hama Detached Palace. Situated in Tsukiji, Kyobashi-ku, Tokyo, its grounds were used by the Shoguns in feudal times for hawking and are now the scene of Imperial duck-hunting parties.

(7) Kasumigaseki Detached Palace. Formerly the residence of the late Imperial Prince Arisugawa, it is located behind the Foreign Office in Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.

(8) Nijo Detached Palace. Originally Nijo Castle, in Kamikyo-ku, Kyoto, it was made a detached palace in 1884.

(9) Katsura Detached Palace. Located at Katsura, Ukyo-ku, Kyoto, it was formerly the residence of Prince Katsura [Katsura-no-miya] and became a detached palace in 1883.

(10) Shugakuin Detached Palace. Widely known for its beautiful garden, it was built by the Tokugawa Shogunate in the reign of the Emperor Gomizuno-o at what is now Shugakuin, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto, and was made a detached palace in 1883.

(11) Hakoné Detached Palace. On Lake Ashi in the Hakoné region, it was seriously damaged in the 1923 earthquake and has been left unrepaired.

(12) Muko Detached Palace. At Suma, Kobé, it became a detached palace in 1908.

(13) Hayama Imperial Villa. Because of its proximity to Tokyo, at Hayama-machi, Kanagawa prefecture, it is a favourite retreat, especially in the winter. Here the Emperor Taisho died in 1926.

(14) Taté-ishi Rest-House. It is located at Nishiura-mura, Miura-gun, Kanagawa prefecture.

(15) Numazu Imperial Villa. The palace is at Agehara-machi, Numazu, on Suruga Bay, Shizuoka prefecture.

(16) Nikko Imperial Villa. Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture, is the

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location.

(17) Tamozawa Imperial Villa. This also is at Nikko-machi, Tochigi prefecture.

(18) Shiobara Imperial Villa. The palace is at Shiobara-machi, Tochigi prefecture, a district noted for its maples.

(19) Ikao Imperial Estate. This estate or preserve is at Ikao-machi, a mountain resort in Gumma prefecture.

(20) Nasu Imperial Villa. Mountain views are the main attraction of Nasu-mura, Nasu-gun, Tochigi prefecture, where the palace is situated.

(21) Nagara River Preserve. This preserve for ayu lies in Gujo-gun, Mugi-gun and Inaba-gun, Gifu prefecture.

(22) Yedo River Preserve. There are two parts, one in Higashi-Katsushika-gun, Chiba prefecture, and the other in Minami-Saitama-gun and Kita-Katsushika-gun, Saitama prefecture. The preserve abounds in water-hens, herons, snipes, quails, white swans, wild geese, ducks, plovers, pheasants, water-rails, etc.

(23) Jintsu River Preserve. This preserve for trout, salmon and other fish is located in Nei-gun and Kami-Niikawa-gun, Toyama prefecture.

In 1930, the Nagoya Detached Palace was donated to Nagoya city; and the Odawara Imperial Villa and Shizuoka Imperial Villa were abolished, part of the latter being granted to Shizuoka city. In 1931, the Atami Imperial Villa and Kamakura Imperial Villa were abolished and the former was sold to Atami-machi.

Miyanoshita Imperial villa was abolished, December, 1933, and given to H. I. H. Imperial Prince Takamatsu.

Imperial Household Finance

The Civil List is appropriated by the National Treasury and no approval of the Diet is necessary except when an increase in it is required. At present, it amounts to ¥4,500,000, any deficiency in it being met by an outlay from the Imperial property. The Board of Imperial Auditors is located in the Imperial Household Department and its present Director-General is Mr. Yahachi Kawai. Prince Saionji and Baron Ikki are financial advisers to the Imperial Household.

The total Imperial Household expenditure is estimated at approximately ¥20,000,000 annually and is met by the Civil List, ¥4,500,000, and by receipts from the Imperial forests, Imperial estates and other Imperial property.

The Naidaijin-fu

The Naidaijin, Grand Keeper of the Imperial Seals, who has been so called from olden times, is a dignitary of the Imperial Household with the function of keeping the Imperial and State Seals and of administering matters regarding Imperial decrees and documents of the Imperial Household. He is a State functionary of the Shinnin rank, or one appointed directly by the Emperor, and is assisted by three secretaries in the execution of his duty.

The Imperial Household Department

The Imperial Household Department is divided into the office of the Minister of the Imperial Household and ten principal subsidiary offices, namely, the Secretariat of the Minister, the Board of Chamberlains, the Board of Ceremonies, the Imperial Family and Peerage Board, the Imperial Mausolea Bureau, the Imperial Archives Bureau, the Court Physicians Bureau, the Imperial Treasury Bureau, the Maintenance and Works Bureau, and the Imperi-

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al Stables Bureau, and is charged with the conduct of affairs pertaining to the Imperial Household. There are, in addition to those above mentioned, such other institutions as follows coming under the supervision of the Minister of the Imperial Household:

The Office of H. I. M. the Empress' Household,
The Office of H. I. M. the Empress Dowager's Household,
The Office of H. I. H. Prince Sumi's Household,
The Board of the Imperial Auditors,
The Imperial Forests and Estates Board,
The Imperial Poetry Bureau,
The Imperial Museums (at Tokyo and Nara),
The Peers' School,
The Peers' School for Girls,
The Temporary Board for the Compilation of the History of the Emperor Meiji.

Since 1884, it has been placed outside the pale of the administrative system, so that the Minister is in no way affected by any Cabinet change.

The present and preceding Ministers of the Imperial Household Department are:

Name	Time of appointment
Late Prince Hirobumi Ito	Dec., 1885
Late Marquis Hisamoto Hijikata	Sept., 1887
Viscount Mitsuaki Tanaka	Feb., 1898
Late Prince Tomosada Iwakura	June, 1909
Viscount Chiaki Watanabé	April, 1910
Baron Takatada Hatano	April, 1914
Late Baron Yujiro Nakamura	June, 1920
Count Nobuaki Makino	Feb., 1921
Baron Kitokuro Ikki	Mar., 1925
Kurahei Yuasa	Mar., 1933

Court Councillors

The Court Councillors are honorary officials of the Chokunin rank, or those appointed by the Emperor, and return reports or make recommendations on matters submitted to them for deliberation by the Minister of the Imperial Household, and, on special occasions, assist the conduct of the affairs of the Imperial Household Department by order of the Minister. At present, their number is limited to 25.

The Peerage

The modern system of the Peerage, with its five grades of Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount and Baron, dates from 1884, but prior to this there was a well-established aristocracy. Up to the time of the Meiji Restoration, there were two groups, the Court Nobles, called Kugé, most of whom were descendants of younger sons of Emperors, and the Feudal Lords, called Daimyo or Tonosama, most of whom had attained their standing through military prowess. With the Restoration, these were amalgamated under the name of Kwazoku (Peerage), meaning the "Flowers of the Nation". In 1884, an Imperial edict was issued establishing the five grades of the present Peerage, and to the members of the Kwazoku were added subjects who had assisted in the work of the Restoration. In the first list there were 11 Princes, 24 Marquises, 76 Counts, 376 Viscounts and 382 Barons.

When Chosen was annexed in 1910, 67 Koreans of distinction were selected to become Peers, six Marquises, three Counts, 22 Viscounts and 45 Barons.

The families of the Peerage stood as follows on June 19, 1933:

Grade	Number of families	Minors to succeed when of age	Unsucceeded
Prince	19	—	—
Marquis	39	2	1
Count	110	5	—
Viscount	379	27	1
Baron	411	29	3
Total	958	63	5

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Decorations

To recognize and reward persons who render distinguished and meritorious service to the State, orders of merit and decorations were created in 1875 and supplemented in later years. The orders of merit, of which there are nine—the Grand Order and numerical orders from 1st to 8th,—are only nominal and serve to indicate the class of decoration to which a holder is entitled. The decorations themselves are of seven kinds:

Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum There are two kinds, the Collar of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum and the Grand Cordon of the Supreme Order of the Chrysanthemum, both reserved for those given the Grand Order of Merit. The first, the highest Japanese decoration, is a gold chain or necklace from which is hung a small medallion representing a chrysanthemum, to which is fastened a large sunburst flanked with chrysanthemum flowers and leaves. The second is marked by the same medallions, but worn at the left hip at the bottom of a cordon or ribbon of red with purple edges hung from the right shoulder.

Rising Sun and Paulownia This is a single decoration, combining the devices of two lesser orders, known as the Grand Cordon of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun with Paulownia Flowers which is awarded only to holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit. From a cordon of red with two white stripes, worn over the right shoulder and falling to the opposite hip, are suspended a small medallion showing paulownia flowers and leaves and a larger medallion, below it, of a double-rayed rising sun flanked with paulownia flowers.

Rising Sun There are six classes, from the Grand Cordon of the Rising Sun, to which holders of the 1st Class Order of Merit are eligible, to the 6th Class Order of the Rising Sun, which holders of the 6th Class Order of Merit may receive. Foreigners in the employ of the Government are often awarded this decoration, usually the 3rd, 4th, 5th or 6th class, after long and meritorious service. This decoration may, but not necessarily, carry an annuity.

Paulownia Two classes exist, sometimes referred to as the 7th and 8th classes of the Order of the Rising Sun. The Order of the Blue Paulownia is for holders of the 7th Order of Merit, and the Order of the White Paulownia for holders of the 8th Class Order of Merit.

Sacred Treasure Known as the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure. Of this order there are eight classes. The medallion represents the Mirror and Gem of the Imperial Regalia, and the cordon is of light blue with two orange stripes.

Precious Crown Its full name is the Imperial Order of the Precious Crown. The eight classes of this order are bestowed on women only, who were barred from receiving any other decoration until 1919,when they were also made eligible for the Order of the Sacred Treasure. The medallion shows the Precious Crown, with cherry blossoms and bamboo, and the cordon is of yellow with two scarlet stripes.

Golden Kite Purely a military order, known as the Imperial Military Order of the Golden Kite, this has seven classes. The cordon is green with two white stripes. It carries a life annuity, fixed in 1916 at ¥1,500 for the 1st Class; ¥1,000, 2nd Class; ¥700, 3rd Class; ¥500, 4th Class; ¥350, 5th Class; ¥250, 6th Class, and ¥150, 7th Class. This is granted to the family for one year following the recipient's death, or, if he has

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died within five years of being decorated, until the end of that period.

Holders of any decorations who are sentenced to death, penal servitude or imprisonment for more than three years are deprived of decorations, accompanying diplomas and, if any, annuities. They may also be ordered to surrender them if guilty of acts of dishonour, depending on the circumstances.

Medals of Honour The Medal with Red Riband is conferred on persons who risk their lives in rescuing others; the Medal with Green Riband on those who distinguish themselves for filial piety, feminine virtues, devotion to the aged and loyalty to masters; the Medal with Blue Riband on those who aid public and private undertakings by important discoveries or inventions; the Medal with Dark Navy Blue Riband on those who contribute money or property for public welfare; and the Medal with Yellow Riband, divided into two classes, gold and silver, on persons who help undertakings connected with coast defence. Cups of gold or wood or monetary gifts are sometimes granted simultaneously to the recipients.

Court Rank

Court rank is specially conferred on persons who distinguish themselves in service to the State, peers and their heirs, officials and army and navy officers. There are 16 grades, from the senior grade of the first rank to the junior grade of the eighth rank, and all affairs pertaining to them are administered by the Imperial Family and Peerage Board in the Imperial Household Department in accordance with the Court Rank Act, promulgated in 1926.

There were 224,729 holders of Court rank at the end of 1933, divided as follows:

First	Senior	—	Junior	1
Second	„	28	„	66
Third	„	878	„	749
Fourth	„	1,735	„	3,457
Fifth	„	8,071	„	11,511
Sixth	„	13,507	„	18,861
Seventh	„	30,354	„	55,923
Eigth	„	77,965	„	2,033
Total		224,729		

Stick Granted to the Aged

In the 12th century, Toshinari Fujiwara, a Court noble, was granted on the celebration of his 90th birthday a stick for use in Court by the Emperor Gotoba. This honour, known as Kyuchuzuyé or Hatozuyé because the stick has a pigeon top, is today bestowed on Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank who have passed the age of 80 in recognition of signal service to the Court and the State, though it is marked by a monetary gift in lieu of an actual stick. Living holders follow:

Prince Saionji (Kimmochi)
Marquis Asano (Nagakoto)
Baron Kubota (Yuzuru)
Count Kiyoura (Keigo)
Baron Kuratomi (Yusaburo)
Count Tanaka (Mitsuaki)
Viscount Kaneko (Kentaro)
Viscount Soga (Sukenori)
Viscount Kurino (Shinichiro)
Viscount Ishiguro (Tadanori)
General Oseko (Naomichi)
Count Toda (Ujitaké)
Takahashi (Korekiyo)
Baron Yamamoto (Tatsuo)
Tomiya (Shotaro)

Court Artists

For the promotion and encouragement of fine arts, representative artists are chosen by a special committee in the Court and their appointment as Court artists is made by the Minister of the Imperial Household. The artists may produce objects of art for the Court or present opinions upon Imperial enquiries on questions pertaining to arts. Koun Takamura died in October, 1934 and new

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members were appointed in December, 1934, and the present Court artists are as follows :

Sculptor	Chōun Yamazaki
Painters	Seiho Takeuchi
	Gyokudo Kawai
	Taikwan Yokoyama
	Yukihiko Yasuda
	Kansetsu Hashimoto
	Keigetsu Kikuchi
	Eisaku Wada
	Saburosuké Okada
	Takeji Fujishima
Architect	Iwajiro Sasaki
Metal Carver	Kamezo Shimizu
Metal Worker	Shushin Katori
Ceramist	Hazan Itaya

State Funerals

There had been no special provision for the State Funeral for honoured personages, although it had been held several times since the 16th year of Meiji, or 1883. The Government, however, issued the State Funeral Ordinance as an Imperial Order in 1926. According to the Ordinance, the State Funeral is held with distinguished rituals, its expenses being borne by the National Treasury. There are two kinds of State Funerals, i.e. the one for Imperial Personages and the other for the subjects. The former is still divided into two; the first one is called the Grand Funeral and is for the Emperor, the Great Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and the Empress, while the second one is called the Imperial Funeral and is for the Crown Prince, the Crown Princess, the Emperor's grandson and his consort, the Regent Imperial Prince or Emperor's daughters or children. Both the Grand and Imperial Funerals are held under special ritual according to the Provisions of the Imperial House Funeral Ordinance.

The State Funeral for the subjects is held in honour of those who contributed distinguished services to the country by the special order of the Emperor and the ritual and order of the Funeral is fixed by the Premier with the Imperial sanction.

State Funerals have been accorded to the following since the beginning of the Meiji Era :

Prince Iwakura (Tomomi) [Peer]	1883
Prince Shimazu (Hisamitsu) [Peer]	1887
Prince Sanjo (Sanetomi) [Peer]	1891
Prince Arisugawa (Taruhito)	1895
Prince Kitashirakawa (Yoshihisa)	1895
Prince Mori (Motonori) [Peer]	1896
Prince Shimazu (Tadayoshi) [Peer]	1897
Prince Komatsu (Akihiko)	1903
Prince Ito (Hirobumi) [Peer]	1909
Prince Arisugawa (Takehito)	1913
Prince Oyama (Iwao) [Peer]	1916
Grand Prince Ri (Kei)	1919
Prince Yamagata (Aritomo) [Peer]	1922
Prince Fushimi (Sadanaru)	1923
Marquis Matsukata (Masayoshi)	1924
Prince Ri (Seki)	1926
Marquis Togo (Heihachiro)	1934

Imperial Interest in Social Work

On various occasions of great importance in the Imperial Household, grants of money are made from the Privy Purse for social welfare, instances of which follow :

Year	Occasion	Purpose or Recipient	Amount in Yen
1897	Empress Dowager Yeisho's Funeral	—Charity	400,000
1912	Emperor Meiji's Funeral	—Charity	1,000,000
1914	Empress Dowager Shoken's Funeral	—Charity	600,000
1915	Emperor Taisho's Enthronement	—Charity	1,000,000
1924	Prince Regent's Wedding	—Promotion of social works	1,000,000
	,,	—Encouragement for the poor to send children to school	1,000,000
1925	Emperor Taisho's Silver Wedding	—Young Men's and Women's Ass'ns	750,000
	,,	—Cultural Bodies in the Colonies	250,000
1927	Emperor Taisho's Funeral	—Charity	1,500,000
1928	Demise of Princess Hisa, the Emperor's daughter	—Protection of the young	50,000
1929	Emperor's Enthronement	—Charity	1,500,000
1934	Birth of the Crown Prince, Akihito	—Protection of mothers and the young	750,000

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Since 1879, it has been the custom of the Imperial House to make monetary contributions when there are floods, fires, railway accidents, violent winds, shipwrecks, earthquakes, famines, volcanic eruptions, mine explosions, etc. Immediately after the great earthquake and fire of 1923, a grant of ¥10,000,000 was made for relief.

A fund of ¥1,500,000 in 1911 for extension of medical treatment to the poor was used to found the Saisei-kai, the Imperial Charity Association, which continues active today. Additional money for this work was included in the grant of ¥3,000,000 in 1932 for relief of the poor, and it was extended to the Colonies by a grant of ¥300,000 to the Overseas Ministry.

With the ¥1,000,000 granted on the occasion of the wedding of the present Emperor, Viscount Kiyoura, Premier at the time, established the Keifuku-kai, Beatitude Association, for promotion of social work done by private bodies. On every Kigensetsu, the anniversary of the foundation of the country, which takes place on February 11, Imperial grants are made directly to public and private social welfare organizations. At first limited to such organizations as the Japan Red Cross Society, the Women's Patriotic Association, the Imperial Association for the Support of Soldiers, the Salvation Army, the Fukuden-kai (Charity Association) Orphanage and the Tokyo Asylum, these grants have been greatly increased since 1921 and now go even to superior private bodies in Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Sea Islands.

In 1932, a grant of ¥1,500,000 was made to the Association for the Promotion of Learning through the Education Minister.

Since the days of the Emperor Meiji, it has been customary for the Emperor, while travelling in the provinces to supervise the grand military and naval manoeuvres or on observation tours, to send representatives to various welfare organizations to present money or other gifts.

Also since the beginning of the Meiji Era, the Emperor, the Empress, the Empress Dowager and the Imperial Princes and Princesses have frequently visited charity hospitals, schools for the blind and dumb and other social welfare institutions. Many such organizations have Princes and Princesses of the Blood as presidents. The present Empress Dowager is particularly interested in the relief of lepers and in 1930 granted funds to all bodies engaged in this work.

Court Rituals

GRAND RITUALS. The Grand Rituals are those conducted by the Emperor personally, with Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank in attendance. Brief descriptions follow:

Genshisai, the celebration of the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is performed on January 3 by the Emperor at the Three Shrines in the grounds of the Imperial Palace, the Kashikodokoro, where the Sacred Mirror is installed, the Koreiden, the shrine of the Imperial Ancestors, and the Shinden, the sanctuary of Shinto deities.

Kigensetsusai, to celebrate the ascension to the Throne of the Emperor Jimmu, is performed by the Emperor at the Three Shrines on February 11. In the evening, sacred music and dances are given in a pavilion in front of the Koreiden.

Shunki-Koreisai, for the worship of preceding Emperors and Empresses

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and Princes and Princesses of Imperial lineage, takes place in the Koreiden on the day of the vernal equinox.

Shunki-Shindensai, performed on the same day in the Shinden, is to offer thanks to the Gods of Heaven and Earth for their blessings and to petition for their continuance.

Jimmu-Tennosai, which takes place in the Koreiden, marks the anniversary of the demise of the founder of the country, the Emperor Jimmu, on April 3. To his mausoleum is despatched on the same day a Court official representing the Emperor to make offerings. At fixed intervals, the Emperor personally conducts the rite at the mausoleum.

Shuki-Koreisai and Shuki-Shindensai are identical in form and purpose with the vernal equinox rituals but take place on the day of the autumn equinox.

Kannamé-no-Matsuri, the ritual of offering thanks for the harvest and new rice to the soul of the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, which takes place in the Grand Shrines of Isé on October 16 and 17, is duplicated in the Kashikodokoro at the Imperial Palace on October 17.

Niinamé-no-Matsuri, conducted between November 23 and 24, is marked by the Emperor partaking of new rice after offering it to the Imperial Ancestress, Amaterasu-Omikami, and all the Gods of Heaven and Earth. The same ritual, when performed at the Emperor's enthronement, is called Daijo-sai.

Taisho-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Taisho, the Emperor's father, and is celebrated in the Koreiden on December 25. In the evening, sacred music and dances are performed in a pavilion in front of the shrine. A court official representing the Emperor is sent on the same day to the mausoleum of the Emperor Taisho to make offerings, a rite which the Emperor himself performs at fixed intervals.

ORDINARY RITUALS. These are Court rituals which the Emperor does not conduct personally, but which he attends with the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Court dignitaries and officials and officers of high rank.

Saitansai, held at dawn on January 1 at the Three Shrines, is for worship of the Imperial Ancestors and the Gods, offering thanks to them for the grace of Heaven and supplicating for its continuance.

Komei-Tennosai marks the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Komei, great-grandfather of the Emperor, and is held in the Koreiden on January 30. The rite of presenting offerings at his mausoleum is performed on the same day.

Kinensai, held on February 17 in the Three Shrines, is the ritual of praying for a bountiful harvest and for the continued prosperity and well-being of the Imperial House and the nation. A Court official representing the Emperor is dispatched on the same day to the Grand Shrines of Isé to make offerings, and offerings are also presented at various other shrines.

Ninko-Tennosai, marking the anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Ninko, great-great-grandfather of the Emperor, is performed on February 21 in the Koreiden. Offerings are made and a ritual conducted at his mausoleum on the same day.

Tenchosetsusai, held in the Three Shrines on April 29, the birthday of the Emperor, is the ritual of praying for the longevity of His Majesty.

Meiji-Tennosai is observed in the Koreiden on July 30 to mark the

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anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Meiji, grandfather of the Emperor. Offerings are made and a ritual performed at his mausoleum on the same day.

Meijisetsusai is held on November 3 to praise the great achievements of the Emperor Meiji, to remember his high virtues, to invigorate and develop the spirit of the national revival in the Meiji Era and to pray for increased national prosperity.

Kashikodokoro-Mikagura, a sacred dance, is held in the Kashikodokoro in the middle of December. As no definite date is fixed, an auspicious day is named every year by Imperial order.

OTHER RITUALS. The Imperial Court also observes several rituals not specified in the Court Ritual Act:

Shusai, Tenth-day Ceremony, is held on the 1st, 11th and 21st of every month except January 1, the Emperor observes the ceremony for the Gods more elaborately than on the usual days.

Futsukasai and Mikkasai are performed on January 2 and 3, with the New Year's Day Ceremony. These are observed with specially elaborate rituals.

Joyasai, New Year's Eve Ceremony. At the end of the year the Emperor gives thanks to the Gods for their benevolence throughout the year and prays for blessings in the coming year.

Ye-ori, the rite for purification of the person of the Emperor, is held in the Phoenix Hall of the Imperial Palace on June 30 and December 31.

O-harai, held on the same days as Yo-ori, is a similar rite for the purification of all officials and officers from sins committed unconsciously.

SPECIAL CEREMONIES. Two special ceremonies at the Imperial Court are worthy of note:

Kosho-Hajimé, or the ceremony of delivering lectures in the Court at the beginning of the New Year, takes place in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and Court dignitaries in the Phoenix Hall. Usually three lecturers are chosen, with three others held in reserve, from the nation's most erudite scholars of Japanese classics, Chinese classics and Western learning to lecture on subjects related to their specialties.

Utakai-Hajimé, or the Imperial New Year Poetry Party, is usually held in the middle of January in the presence of the Emperor and Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood and high Court dignitaries. Though long in existence, it became one of the most important annual ceremonies in 1869. A few months in advance, the Imperial Household Minister announces the theme for the waka, or tanka, poems of 31 syllables, to be submitted. For the honour of having a poem read in the ceremony, anyone may compete. In addition to those by subjects, poems by the Emperor and Empress and other members of the Imperial Family are read.

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CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY

Position and Extent

The Japanese Empire, wholly within the Asiatic half of the North Pacific, consists of Japan proper and various colonies. At the time of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, there were the four large continental islands of Honshu, or Hondo, usually known as the Mainland, Kyushu, Shikoku and Hokkaido, or Yezo, and 4,068 adjacent islands of smaller size. Russia ceded the long chain of islands called the Chishima,[1] or the Kuriles, in 1875. The Ogasawarajima, or Bonin Islands, were formally annexed in 1877, and the Ryukyu, or Loochoo Islands, in 1879, though both groups had been earlier under Japanese control. All these areas today constitute Japan proper.

The Colonies The first colony, Taiwan, or Formosa, with the adjacent islands called the Bokoto, or Pescadores, was ceded by China in 1895 following the Sino-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War brought Karafuto, or the southern half of the island of Saghalien, and, in Manchuria, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. Chosen, or Korea, was annexed in 1910. The mandated Caroline, Mariana and Marshall islands, former German possessions in the South Seas, were received by Japan at the Versailles Peace Conference, 1919. With the exception of the Aleutians, the northern half of Saghalien, the Philippines, North Borneo, Hawaii and a few small scattered islands, including Guam, the Empire spreads over all the islands in the Pacific north of the equator.

The most northern part of the Empire, the island of Araito in the Chishima, touches 50° 55′ N. Lat. The southern extreme is in the mandated Caroline Islands, 1° 01′ N. Lat. To the west, the Bokoto extend to 119° 18′ E. Long., and to the east, the mandated Marshall Islands reach 172° 10′ E. Long.

Length and Width If the South Sea Islands, the Kwantung Leased Territory, the South Manchuria Railway Zone and the continental peninsula of Chosen are omitted, the Empire is a semi-circle of islands extending in latitude from 21° 45′ N. to 50° 55′ N., approximately 3,380 kilometres, and in longitude from 119° 18′ E. to 156° 30′ E., with a maximum width of about 320 kilometres.

Area

The total area of the Empire is 681,024,70 square kilometres, distributed as shown in the following table:

Divisions	Area in Sq. Kilometres
Grand Total	681,024.70
Japan proper	382,314.39
Honshu	230,301.67
Shikoku	18,772.68
Kyushu	42,078.71
Hokkaido	88,775.04
Ryukyu	2,386.29
Chosen	220,740.72
Taiwan	35,846.69
Bokoto	126.86

1 The Japanese word for island or islands —no differentiation is made for number—is shima, sometimes read jima. In some instances, the Chinese reading, to, is used, as in Bokoto. It has been thought best to leave it untranslated, for it forms an integral part of the name.

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Divisions	Area in Sq. Kilometres
Karafuto	36,089.77
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462.45
South Sea Mandated Islands	2,148.80
S. M. R. Zone	295.02

Japan proper occupies 57 per cent. of the total area, while Chosen occupies 33 per cent., and Taiwan and Karafuto 5 per cent. each.

Atmospheric Conditions

The average atmospheric pressure of 1933 was highest in Chosen, Manchuria and China, recording 762-763 mm., the highest being 763.9 mm. of Tientsin. The meteorological stations in the Main Island recorded about 761 mm. as in the previous year, and in Hokkaido, Karafuto and the South Sea Islands the pressure was lower in general, the lowest being 757 mm. at Palau. It was mostly above 760 mm. in Formosa and Loochoo.

In the same year, the mean temperature rose higher than 20° C. in Formosa, Loochoo, the Bonin Islands and the South Sea Islands, the highest being 26° 8′ at Palau. In Shikoku, Kyushu and the districts which face the Pacific Ocean, ending with the Tokyo Gulf at the northernmost, it was about 16°; in the districts west of Kyoto in the Main Island 15°; in the eastern mountainous districts 10°–13°, in the north-eastern districts 10°; in Hokkaido mostly 5°, except 8° at the southern end; and in Karafuto 3°, the lowest being 0° at Shisuka. In Chosen, it was 10°–14° in the south and 3° at the most northerly border. In Manchuria it was about 10°. The highest record was 37° 7′ at Taihoku in Formosa, 38° 3′ at Sasebo in Kyushu, and the lowest 27° 9′ below zero at Asahigawa in Hokkaido, 33° 8′ below zero at Shisuka in Karafuto.

In 1933, places where the annual quantity of precipitation was more than 3,000 mm. were Takada, Owashi, Odaigahara and Palau; more than 2,000 mm. Hachijo-jima, Fushiki, Wajima, Kanazawa, Ibuki-yama, Shimizu, Kochi, Shionomisaki, Naha, etc. In the Main Island it was 1,000-2,000 mm.; in Hokkaido 900-1,000 mm.; in Karafuto 600-900 mm.

The average velocity of the wind does not vary much in the plains, being from one metre to three metres per second; but at Ibuki-yama the Boko Islands, Unzen-daké, Hachijo-jima, Naha, and Choshi it was more than 5 metres. Hakoné-yama, Ibuki-yama, Naha, Shana, and Ishigaki-jima experienced a maximum velocity of more than 30 metres per second.

The Kansai Typhoon in 1934 A record typhoon raged throughout the south-western half of Japan on September 21, 1934, velocity of which was reported to have exceeded 60 metres per second. According to the investigations made by the Home Ministry, it affected 35 prefectures. In Osaka prefecture the dead numbered 1,624, and the wounded together with the missed numbered 5,729. Houses totally damaged numbered 9,937. The total casualties numbered 2,499 dead, 8,399 wounded and 568 missing. Houses damaged totalled 376,350, of which those wholly tumbled down were 34,576. The number of school buildings damaged was 289.

Meantime, the damages wrought on workshops in Osaka prefecture were estimated at ¥30,000,000 covering 1,200 in number. The workshops referred herewith are confined to those which employ more than five operatives. If, therefore, to the above damages are added damages inflicted upon smaller scaled workshops the total damages are undoubtedly far greater than described in the above.

Meteorological obervations in 1933 are given in the following table:

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METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS

(1933)

Meteorological stations	Situation of stations North Latitude	Situation of stations East Longitude	Altitude of barometer	Average pressure	Temperature Average	Temperature Difference between average year	Temperature Maximum	Temperature Minimum
	degrees	degrees	m.	mm.	degrees	degrees	degrees	degrees
Nemuro	43.20	145.35	26.7	759.7	6.7	+ 0.2	29.3	− 19.6
Sapporo	43.04	141.21	16.9	759.9	7.2	+ 0.3	32.6	− 22.2
Aomori	40.49	140.47	5.3	760.8	8.9	− 0.4	32.9	− 17.0
Tokyo	35.41	139.46	5.8	760.9	14.7	+ 0.8	35.4	− 5.4
Niigata	37.56	139.03	8.2	761.4	13.1	+ 0.5	35.6	− 7.7
Nagano	36.40	138.12	420.4	761.1	11.2	+ 0.3	36.6	− 13.8
Nagoya	35.10	136.58	52.4	761.5	14.4	0.0	36.8	− 6.7
Kyoto	35.01	135.44	42.9	761.9	14.4	+ 0.6	36.0	− 7.0
Osaka	34.39	135.26	3.0	761.6	15.4	+ 0.3	35.2	− 4.9
Sakai	35.33	133.14	2.9	761.7	14.5	+ 0.3	35.9	− 4.5
Hiroshima	34.23	132.27	3.2	762.1	14.9	+ 0.2	35.5	− 5.6
Kochi	33.33	133.32	42.1	761.6	15.8	+ 0.2	34.4	− 5.7
Nagasaki	32.44	129.52	133.0	762.0	15.6	0.0	33.2	− 5.2
Naha	26.12	127.39	29.5	760.5	22.0	− 0.1	31.5	9.3
Keijo (Seoul)	37.34	126.59	29.5	762.9	10.6	− 0.4	35.9	− 18.4
Taihoku	25.02	121.31	9.3	760.6	22.0	+ 0.4	37.7	6.0
Odomari	46.39	142.46	37.3	759.3	3.2	− 0.3	27.0	− 24.2
Dairen	38.54	121.38	97.3	763.6	10.0	− 0.2	34.2	− 18.1
Palau	7.20	134.29	31.8	757.0	26.8	0.0	31.6	22.2

Meteorological stations	Average humidity	Quantity of Precipitation Total	Quantity of Precipitation Difference between average year	Quantity of Precipitation Maximum	Wind Average velocity	Wind Maximum velocity	Clear days	Rainy days
	%	mm.	mm.	mm.	m/sec.	m/sec.		
Nemuro	77	1,207.9	+ 238.0	72.9	4.5	23.7	30	176
Sapporo	77	1,045.9	+ 10.3	72.9	3.0	17.0	16	203
Aomori	81	1,199.6	− 178.7	41.2	3.6	23.8	16	224
Tokyo	72	1,011.3	− 559.9	122.2	3.1	15.1	45	128
Niigata	76	1,828.7	+ 46.3	98.8	5.0	27.2	21	207
Nagano	76	886.4	− 127.9	86.0	2.5	15.5	20	173
Nagoya	77	1,318.9	− 354.5	77.4	3.0	17.6	57	136
Kyoto	76	1,332.8	− 242.8	64.6	1.7	11.4	34	168
Osaka	75	1,221.1	− 131.1	93.8	2.6	18.6	44	138
Sakai	76	1,869.1	− 83.6	88.7	2.2	15.8	24	212
Hiroshima	74	1,297.8	− 229.7	68.4	1.5	8.8	33	133
Kochi	76	2,500.2	− 199.3	169.4	1.5	8.8	47	161
Nagasaki	74	1,584.8	− 380.0	71.0	3.4	23.9	39	166
Naha	84	2,259.0	+ 144.3	236.3	5.9	37.4	15	192
Keijo (Seoul)	67	1,400.8	+ 130.4	125.2	2.8	16.7	67	118
Taihoku	83	1,842.7	− 289.1	109.0	2.9	9.8	28	184
Odomari	80	690.6	− 42.9	64.0	4.5	25.8	34	158
Dairen	65	490.3	− 120.0	59.4	4.6	21.3	103	80
Palau	81	3,498.3	− 420.0	102.2	1.8	8.2	3	271

Geological Formation

The Japanese islands lie at the east end of the Eurasia Continent, spreading more than 3,800 kilometres on the Pacific. They are arranged in the form of a festoon or a breakwater for the Continent against the Pacific waves. The numerous islands may be divided into four groups or bows: the Nippon Bow, the Chishima Bow, the Ryu-

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kyu Bow and the Ogasawara or Bonin Bow. The Nippon Bow is composed of the Main Island and the small islands around it. The Main Island itself draws an arc, its convex surface projecting into the Pacific and its concave surface facing the Japan Sea, because the whole Nippon Bow was pushed out to the ocean by a mountain-making process from the side of the Japan Sea. The Nippon Bow again is composed of two mountain systems, with the Fuji volcanic range as the dividing line; they are the Northern range, or the Karafuto mountain system, and the Southern range, or the Kwenlun mountain system.

It is said that recent excavations show it almost impossible to find the oldest rocks in the formation of the Japanese Islands, but it was formerly assumed that gneiss and crystalline schist, which belong to the oldest geological eras, are found in Japan.

Gneiss Distribution Gneiss is distributed mostly in the Nippon Bow and Chosen and cannot be found in the Ryukyu and the Chishima Bows. It runs through the centre of the southern half of the Nippon Bow, while in the northern half it may be found in the plateau of Abukuma. In Chosen it is spread over a wide area. Crystalline schist runs generally along the outside of the gneiss system. In the southern part of the Nippon Bow, it starts at the Akaishi range and runs through the Kii range to Shikoku, where it develops in a wide area, taking the place of gneiss; then it crosses the strait to Kyushu and sinks under the Aso volcanic chain to appear again at Nagasaki. In Taiwan it forms the eastern part of the Taiwan mountain range. In the northern half of the Nippon Bow, it appears in the Kanto range and may be found in the Yezo mountain system of Hokkaido and in Karafuto.

Palæozoic Layer The Japanese palæozoic layer is largely aqueous rock, composed mainly of slate, sandstone, silica stone, limestone, grit stone and graywacke, with a compound of such igneous stones as granite and diorite. It is widely distributed and has much to do with the geological formation of Japan. But at the Palæozoic Era the Japanese land lay deep in the waters and did not treasure up coal as did the Palæozoic layer of the Continent. The oldest stratum of the Main Island which has been proved with a fossil is the Carboniferous layer, and any decision on older layers must remain uncertain until similar proof is available. The Palæozoic layer forms the bones of the big mountain ranges developing at the circumference of the Archæan stratum of the southern part of the Nippon Bow and is distributed in the Akaishi, Kii, Shikoku and Kyushu mountain ranges. Traces are also visible in the Hida range, Hida plateau, Tamba plateau, Chugoku range and Tsukushi range. In the northern half, it runs through the Kanto, Ashio, Hachimizo, Abukuma and Kitakami ranges to the Yezo range and Karafuto. It can also be seen in Taiwan and Chosen in wide areas.

Mesozoic Stratum The Mesozoic stratum of Japan is composed of stones similar to those of the earlier stratum. Fossils are sufficiently numerous to assure the era in which it was formed. It appears in the Kii range, the southern part of Shikoku, the Kyushu range and the Taiwan range. In Chosen, it is found in the Keisho district. In the Chugoku district, the western part of the Main Island, it comes to the surface, leading to the belief that the plains of this district were formed in this era.

Neozoic Stratum The Neozoic stratum is mainly of aqueous rock and

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volcanic stones. In this era, the transformation of land and sea was incessant, and volcanic activities were most vigorous, creating most of the present volcanic chains. Through the tertiary and quaternary periods, andesite and basalt were emitted in great volume. Most of the coal-fields, oil-fields and metal mines of Japan were formed in the tertiary period. In the diluvial day of the quaternary period, volcanic explosions followed one after another, and the hills by the rivers and the higher plains of the Kanto took their present form. In the alluvial, or the most recent day of the same era, the lowest and the newest stratum at rivers, lakes and the sea shore, or sand-banks and sand-hills, came into existence. According to the investigation of the Geological Research Office, the areas of rocks of different geological eras in Japan proper are as follows :

	Sq. kilometre	Per cent.
Archaean stratum	14,189	3.50
Palaeozoic „	53,149	12.74
Mesozoic „	29,844	7.15
Neozoic „	196,079	46.87
Tertiary vomitted rocks	44,157	10.58
Quaternary „ „	79,970	19.16
Total	417,388	100.00

Block Movements According to this investigation, two-thirds of the land is of the Neozoic stratum, showing that Japan must have been upheaved upon the surface of the sea in the most recent geological era, and the large volume of vomitted rocks speaks of violent volcanic activities.

In the Palæozoic Era, the islands were all hidden under shallow waters. Even the Hida and Akaishi mountain peaks, which form the ridge of the Mainland, are composed of the sediment on the sea-bottom in those days. At the end of this era, the highest mountain ranges began to expose their heads above the waters. It was a golden age for the Mollusca and fishes, the Amphibia coming to existence at the end of it. In the vegetable kingdom, Cryptogams grew in great forests which disappeared with the end of the era.

At the Jurassic period of the Mesozoic Era, China and most of Chosen appeared upon the surface of the sea, but the land of Japan was still covered with waters, except for the great mountain ranges, which began to show their complete figures. It was the age in which the cycad, the gingko and the Coniferæ grew in abundance and toward the end of which the latifoliate trees came into existence. In the animal kingdom, the reptiles made great progress, and queer gigantic animals lived everywhere in the sea, in the air and on the land.

When the Neozoic Era dawned, Japan became a stage of great block movements of earth, and it was severed from the continent, taking the form of a chain of countless islands. The present location was assumed, although the northern part was a little later than the southern half. The line which connects the islands runs from south to north because the pressure of the block movement was from west to east. As the movements gradually ceased and the dividing lines of land and sea became stationary, the present animals and vegetables began to grow, and finally primitive men appeared.

Relationship with Continent The close connection of the islands with the Continent is supported by considerable evidence. It is asserted by most scholars that they are continental islands, which are usually located near a continent, from which they were severed in the latest geological era. It is clear that the mountain ranges of Japan have a

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close connection with the Kwenlun mountain system. The north range of the Chinese mountains, after sinking into the sea, appears again in the northern part of Kyushu and reaches the central part of the Main Island, running through the Chugoku district, and the eastern end of the China mountain system reappears in southern Kyushu, from where it reaches to the Akaishi Range through Shikoku Island and Kii province. It is also known that the sea between the Japanese Islands and the Continent is but 200 metres deep at the maximum from Taiwan to Chosen. That is, if the waters fell by this distance, the East China Sea, the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Chihli would be dried up, and Kyushu, Shikoku, the Mainland, Hokkaido and Karafuto would be connected by land. In a sharp comparison, the sea to the east and south of the islands suddenly becomes as deep as 4,000 metres and even more in some places. These facts prove that the Japanese Islands were once a part of the Continent of Asia.

Japanese animals belong to those species which are included in the old northern division in the animal distribution of the world, and Japanese plants have very close relations with those on the Continent of Asia and are quite different from those of the American Continent. Finally, paleontology gives us proof in fossil teeth of the elephant. In the layers which belong to the tertiary period or the diluvial day of the quaternary period, these fossils are often found, and some are of the same kind as those excavated in the southern districts of China. We may thus conclude that the Islands of Japan were connected with the Continent of Asia in a prehistoric but comparatively new geological era.

Natural Features

The mountains of Japan are divided into two great systems, one to the north and the other to the south. The Karafuto system, framing Northern Japan, is composed of the Yezo, Kitakami, Abukuma, Kanto and Echigo ranges, arranged from north to south, roughly speaking. Southern Japan is framed by two branches of the Kwenlun system, which has its origin in China. One branch first appears in the northern part of Kyushu as the Tsukushi range and then runs to the east, forming the Chugoku range, the Tamba plateau, the Hida plateau and the Kiso range. The other branch appears in the southern part of Kyushu, forming the Kyushu range, from which it runs east, becoming the Shikoku, Kii, Suzuka and Akaishi ranges.

Japanese mountains have characteristic fine creases, cut by the rainfall, which is specially heavy in this country. The Kyushu, Shikoku and Akaishi ranges were formed by the creasing process ; such mountains as Fuji, Nasu, Chokai and Kirishima resulted from volcanic activities, and the Kongo, Kasagi, Suzuka and Mahiru mountain ranges were born in dislocative earthquakes. As for age, the mountains of the Chugoku and Abukuma ranges, with their dull curves, are the oldest ; the Shikoku range, the Japan Alps and the Ohu range, or the range in northeastern Mainland, are rugged and young, and the plains of the Kanto district and Mino-Owari provinces are very young. The combination of these mountains and plains of diverse ages is peculiar to Japan.

Volcanic chains According to the Geological Research Office, the total number of volcanoes in Japan is 192, of which 58 are active. They may

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be grouped in 11 chains:

(1) The north Japan inner, or Chokai, volcanic chain, which starts at the southwestern offing of Hokkaido, or O-shima and Ko-jima, and runs through Iwaki-yama, Kampuzan, Moriyoshi-yama, Chokai-san, ending with Gatsuzan.

(2) The south Japan inner, or Hakusan, volcanic chain, extending from Hakusan along the Japan Sea to the west through Daisen, Mitsubé-yama, Aono-yama and other smaller volcanoes and then to the Goto Islands of Kyushu.

(3) The Hokkaido volcanic chain, which links such mountains as Hakodaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Tarumayédaké and some islands in the peninsular part of western Hokkaido.

(4) The north Japan central, or Nasu, volcanic chain, including Osoré-yama, Hakkoda-san, Towada Lake, Iwaté-yama, Komaga-daké, Kurigoma, Numasawa, Arao, Funagata, Zo-oh, Bantai, Azuma, Adatara, Nasu, Nantai, Shirané, Akagi, Haruna, Tsuno-otoshi and Arafuna, which are mostly active volcanoes.

(5) The Hida volcanic chain, composed of the seven volcanoes of Hera-daké, Taté-yama, Ko-tombi, Washiba-daké, Iwo-daké, Norikuradaké and On-také.

(6) The Mikasa volcanic chain, to the west of the Hida volcanic chain, beginning with Horaijisan, of Aichi prefecture, and running westward to O-hara-yama, Mikasa-yama, Miminari-yama, Futakami-san and Kabuto-yama of Hyogo prefecture.

(7) The Seto, or Inland Sea, volcanic chain, embracing the old volcanic mountains along the coasts of the Inland Sea and extending to Kyushu, including such mountains as Futako, Kokonoyé, Yufu, Onsen and Tara. The volcanoes are all dormant.

(8) The Ryukyu volcanic chain, starting with the Aso volcano, taking in Kirishima, Sakurajima and Kaimon and extending to the Ryukyu Islands, where it connects Iwojima, Kuchino-Irabé-jima, Kuchinosé, Nakano-jima, Suwanosé, Waruiwa-jima, Tori-shima and Agunishima.

(9) The amphibolite andesite volcanic chain, which connects Aonoyama, of Shimané prefecture, and Tokusa, of Yamaguchi; appears then in Kinpo-zan and Shigumadaké, near Tokuyama, and Himéjima of Suo; meets with the Inland Sea chain and runs to Yufu, Kokonoyé and a part of Aso, and extends as far as Luzon Island, sinking to the bottom of the ocean west of the Ryukyu Islands on the way and then running along the eastern coast of Taiwan.

(10) The Fuji volcanic chain, which cuts across the heart of the Main Island from the coast of the Japan Sea to that of the Pacific Ocean, and continues to the Izu, Bonin, Sulphur, Mariana and Caroline Islands, including such mountains as Myoko, Togakushi-yama, Tateshina-yama, Yatsuga-daké, Fujisan, Hakoné and Amagi on the Main Island.

(11) The Chishima volcanic chain, which comes into Hokkaido from the Chishima, runs along the Yezo mountain system, suddenly turns to the north and seems to disappear in Karafuto.

The Japanese volcanic mountains are composed of four kinds of rocks: pyroxene andesite, amphibolite andesite, bronzite andesite and basalt. Fuji, Iwaki, Chokai, Gatsu-san, Nasu, Hakkoda, Iwaté, Bantai, Akagi and Haruna are of pyroxene andesite. In southern Japan, the Kirishima volcanic range is composed of the same rock, which is, indeed, the most widely distributed in the Japanese volcanoes. Amphibolite andesite is discovered in the mountains

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which belong to the inner volcanic chains — Hakusan, Dai-sen and Mitsubé-yama. It shows itself in Taté-yama, Norikura and Ontaké also, but is most evident in the Kyushu volcanoes. Bronzite andesite is limited to the district of Kinki, near Osaka, and the volcanic mountains and islands in and along the Inland Sea. Basalt is distributed in Chugoku and the northern Kyushu districts, exposing itself at the Basalt Cave, of Tajima province, Oonéshima, Hamada, Hagi, the Aburatani Gulf and Fukuyé, of the Goto Islands.

Seas and Coast-line

With the exception of the northern frontiers of Chosen and Karafuto, every part of the Empire is surrounded by water. To the east is the Pacific, washing the Chishima, Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu, the Ryukyu, Taiwan and the mandated islands north of the equator. Between the Chishima and Karafuto is the Sea of Okhotsk, and between Karafuto and the continent the Gulf of Tartary, known to the Japanese as the Mamiya Straits. The Sea of Japan lies between Honshu and the eastern shore of Chosen. To the west of Chosen is the Yellow Sea, or Hwanghai, opening into the Eastern China Sea, or Tunghai, which touches Kyushu, the Ryukyu and Taiwan. Purely Japanese is the famous Inland Sea, enclosed by Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The Depths The greatest depth yet discovered in these surrounding seas is 9,439 metres, sounded by the warship Manshu in 1926 between Honshu and Ogasawarajima, 30° 49′ N. Lat. and 142° 18′ E. Long. Previously the record was the 8,517 metres of the Tuscarora Deep, named for the American warship which made a survey in 1874, sometimes called the Kurile-Japanese Trench, which lies along the Chishima for about 644 kilometres. The other seas are shallower than the Pacific. The Sea of Okhotsk, which is estimated to have an area of 1,527,007.73 square kilometres, has a mean depth of 838 metres. The Sea of Japan, estimated to extend over 1,007,307.41 square kilometres, has a maximum depth of 3,440 metres and a mean depth of 1,350 metres. The Eastern China Sea, except near the Ryukyu and Taiwan, is less deep. With a length of about 354 kilometres and a maximum width of 77 kilometres, the Inland Sea covers 3,430.43 square kilometres and reaches its greatest depth at 124 metres.

The Currents Two ocean currents with important climatic effects are the Kuroshio, meaning black current, which sailors know as the Japan Stream, and the Oyashio, meaning main current, which foreigners often call the Kurile Stream. The first is warm and the second cold. Arising from the North Equatorial Current north of the Philippines, the Kuroshio flows along the eastern side of Taiwan and the southern islands of the Ryukyu to about 26° N. Lat., where it splits, the main part moving to the eastern coasts of Kyushu, Shikoku and Honshu and then bearing eastward past the Aleutian Islands to the North American coast, and the offshoot flowing to the west of Kyushu and into the Sea of Japan. Varying in width from 160 to 805 kilometres, depending on the position and the season of the year, it is usually from 5° to 15° C. warmer than the rest of the ocean. The Oyashio originates in the Arctic, washes the eastern shores of the Chishima, Hokkaido and Honshu, meeting the Kuroshio. From the Sea of Okhotsk, another cold current enters the Sea of Japan through the Gulf of Tartary and flows along the Chosen coast.

Tides Tides in the Japanese Em-

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pire show wide variation. High on the shores of the Yellow Sea and the Eastern China Sea, they reach from 10.4 to 10.7 metres at Jinsen, or Chemulpo, Chosen, and 5.5 metres at Miiké, Omuta, on Tsukushi Bay, Kyushu, but in the Sea of Japan they average little more than 0.6 metre. Along the Sea of Okhotsk, they range from 1.2 to 1.5 metres; along the Pacific coast, from 1.8 to 2.7 metres, and in the Inland Sea, from 1.8 to 4 metres.

Coast-line The coast-line is exceptionally long, being 52,228.787 kilometres for the whole Empire. For Japan proper, it is 30,602.458 kilometres, which means a kilometre to every 12.43 square kilometres of area, and for Chosen 18,203.726 kilometres, a kilometre to every 12.12 square kilometres. The shores of the Sea of Japan are comparatively regular, but those on the Pacific are indented with a large number of gulfs, bays and inlets, many of which afford excellent anchorages. Japan proper has more than 1,400 harbours, about half of which are utilized for trading. The best harbours of Chosen are on the Yellow Sea and the Chosen Channel. Hokkaido, Karafuto and Taiwan are less fortunate in capacious shelters for ships.

Mountains

In Japan proper, there are 250 mountains with peaks higher than 2,000 metres above sea level, the highest being the celebrated Mount Fuji, which lifts its white cap sublimely 3,773 metres above the beautiful Suruga Gulf. Chosen has 51 and Formosa 130 mountains in the same category, but the latter has five peaks higher than Mount Fuji, Niitaka-yama being the highest mountain in Japan with its height of 3,950 metres. The highest mountains in Japan proper are converged in the central part of the Main Island in the prefectures of Nagano, Toyama, Yamanashi, Shizuoka and Gifu, but there are, of course, many other mountains famous geographically and historically in the other parts of the country.

MOUNTAINS

(Above 2,500 metres)

Name	Location	Height (m.)
Japan Proper		
Fuji	Shizuoka	3,773
Kita	Yamanashi	3,192
Manodaké	Shizuoka	3,189
Yarigadaké	Nagano	3,180
Akaishi	Nagano	3,120
Okuhotaka	Nagano	3,103
Higashimata	Nagano	3,095
Shiranè	Nagano	3,093
Ontaké	Nagano	3,093
Hotaka	Nagano	3,090
Arakawa	Shizuoka	3,083
Shiomi	Shizuoka	3,047
Senjo	Yamanashi	3,033
Minamidaké	Nagano	3,032
Kitahotaka	Gifu	3,032
Nootori	Shizuoka	3,026
Norikura	Gifu	3,026
Hijiri	Shizuoka	3,011
Tsurugi	Toyama	2,998
Tateyama	Toyama	2,992
Suisho	Toyama	2,977
Komagadaké	Yamanashi	2,966
Marishiten	Gifu	2,959
Shirouma	Toyama	2,933
Yakushi	Toyama	2,926
Goro	Toyama	2,924
Maé-Hotaka	Gifu	2,908
Yari	Toyama	2,903
Akadaké	Nagano	2,900
Kasa	Gifu	2,897
Kashima-Yari	Toyama	2,890
Wakaeyama	Toyama	2,885
Mitsudaké	Nagano	2,878
Jodo	Toyama	2,872
Mamaoya	Gifu	2,868
Komori	Shizuoka	2,865
Akaushi	Toyama	2,864
Karaki	Nagano	2,864
Rengé	Nagano	2,860
Sugoroku	Nagano	2,860
Mamako	Gifu	2,858
Misawa	Nagano	2,846
Minami	Nagano	2,842
Hō-ō	Yamanashi	2,841
Washiwa	Toyama	2,841
Nakanomata	Toyama	2,840
Nakadaké	Toyama	2,839

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Name	Location	Height (m.)
Subari	Nagano	2,888
Mitsumata	Nagano	2,885
Yoko	Nagano	2,880
Misumi	Nagano	2,880
Masago	Nagano	2,826
Ebisu	Gifu	2,823
Osawa	Shizuoka	2,819
Nukido	Gifu	2,812
Kogochi	Nagano	2,805
Kamikochi	Nagano	2,803
Rengé	Toyama	2,799
Chōkō	Yamanashi	2,799
Onidaké	Nagano	2,799
Asahi	Nagano	2,786
Gongen	Nagano	2,786
Takaminé	Yamanashi	2,779
Rengé	Niigata	2,769
Akaiwa	Nagano	2,769
Tsubakuro	Nagano	2,763
Yakushi	Yamanashi	2,762
Jonen	Nagano	2,757
Tatesawa	Nagano	2,754
Yotsutaké	Gifu	2,744
Iwo	Nagano	2,742
Shogigashira	Nagano	2,727
Kotaro	Yamanashi	2,725
Kiso	Nagano	2,721
Minamimasago	Nagano	2,710
Akasawa	Nagano	2,706
Hoeisan	Shizuoka	2,702
Shiasan	Nagano	2,700
Kitazakawa	Shizuoka	2,698
Jijii	Nagano	2,697
Karamatsu	Nagano	2,696
Narusawa	Nagano	2,667
Chogataké	Nagano	2,664
Kitanomata	Toyama	2,661
Kamigataké	Toyama	2,661
Kitani	Nagano	2,658
Iwagoyazawa	Nagano	2,657
Neishi	Nagano	2,646
Karasawa	Nagano	2,632
Hakusan	Ishikawa	2,631
Zarugatake	Shizuoka	2,629
Gakidake	Nagano	2,627
Minamizawa	Nagano	2,625
Washitake	Toyama	2,625
Eboshitaké	Nagano	2,621
Fudosan	Nagano	2,621
Shenninyama	Toyama	2,617
Tobiyama	Toyama	2,614
Otakiyama	Nagano	2,614
Koehyaku	Nagano	2,613
Yukikura	Toyama	2,611
Nokogiri	Nagano	2,605
Dainichi	Toyama	2,605
Chausu	Nagano	2,600
Kimpo	Yamanashi	2,959
Fudo	Toyama	2,595
Kokushi	Yamanashi	2,592
Hikari	Nagano	2,591
Tsuji	Yamanashi	2,585
Shirané	Tochigi	2,577
Nagabei	Nagano	2,565
Okaramatsu	Yamanashi	2,555
Itotaké	Nagano	2,554
Nanakura	Nagano	2,550
Asama	Gunma	2,542
Kurohi	Nagano	2,540
Tateshina	Nagano	2,530
Ushikubi	Toyama	2,527
Amikasa	Yamanashi	2,524
Nittatake	Shizuoka	2,524
Maekake	Nagano	2,520
Kohikage	Nagano	2,505
Minoto	Nagano	2,500
Chosen		
Hakuto	Kankyonando	2,744
Kanbo-san	Kankyohokudo	2,541
Hokusuihaku	Kankyonando	2,522
Shonichi	Kankyonando	2,506
Taiwan		
Niitaka	Taichushu	3,950
Tsugétaka	Taichushu	3,931
Shukoban	Karenkocho	3,833
Maboras	Taichushu	3,806
Nankotaizan	Karenkocho	3,797
Chuosen	Karenkocho	3,715
Sekiyama	Kantocho	3,667
Taisuikutsu	Taichushu	3,645
Kiraishu	Karenkocho	3,605
Toguntaisan	Taichushu	3,605
Taisetsu	Taicuhshu	3,600
Taihasen	Shinchikushu	3,573
Setsu	Takaoshu	3,569
Takushatai	Taichushu	3,488
Tobantai	Taichushu	3,465
Nemu	Taichushu	3,394
Nangyoku	Takaoshu	3,391
To-san	Shinchikushu	3,390
Shinkan	Karenkocho	3,381
Hitsuroku	Karenkocho	3,379
Tantai	Karenkocho	3,371
Hakkotai	Taichushu	3,349
Nansoto	Karenkocho	3,333
Notakayama	Karenkocho	3,333
Hinanshu	Takaoshu	3,305
Sentakuman	Taichushu	3,304
Kashipanan	Karenkocho	3,294
Guntai	Taichushu	3,292
Tarokotai	Karenkocho	3,292
Koseki	Takaoshu	3,255
Notaka	Karenkocho	3,252
Byobu	Karenkocho	3,234
Taibu	Taitocho	3,232
Senzan	Karenkocho	3,222
Batotsunofu	Taihokushu	3,221
Painotonan	Taitocho	3,175
Mabiisan	Taihokushu	3,167
Hakuseki	Karenkocho	3,138
Wanoshin	Takaoshu	3,132
Antogun	Karenkocho	3,089
Seibantai	Taichushu	3,076
Kanmon	Karenkocho	3,052

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Name	Location	Height (m.)
Taisekiko	Karenkocho	3,048
Kosetsu	Taichushu	3,043
Bokyo	Taichushu	3,028
Unsui	Kantuchu	3,010
Burakusan	Kantocho	2,992
Ronbutan	Karenkocho	2,948
Sekisui	Tainanshu	2,895
Kokolbo	Karenkocho	2,883
Heigan	Taichushu	2,879
Sekisan	Takaoshu	2,877
Sentogan	Takaoshu	2,862
Rokurin	Taichushu	2,859
Hattsuseki	Taichushu	2,841
Manmen	Takaoshu	2,840
Nantaibu	Kantocho	2,831
Muto	Takaoshu	2,822
Toho	Taichushu	2,809
Surabatan	Takaoshu	2,747
Kinajii	Shinchikushu	2,713
Sekisan	Taichushu	2,694
Sansui	Karenkocho	2,692
Rokujotai	Shinchikushu	2,684
Taito	Taichushu	2,663
Takai	Taihokushu	2,657
Keinan	Takaoshu	2,642
Sui	Tainanshu	2,627
Futako	Karenkocho	2,577
Kodama	Tainanshu	2,568
Rinparapara	Takaoshu	2,555
Matsuyama	Taichushu	2,551
Gunko	Taichushu	2,532
Tozan	Tainanshu	2,520
Mubeyama	Karenkocho	2,514
Shukusan	Taichushu	2,504

OTHER FAMOUS MOUNTAINS

(Below 2,500 m.)

Ohu district	
Osoré-yama[1]	700
Iwaki-yama	1,625
Hakkoda-yama	1,585
Moriyoshi-yama	1,454
Iwaté-yama	2,041
Komaga-také	1,637
Chokai-san	2,230
Gassan	1,924
Zao-san	1,841
Funagata-yama	1,500
Azuma-san	2,024
Adachitaro-yama	1,700
Bandai-san	1,819
Otakiné-yama	1,193
Kanto district	
Nasu-san	1,917
Taishaku-san	2,060
Nantai-san	2,484
Akagi-san	1,828
Haruna-san	1,448
Myogi-san	1,104
Mikuni-yama	1,828
Kobushi-také	2,483
Tanzawa-yama	1,567
Hakone-yama	1,439
Nokogiri-yama	329
Tsukuba-yama	876
Kinki district (Kyoto, Osaka)	
Oe-yama	833
Ibuki-yama	1,377
Hira-také	1,174
Kurama-yama	670
Hiei-san	848
Atago-yama	924
Rokko-san	932
Ikoma-yama	642
Kongo-san	1,112
Sanjo-také	1,720
Odaigahara-san	1,695
Shaka-také	1,800
Koya-san	985
Chugoku district	
Kori-yama	1,510
Dai-sen	1,713
Kanmuri-yama	1,339
Aono-yama	908
Shikoku Island	
Tsurugi-yama	1,955
Sasaga-mine	1,860
Ishizuchi-yama	1,921
Onigashiro-yama	1,142
Kyushu district	
Tsurumi-yama	1,375
Yufu-také	1,584
Tara-také	983
Aso-san	1,592
Unzen	1,360
Shiraga-yama	1,417
Sakurajima-také	1,118
Kaimon-také	924
Yae-yama	1,925

1 Yama, také, san, zan, miné, and sen all mean "mountain."

Rivers

The Empire is abundantly watered by numerous rivers, usually wide where they empty into the sea, but comparatively short in course and not navigable for many miles inland except by flat-bottomed craft. During the summer rainy season and when the mountain snows melt in the spring, torrents rush down them, often overflowing and causing damage; during the rest of the year, they dwindle to narrow and shallow

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streams. If of little use for transportation, they serve as reservoirs from which water is drawn for irrigation and increasingly as sources of electric power.

Total available hydro-electric power of rivers in Japan proper is estimated at 14,090,000 h.p., the power actually developed by the end of 1932 was about 3,105,930 h.p.

The major rivers, with navigable length, follow:

	Length in Km.	Navigable Length in Km.
Honshu		
Shinano	369	288
Toné	322	275
Kitakami	243	232
Kiso	232	86
Mogami	216	196
Tenryu	216	216
Gonokawa	200	153
Abukuma	196	149
Ara	177	89
Aka	169	149
Kumano	161	127
Hidaka	161	134
Fuji	161	70
Oi	154	86
Omono	149	137
Sho	149	55
Ibi	142	35
Yura	141	110
Sagami	141	75
Shikoku		
Yoshino	236	110
Shimanto	177	75
Kyushu		
Chikugo	141	86
Hokkaido		
Ishikari	365	—
Teshio	306	—
Tokachi	196	—
Tokoro	145	—
Karafuto		
Horonai	137	—
Taiwan		
Dakusuikei	165	—
Shimotansuikei	156	—
Sobunkei	133	—
Tansuiga	130	—
Chosen		
Oryokko	790	698
Rakutoko	525	344
Tomanko	521	85
Kanko	514	330
Daidoko	439	260
Kinko	401	130
Ringhinko	254	124
Seisenko	199	152
Reiseiko	174	65

Lakes

The Empire contains numerous lakes, especially in Honshu and Hokkaido, remarkable for their beautiful settings rather than extent. The most interesting are those high above sea level, formed in most cases by volcanic eruptions damming the head-waters of rivers.

The major lakes, with their height above sea level and area, follow:

Honshu	Above Sea Level (metre)	Area (Sq. kilometre)	Depth (metre)
Biwako	86.3	674.80	95.0
Hachirogata	0	221.20	4.7
Kasumigaura	2.0	177.50	7.6
Inawashiroko	514.0	103.64	102.0
Nakanoumi	0	101.60	14.0
Shinjiko	1.0	88.13	6.4
Hamanako	0	80.26	15.8
Towadako	401.0	78.02	878.0
Ogaranuma	1.5	63.00	27.0
Kitaura	1.0	42.20	10.0
Imbanuma	2.5	27.00	1.0
Tazawako	250.0	24.70	425.0
Kahokugata	0.8	23.00	2.0
Jusangata	0	20.87	3.0
Ibauchiko	86.3	15.40	3.1
Suwako	759.0	14.53	7.0
Karenuma	—	12.75	3.3
Teganuma	2.5	12.20	2.9
Chusenjiko	1,271.0	11.91	170.0
Oguraiké	10.0	7.90	1.7
Hirofuchiko	3.0	7.12	2.3
Ashinoko	723.2	7.09	43.5
Kumihamako	0	7.08	20.0
Kyushu			
Ikedako	66.0	11.10	233.0
Hokkaido			
Saromako	0	151.17	19.0
Shikotsuko	248.0	77.60	363.0
Kutcharoko	120.0	76.22	125.0
Toyako	83.0	62.05	183.0
Notoriko	0	56.00	23.0
Furenko	0	52.87	11.0
Abashiriko	0	32.76	17.6
Akkeshikanko	0	30.50	6.9
Mashuko	345.0	20.00	211.5
Tonbetsuko	0	15.00	3.2
Akanko	399.0	11.86	36.6
Karafuto			
Taraikako	0	180.06	1.8
Tominaiko	0	168.18	34.0

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	Above Sea Level (metre)	Area (Sq. kilometre)	Depth (metre)
Tofuchiko	0	40.43	6.4
Kuchishiko	0	34.77	3.7
Wasiko	0	34.18	6.4
Chibesanko	0	11.20	7.7
Ontoko	0	7.61	4.6
Taiwan			
Takaokanko	1.2	22.66	1.2
Jitsugetsutan	5.2	4.44	5.2
Chosen			
Hiroko	—	13.28	—
Koshihashiko	—	8.27	—
Amaikó	—	7.74	—
Choenko	—	7.42	—

Flora

In summer the southern part of Japan experiences tropical weather, while in winter the districts north of the Ohu provinces are subject to arctic cold. But owing to ample rainfall, the growth of plants in Japan is in general very rich, yet agriculture occupies so large a proportion of area as to restrict not only the natural distribution of flora and fauna, but a scientific study of the subject as well.

The flora of Japan is by most botanists divided into four zones:

(a) Tropical forest zone, or the banian (Ficus Retusa) zone.
(b) Subtropical forest zone, or kashi (Quercus Acuta) zone.
(c) Temperate forest zone, or the beech-tree (Fagus Sieboldi) zone.
(d) Arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir (Pinus Pumila) zone.

I **The Tropical Forest Zone** The tropical forest zone, or the banian zone, covers those portions of the plain of Formosa lower than 450 m. above sea level, as well as the Loochoo, Bonin, Sulphur and the South Sea islands. The aerial roots of the Ficus Retusa are not so large as those of the banian in India, but the species grows in abundance and to a great height, sending down its aerial roots into the ground like the tentacles of an octopus. In some parts of Sulphur Island, the Loochoo Islands and Formosa it forms impenetrable forests. The cocoanut tree is rare but grows well. In Formosa the pineapple thrives naturally, while the Agave Americana grows quite tall. The cycad (Cycas Revoluta), the tree fern (Cyathea Spinulosa), the coffee plant (Coffea Arabia), the gum tree, the orange tree, the sugar-cane, the mangifera (Mangifera Indica) and the papaw-tree (Caria Papaya) grow luxuriantly.

II **The Subtropical Forest Zone** The subtropical forest zone, or the oak zone is limited to altitudes of from 450 to 1,800 m. in Formosa, and as low as sea level in the northern half of the Loochoo Islands. The plains of Kyushu, Shikoku, that part of the Main Island south of 35 degrees North Latitude, and the southern half of the Korean peninsula belong to this zone, the temperature here being from 13° to 21°C. (55° to 70°F.), and the altitude below 1,120 m. at Mount Kirishima in Kyushu; 650 m. in the northern part of the same island; 760 m. in Shikoku, 600 m. in Chugoku or west of Kobé; 500 m. in the Tokaido districts; and 460 m. at Tsukuba-yama in the Kanto district.

Plants peculiar to this zone are those which belong to such species as the camphor-tree, the oak, the camellia, and the Ternstroemia Japonica, ever-green and latifoliate. On sandy shores, where the sea wind is strong, the black pine (Pinus thunbergii) grows, with spreading, contorted branches, an indispensable element of the Japanese landscape, made familiar to the world through the paintings of Hokusai and Hiroshigé. In the southern part of this zone the camphor-tree (Cinnamomum camphora) is abundant. The hemp-palm (Trachycarpus excelsa),

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the Nagi (Podocarpus nagi) the banana plant (Musa basjoo) and the cycad are planted as ornamental trees, and grow to a good size. Agricultural plants in this zone are rice, barley, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the field cabbage (Brassica campestris), colza, cotton (Gossypium herbaceum), indigo-plant, tea-plant, mulberry-tree, mandarin orange, as well as the sugar-cane and the potato. In this zone there is only one rice crop a year while in the first zone it is harvested twice a year.

III **The Temperate Forest Zone** The temperate forest zone, or beech-tree zone, lies north of the 2nd zone in the Main Island, the south-western part of Hokkaido, more than half of its whole area, and in the mountainous portions of Korea; it begins at 37.5 degrees north latitude at the coast and 35° in the Main Island, and ends at 43.5° in the central part of Hokkaido. The temperature of these areas is from 6° to 13° C. (42°-56° F.). In Formosa, the mountain valleys which are between 1,800 and 4,550 m. above sea level belong to this zone, and there grow the cryptomeria, the Picea jezoensis, the hemlock and the Formosan five-leaf pine (Pinus parviflora). The representative species of this zone in the Main Island is the beech, but it is almost extinct because of commercial exploitation. In Echigo province grow many species of deciduous latifoliate trees, such as the oak (Quercus glandulifera), the Quercus crispula and the horse-chestnut (Aesculus turbinata), while among these, in some places are found varieties of acerose trees such as the Japanese cypress, the Chamaecyparis obfusa, the hatchet leaved arborvitae (Thujopsis dolabrata), the fir (Abies firma), the Tsuga sieboldii, the Abies homolepis, the Korean pine (Pinus koraiensis), the Larix kaempferi, and the like. The timber line of this zone is 4,550 m. in Formosa,—Kyushu, Chugoku, Kinki or the Kyoto-Osaka districts have no mountain which rises above this line; 2,060 m. in Shikoku; 1,700-1,760 m. in Suruga and Totomi provinces; 1,500 m. in Shinano and Kai provinces; 1,400-1,060 m. in the northern districts of the Main Island; 450 m. in the southern part of Hokkaido, and down to sea level in the centre of Hokkaido.

The agricultural plants in this zone are barley, wheat, soy-bean, red-bean, German millet, the Panicum frumentoceum and the peanut. In the north rice is often subject to damage from early frost. The forests in the southern half of this zone are the most beautiful in Japan, especially, those sections dominated by trees of Kiso valley, namely, the Japanese cypress, the Thuja standishii, the Thujopsis dolabrata, and the Sciadopitys verticillata. The cryptomeria forms vast natural forests in Akita prefecture.

IV **The Arctic Forest Zone** The arctic forest zone, or the dwarf mountain fir zone, occupies the mountain elevations above 4,500 m. in Formosa, and does not exist in Kyushu, except in small patches above 900 m. on the mountains. In the central part of Japan, Fuji, Ontaké, the Nikko and many other mountains are in this zone, while in Shikoku the belt lies between 1,800 m. to 2,580 m. The Abies veitchii, the fir-tree (Abies sachaliensis), the hemlock, the Larix kaempferi, the Abies firma, the yew-tree, the Alnus firma, the Sorbaria randaiensis and the Alpine-rose (Rhododendron hyminanthes) grow in this zone, but the principal trees differ according to districts. In Formosa, the Abies sachaliensis is the principal tree, the Abies veitchii on Kiso, Fuji, the Nikko and other

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high mountains located within 40 degrees north latitude in the Main Island; the Abies firma and the Larix kaempferi in the districts further north, and the Abies sachaliensis again in Aomori prefecture. In Hokkaido and Karafuto the Abies sachaliensis and the spruce (Picea ajanensis) grow plentifully, but are not found in the Main Island. In addition, in Karafuto, the larch flourishes, as also does the Juniperus chinensis along the seashore.

Marine Flora According to Dr. Okamura, the marine flora of Japan in the Pacific Ocean is divided into two by Oshima Island, to the south of which, including the Bonin Islands, is the Tropical division, while from north of Oshima to Kinkazan lies the Temperate division. The ocean district north of Kinkazan belongs to the Arctic division, although at the southern end of this division can be found, to a certain extent, Temperate-zone seaweeds. On the western side of Japan, that is, along the coast of the Japan Sea, the Tropical and Temperate seaweed zones are divided at Makurasaki or Noma Peninsula at the west end of Kyushu Island, while the arctic zone begins at the Tsugaru Straits.

Korea As may be inferred from the geographical relation existing between the continent and the peninsula on the one hand and between the latter and Japan on the other, the flora of the northern part (38°–43° N. Lat.) of the peninsula bears a great resemblance to that of the eastern Asiatic continent, while the flora of the southern part has a close connection with that of the western part of the Main Island of Japan.

Dense forests of conifers are frequently seen in the northern districts. Pinus koraiensis is a species commonly found there. The flora of the northern half has many northern elements and bears a close relation to the flora of Manchuria and Siberia.

Elements characteristic of northern China are also to be found in the flora of the western part of Korea. Endemic genera are comparatively few,—a characteristic of continental floras. Among the endemic genera, Hanabusaya Nakai and Chosenia Nakai may be mentioned as the most interesting. Both genera are monotypic, the former belonging to the family Campanulaceæ, and the latter to the family Salicaceæ.

The South Sea Islands Pemphis acidula, Scaevola frutescens and Tournefortia argentea grow on the shore. Coconut palms and screw pines grow among the littoral bushes. Allophylus timorensis and Wedelia biflora are the most common species and form a dense growth in the interior of the islands. Generally speaking, the flora of the islands is extremely poor as far as the number of species is concerned. This suggests that it is of comparatively recent origin.

Classification There are in Japan, nearly 20,000 species of flora known to botanists. The "Illustrated Book of Botany" published by a Tokyo botanical association contains 2,070 representative species classified as follows:

I Phaneregamæ		
A Angiospermæ		
(a) Dicotyledoneæ		
1 Sympetalæ	519	species
2 Archichlamydeæ	1,046	,,
(b) Monocotyledoneæ	242	,,
B Gymnospermæ		
(a) Gnetaceæ	1	,,
(b) Coniferæ		
1 Araucariaceæ	23	,,
2 Taxaceæ	7	,,
(c) Cycadaceæ	1	,,
(d) Ginkgoaceæ	1	,,
II Archegohiatæ		
A Pteridophyta		
(a) Lycopodineæ		
1 Isoetaceæ	1	,,

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2 Selaginellaceæ	6 species	
3 Psilotaceæ	1	„
4 Lycopodiaceæ	12	„
(b) Equisetinæ		
Equisetaceæ	4	„
(c) Filicinæ		
1 Marsiliaceæ	1	„
2 Salviniaceæ	2	„
3 Ophiolossaceæ	5	„
4 Osmundaceæ	1	„
5 Schizaeaceæ	1	„
6 Gleicheniaceæ	2	„
7 Polypodiaceæ	97	„
8 Hymenophyllaceæ	4	„
B Bryophyta		
(a) Hepaticæ	2	„
(b) Musci	9	„
III Thallophyta		
A Fungi	21	„
B Algæ		
1 Rhodophyceæ	29	„
2 Phæophyceæ	25	„
3 Characeæ	1	„
4 Chlorophyceæ	6	„
Total	2,070	„

Fuji, Sakura, Sumiré, Sugé, Susuki, and Kiku

According to Dr. Makino species of the phanerogamae alone number from 8,000 to 10,000 in Japan proper. Among this great number of plants, there are very many which are specially Japanese and unique in the botanical world. Several of the most prominent of these plants are selected here and a brief explanation on each of them is given below :

Fuji (Kraunhia floribunda) Fuji or wistaria is a plant peculiar to Japan, and is not found in any other country. Chinese wistaria differs from that of Japan. Strangely enough no Chinese wistaria is transplanted in Japan, while it is found in Europe and America. The Chinese wistaria is the so-called murasaki fuji, or purple wistaria. It is a mistake to put it in the same species with the Japanese fuji as some scholars have done in the past.

The Japanese wistaria is divided into two species, viz. fuji and yama fuji (Kraunhia brachybotrya), or wild wistaria. Both grow in mountains, but are often cultivated in gardens. Yama fuji grows wild in Shikoku, Kyushu, and Chugoku and their vines are sinistral. Its flower is larger in size, but the raceme is short. Some yama fuji found in nurseries have white flowers and are called shira fuji, or white wistaria. Botanists in the West consider it as of an independent species, but it is only a variety of yama fuji. The other one, fuji, grows wild all over Japan and its vines are dextral. Wistaria found in Nara Park and that in Kasukabé in Musashi province belong to this species. Its flower-clusters are very long and they sometimes measure as much as several feet.

Sakura Sakura, or cherry-blossom, is celebrated in Japan from olden times. Yama-zakura (zakura is the euphonical form of sakura in the compound), (Prunus serrulata var. spontanea), or wild cherry blossom, is the most important of all species of cherry blossoms. The famous poem of Norinaga Moto-ori,

Shikishima no
Yamato gokoro-wo hito towa ba
Asahi ni niwo yamazakura bana.
(Isles of blest Japan!
Should your Yamato Spirit
Strangers seek to scan,
Say—the cherry wild and fair!
Lightened up in morn's sun-lit air!)

refers to this yamazakura. This species grows in the districts stretching from Kyushu in the south to Kinki (near Kyoto) in the Main Island. Many places which are noted for this sakura are found in the belt lying between these two districts. The most famous of them is Yoshino Yama near Nara.

Recently some scientists made an

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attempt to call it shiro yamazakura, or white wild cherry.

The reason that these people consider it more convenient to call it shiro yamazakura is that they gave the name of beni yamazakura, or red wild cherry to the other species. But to this red wild cherry the name of oyamazakura (Prunus serrulata var sachalinensis) has already been given.

Oyamazakura grows in the mountain districts of the Central provinces, Tohoku, Hokkaido and Karafuto and was not probably known to our ancestors in the western half of the Main Island who loved yamazakura.

The ordinary yamazakura grow in mountains and are planted in public and private gardens or along public roads.

The so-called satozakura, or village cherry does not grow in the mountains. They must have varied from the original yamazakura.

The sakura which is called Yoshino-zakura by florists and is widespread to-day all over the country with Tokyo as the centre, is known as somei-yoshino (Prunus yedoensis), in the botanical world. It appeared in Tokyo at the beginning of the Meiji Era. But where florists at Somei got its seedlings is not known. It was about the fifth year of Meiji that they were planted in Ueno Park. The reason that this blossom is called somei-yoshino by scientists is to avoid confusion with the sakura at Yoshino mentioned above. Somei-yoshino appears not to have existed in Yedo, the present Tokyo, during the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

This somei-yoshino, strange as it is, existed exclusively in Tokyo, and was rarely transplanted out of the city for long. It is found everywhere in Japan to-day, but it is only since 1902 that it began to spread out from Tokyo.

It has become known that this species of sakura is growing wild in Saishu Island, Korea. However, since it cannot be surmised that its seedlings were brought to Tokyo from this island, the origin of this sakura in Japan proper can still be said to be unknown. Some botanists in the West consider that this somei-yoshino is a species which is akin to higan-zakura (Prunus subhirtella), which blossoms at the time of the equinoctial week, and oshima-zakura (Prunus serrulata var albida, a kind of yamazakura which grows on Oshima Island in Izu province). But it is not confirmed yet.

Higan-zakura belongs to a different species. It is divided into two classes in botany. The trunk of one class is large, while that of the other is small. The former is found in Ueno Park, Tokyo, and the latter is rarely seen in the Kanto district.

The small higanzakura, however, is found everywhere in Kansai (western) district and blossoms much more prettier than the other kind. It is also found in Shinano province, although it grows into a comparatively large-sized tree.

The large higan-zakura is not found in such great numbers as the other one. Jindai-zakura of Shinano, and Ishiwari-zakura of Iwaté belong to this species. Shidare-zakura (the willowy sakura) also comes from this species and is called azuma-higan.

Sumiré (Viola mandsurica) The species of sumiré or violets is called viola in botany and violet is a popular English name, while sumiré is the popular Japanese name for it. This name is said to have originated in the carpenter's "sumi-tsubo or sumiiré", or Indian ink-stand made of wood to which the flower resembles in shape. This "sumiiré" changed into "sumiré," so the story goes.

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In botany, sumiré is restricted to a species with flowers of deep purple-colour. Varieties are ko-sumiré, tsubo-sumiré (Viola verecunda), tachitsubo-sumiré (Viola grypoceras), akané-sumiré (Viola phalacrocarpa), ezo-sumiré, ki-sumiré, tsukushi-sumiré (Viola diffusa), etc.

Japan is a kingdom of violets where there are found more than hundred species. In the number of species no country in the world compares with Japan. While the United States of America is so vast in area, kinds of violets which are found there number only about fifty.

Sugé (Carex) of sugé, carex or sedges, the most prominent is kasa sugé (Carex disparata), or umbrella sedges, and mino sugé, or raincoat sedges. More than 800 species of carex are found in Japan.

Susuki (Miscanthus sinensis) Susuki, or pampass grass is called in some places kaya. The tassel-like bunches of its flowers is called "obana," which is included among Nanakusa, or seven herbs. (See Chap. XXXVII, Calendar of Annual Events).

The graceful form of susuki with obana on them touches the Oriental heart and has been the subject of many celebrated poems. There are many species such as masuhono-susuki, masuuno-susuki, sugurono-susuki, etc.

Susuki grows abundantly in mountains and on the fields, and the tuffs of obana nod before the autumnal wind.

Kiku (Chrysanthemum sinense) Kiku or chrysanthemum is a celebrated flower in Japan. It is worthy of being the national flower and is used as the Imperial crest.

The Chinese chrysanthemum, from which the Japanese kiku is derived, had been cultivated in China before it was transplanted to Japan.

The scientific name of this flower is Chrysanthemum sinense. The word chrysanthemum is that given to the genus of this family in Europe apart from kiku, before this flower was known in that continent. Sinense is the name of the species and means China. Therefore Chrysanthemum sinense means the Chinese chrysanthemum. When it is called Chrysanthemum japonicum, it becomes the scientific name of Japanese chrysanthemum or ryuno-giku. Chrysanthemum arcticum means arctic chrysanthemum and is the scientific name for kohama-giku.

The origin of chrysanthemum is the wild chrysanthemum grown in China. The Chinese began to cultivate it. The chrysanthemums which were cultivated by Chinese horticulturists were brought into Japan and grew into countless varieties of chrysanthemum of to-day. In 1884 it was found by Dr. T. Makino, that the original Chrysanthemum sinense, which were thought to have existed only in the old China, grows in Loochoo Islands, Kyushu, Shikoku and the part of the Main Island west of Kobe.

He gave it the name of nojigiku (Chrysanthemum sinense var japonense).

The stems, leaves, flowers, colour and flagrance which nojigiku possesses are the same as those which the original species of cultivated chrysanthemum in China has.

Fauna

Japan possesses an exceedingly rich and varied fauna closely related to the adjacent continent and classified into two principal groups, the Palæarctic, and the Oriental. Of these the Palæarctic elements are chiefly found in the northern territories, such as the Kuriles, Saghalien, Hokkaido, Japan proper, and Korea, while the Oriental ones range over the islands of Formosa and Loochoo.

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Because birds and animals can move their habitat it is more difficult to classify them but, in general, Formosa, the Loochoo, and the Bonin Islands belong to the so-called Oriental zone, according to the world biological division, and include such tropical animals as the buffalo (Bubalus bubalis), the Formosan leopard (Felis dardi brachyurus), the Manis pentadactyla and the big snakes. Tropical insects are found in abundance. In the Loochoos live such rare species as the Trimeresurus flavoviridis, a poisonous snake, and the leaf-butterfly (Kallima inachus formosana). South of Bird Island, Izu, albatross frequent the blue waters; while in the Bonin Islands and southward the Japanese white-eye congregate. On Sulpur Island tropical birds with red tails can often be seen. From Kyushu northward according to the biological theory, extends the Palaearctic Zone with its fauna of the Temperate zone, specially domestic animals; while the wild animals found are the antelope (Capricornis crispus), deer (Sika nippon), wild boar (Sus leucomystax), bear (Ursus torquatus japonicus), fox (Vulpes vulpes japonicus), badger (Nycterentes procyonoides), the Meles anakuma, the Martes melampus, and the squirrel (Sciurus Lis). Different species of monkeys are also found. Among birds there are the green pheasant (Phasianus versicolor versicolor), copper pheasant (Graphophasianus soemmerringii scintillans), snowy heron (Egretta garzetta garzetta), hawk (Astus gentilis schvedowi, etc.); the crow (Corvus coronoides japonensis) is the most common. In the Northeastern districts of the Main Island, and in the high mountains, are found all the birds of the north, and also such arctic rovers as the hare (Lepus brachyurus brachyurus) and the ptarmigan (Lagopus mutus japonicus) both of which become white in winter. In Korea, the hedgehog (Erinaceus Koreanus), tiger (Felis tigris coreensis), Korean pheasant (Phasianus colchicus Karpowi), crane (Megalornis japonensis) and the like are seen.

As there is a wide difference between the kinds of animals in the Main Island and Korea, so also is there quite a difference between those of the Main Island and Hokkaido. In Hokkaido the monkey is no longer seen; the Hokkaido bear (Ursus arctos yesoensis) takes the place of the bear (Ursus torquatus japonicus); while the species of deer, rat. squirrel and ptarmigan are unlike those of the Main Island.

Karafuto again differs from Hokkaido in its species of animals. The rat, squirrel and the Ursus arctos yesoensis are the same, but there are also such species as musk-deer (Moschus moschiferus parvipes) and wild cat (Lynx lynx borealis), while in winter the tiger comes across the frozen sea from the nearby continent.

Coming to the urodele, there are various species of it, the majority of them being considered as peculiar and finding their homes in the southern district. Such species are represented by Hynobius nebulosus, H. stejnegeri, H. vandenburgi, etc. One of the most noteworthy is the giant salamander (Megalobatrachus japonicus), which inhabits the cool mountain streams of provinces in Honshu, south of Mino, and also in Kyushu. Although not common, it is not very rare. It is known to occur also in China, and may be said to represent a good example which marks off the East Asian sub-region from the others. As the representative of the northern district may be recorded H. peropus, which is found at high

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altitudes. Extensively distributed in Japan proper are Diemictylus pyrrhogaster and Onychodactylus japonicus, the former being the commonest of all.

The freshwater fishes are known from an immense number of species, many of which appear to be rather limited in distribution. Some are confined to particular river valleys, others inhabit the lakes of a limited district only, while some are restricted to a comparatively narrow area. Generally speaking, the southern district presents us with the following species: Acheilognathus limbatus, Sarcocheilichthys variegatus, Opsariichthys uncirostris, Zacco temminckii, Brittosus kawamebari, Sicyopterus japonicus, Rhinogobius hadropterus, etc. Ranging over the northern area are found such forms as Oncorhynchus, Pseudoperilampus typus, Chloea senbae, etc. Widely spread over Japan proper occurs Plecoglossus altivelis. The river Nagara, in the province of Mino, is famous for its fishing with the cormorant.

Marine Fauna

On the Pacific side Japan has two principal streams of different temperatures. The warm current is known as the Japan stream, or Kuroshiwo, which is peculiar for its high salinity. This stream has its origin in the north Pacific current from the east, and passes into the East China Sea, moving northwards by way of Luzon and Formosa.

The cold current is the well-known Kamchatka stream, or Oya-shiwo, which rises from the Behring Sea, and passes down south along the eastern coast of the Kurile group and Hokkaido, extending farther southwards off Kinkwazan, or beyond, where it meets the aforesaid Kuroshiwo.

Receiving a paramount influence of the currents just sketched out, Japanese waters command a very rich and varied marine fauna, there being found two types of animal life, the northern and the southern. Neglecting here some southern and northern elements, which have their limits north in the Behring Sea and south off the Loochoo group, respectively, the following three faunal areas may be more or less clearly recognized, though contiguous zones blend one into the other:

(1) Northern zone, extending from the shore of the Kurile group to that of the northern part of Honshu which lies to the north of Kinkwazan.

(2) Middle zone, extending from off Kinkwazan to near the Shiwo-no-misaki, on the Pacific side, and representing the zone of mingling of the arctic or subarctic and tropical or subtropical forms. The Japan Sea may be dealt with as corresponding as a whole to this zone.

(3) Southern zone, comprising the shores of the parts of Japan proper lying to the south of the Shiwo-no-misaki, the Loochoo group, the Bonin group, and Formosa.

Northern Zone This district is frankly subarctic, containing animals characteristic of the Behring Sea on the one hand, and of the Okhotsk Sea on the other. Amongst the carnivorous mammals the sea otter (Enhydra lutris) is circumpolar in range, being confined to the north of Hokkaido, while the Steller sea lion (Eumetopias jubata) and several seals (Phoca vitulina, Ph. fasciata, etc.) frequent the more southern waters, some of them occasionally appearing in the seas off Hokkaido and Amurland. The northern fur seal (Callorhynus ursinus) which is of economic importance particularly abounds in Kaihyo-to (Seal Is.), a

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small island near Saghalien and also on some islands of the Kuriles.

Turning to cetacea, there are three whalebone whales, such as Balaena glacialis, B. mysticutus, and Rhachianectes glaucus.

Around the Kuriles, Hokkaido, and Saghalien are found in immense quantities many fishes like the cod, salmon, and herring, which are of the same greatest economic importance as in Norway, Scotland, Newfoundland, and other countries.

Comparatively shallower in the waters are found some ascidians, like Halocynthia roretzi, Chelyosoma siboja, Molgula crystallina, M. redikorzevi, etc. The first two are largely eaten in this country. Much less developed here than in the tropics are a number of echinoderms.

Ranging from the Behring Sea to the Japan Sea occurs Paralithodes camtschatica, which attains a large size and is one of great economic importance. Its famous fishing grounds are the coasts of Kunashir and Saghalien. With this is associated the most edible crab, Chionecetes opilio.

A large number of molluscs are known from this district, of which the most valuable species are Ostrea gigas, Mactra sachalinensis, Pecten yessoensis, Ommastrephes sloani pacificus, etc.

Amongst medusae, such forms as Haliclystus spp., Aurelia limbata, Cyanea spp., Chrysaora spp., Staurophora discoidea, and Sarsia spp. frequent the northern waters.

Middle Zone In this district the arctic or subarctic overlaps the tropical or subtropical fauna, there being distinguished a great variety of animals. Most of the types characteristically Japanese belong here, abounding in rock pools and about the rocky islands. Setting aside some mammals, northern and southern, some whalebone whales may be recorded here, which are of great economic importance. The blue whale (Balaenoptera sibbaldii) which is of wide distribution and of migratory habits, appears off Kinkwazan and Hokkaido in summer, and about Shikoku and Kyushu in winter. Swimming in schools in the seas around Japan proper and Hokkaido is found the common finwhale (Bal. physalus) which appears in the north in summer, and in the south in winter. The Sei whale (Bal. borealis) has a range almost similar to the preceding, extending from the southern Kuriles in the north to as far south as the Goto group. Their famous hunting grounds are off the southern Kuriles, Nemuro in Hokkaido, Kinkwazan, the Shiwo-no-misaki, the Goto group, and Korea.

Here intruded from the southern seas are found a few species of reptiles, like Disteria cyanocincta, Hydrus platulus, Caretta olivacea, and Eretmochelys squamosa which sometimes extend north up to Hokkaido.

The chief species of fishes, the occurrence of which marks this zone off from the others, may be said to be Cynias manazo, Hyporhamphus sajori, Apogon semilineatus, Halichoeres poecilopterus, etc. Some valuable fishes, as the Japanese porgy, bonitos and tunnies are caught here in immense quantities. Of scombroid fishes, Scomber japonicus and Thunnus orientalis are found on both sides, the Pacific and the Japan Sea, extending from Saghalien and Hokkaido in the north to the East China Sea in the south. Besides, this district abounds in sardine (Sardinea melanosticta), which is replaced in the north by the herring and in the south by Etrumeus micropus. Engraulis japonicus also occurs in much abundance, having a range somewhat wider than the sardine. Here it may be noticed that, assuming the Boso peninsula near Tokyo

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to be a boundary, the species of the northern area gradually drop off, and the species of the southern area become more and more conspicuous. The reverse is true of the southern elements.

Amongst ascidians there are some species like Halocynthia karasboya, Microcosmus hartmeyeri, Styela kroboja, etc.

Echinoderms are plentiful, being comprised of a number of interesting species of Ophiostiba hidekii, Asteroschema japonicum, brittle-stars, sea-urchins; and sea-cucumbers.

Amongst crustaceans, one of the most notable is a giant crab, Macrocheira kaempferi, which appears to be confined to this zone, on the Pacific side. Neptunus trituberculatus is also endemic and ranges all around Japan proper. Having a range nearly similar to the giant crab is an edible spiny lobster, Palinurus japonicus. Besides, there is a good catch of penaeid prawns which are decidedly stragglers from the southern zone.

In the Japan Sea the water is by no means simple or isolated, but compound and connected with those of other seas. Of fishes the bonitos and Euthynnus are scarcely found in the Sea. Some crabs, like Chionecetes opilio, etc., are of great commercial value and huge quantities are caught. Besides, some shrimps and prawns, belonging to the genera Pandalus and Crangon, are also found in much abundance. Amongst the cephalopods, one of the most notable is an oegopsid, Watasenia scintillans, which emits luminescence. It appears abundantly in Toyama Bay, about May. Ommastrephes sloani pacificus is thickly and extensively distributed in the Sea, its thickest distribution roughly coinciding with the extension of the Tsushima stream.

Southern Zone The fauna about Kyushu and Shikoku is less characteristically Japanese, having much in common with the neighbouring shores of the islands of Bonin, Loochoo, and Formosa, where there are forms which are almost or quite identical with those met with about the South Sea islands of Java, Celebes, Borneo, etc.

Exclusive of the hair seal (Zalophus lobatus), occasionally appearing in this zone, there can be seen a few species of whalebone whales and toothed whales.

Extensively spread over this zone are some species of reptiles, such as Laticauda laticaudata, L. colubrina, Emydocephalus ijimae, Disteira melanocephala, etc., most of them being found not to range over to the middle zone.

Of fishes there is a number of forms which are of great economic importance. Of scombroid fishes, such forms as Rastrelliger chrysozonus, Grammatorcynus bilineatus, and Gymnosarda nuda which inhabit the tropical seas have their range to Loochoo; Acanthocybium solandri and Euthynnus yaito are spread, on the Pacific side, into the middle zone; and Katsuwonus pelamis is of very wide distribution, ranging from Formosa to Hokkaido, on the Pacific side, and to middle Honshu, on the Japan Sea side, though very few in number. Cybium chinense and Sarda orientalis are rather abundant about Kyushu, but they are found in northern Honshu, both off the Pacific and the Japan Sea coasts. Of other important fishes, Pagrosomus major, Evynnis cardinalis and Taius tumifrons are distributed from Formosa to middle Honshu. Besides, some forms like Embolichthys mitsukurii, Halichoeres opercularis, Chaetodon setifer, Ch. vagabundus, and others are found to extend to, or about southern Kyushu; Kuhlia marginata

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ranges from the southern seas to Idzu, and Safole toeniura to Misaki.

As they proceed southwards, ascidians seek a lower level of the sea for their habitat. Echinoderms are very much in evidence, presenting a number of species which inhabit the southern tropical seas. Some crabs like Scylla serrata, Neptunus pelagicus and Trapezia extend their range northwards to about Loochoo and Kyushu.

Ranging from off the Goto group to the Kumano Sea is a famous coral-bed, where we have such forms as Corallium japonicum, C. elatius, C. konojoi, and C. inutile. The first two corals are also found forming a bed in the waters near the Bonin group, as well as north to Formosa.

The sponges are very rich and varied. The sponge of some commercial value is represented by Euspongia irregularis, which abounds in the southern seas.

Classification Of more than 20,000 species of animals in Japan, 3,725 representative species are contained in the "Illustrated Book of Japanese Animals," by Mr. S. Uchida and others. In addition there are illustrations of 113 species which have been imported into Japan for various purposes. They are classified as follows:

I Vertebrata		
A Mammalia	91	species
B Aves	280	,,
C Reptilia	83	,,
D Amphibia	34	,,
E Pisces	448	,,
F Cyclostomata	2	,,
II Prochordata		
A Cephalochorda	1	,,
B Ascidiacea	36	,,
C Thaliacea	4	,,
D Larvacea	2	,,
E Enteropneusta	2	,,
III Arthropoda		
A Insecta	568	,,
B Myriapoda	15	,,
C Arachnoidea	70	,,
D Crustacea	493	,,
IV Mollusca		
A Cephalopoda	40	species
B Pelecypoda	128	,,
C Scaphopoda	3	,,
D Gastropoda	320	,,
E Amphineura	5	,,
V Prosopygii		
A Sipunculoidea	8	,,
B Bryozoa	42	,,
C Entoprocta	1	,,
D Brachiopoda	4	,,
E Phoronida	2	,,
VI Annelida		
A Chaetopoda	88	,,
B Archiannelida	1	,,
C Myzostomida	4	,,
D Hirudinea	30	,,
E Echiuroidea	6	,,
VII Trochelminthes		
A Rotifera	28	,,
B Gastrotricha	1	,,
C Kinorhyncha	1	,,
VIII Chætognatha	5	,,
IX Nemathelminthes		
A Nematoda	65	species
B Scanthocephali	5	,,
X Nemetritini	10	species
XI Plathelminthes		
A Turbellaria	25	,,
B Trematoda	50	,,
C Cestoda	40	,,
XII Echinodermata		
A Crinoidea	30	,,
B Asteroidea	52	,,
C Ophiuroidea	56	,,
D Echinoidea	56	,,
E Holothuroidea	56	,,
XIII Coelenterata		
A Ctenophora	8	,,
B Actinozoa	67	,,
C Scyphomedusæ	23	,,
D Hydrozoa	115	,,
XIV Porifera		
A Calcarea	19	,,
B Hexactinellida	31	,,
XV Mesozoa	1	,,
XVI Protozoa		
A Ciliphora	22	,,
B Sporozoa	20	,,
C Rhizopoda	30	,,
D Mastigophora	26	,,
XVII Larva	72	,,
Total	3,725	,,
XVIII Foreign animals	113	,,

Earthquakes

Italy and Japan are the two countries in the world which are famed for earthquakes. In the frequency

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of earthquakes in recent years Japan beats Italy. In 1923, when the Great Kanto Earthquake occurred, there were 2,786 sensible earthquakes and 3,915 insensible ones. The number of sensible earthquakes in the five years, 1927-1931, was 12,476 in the whole Empire. About 45% of them occurred in the Kanto district, Kyoto and Osaka districts coming next with 22%. But such earthquakes as were accompanied with casualties were very few, numbering only three during the five-year period. The seismic history of the country since 1596 records 20 big earthquakes in which the loss of lives amounted to over 1,000 each.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES IN JAPAN IN THE PAST THREE CENTURIES

Date	A.D.	Japanese year	Districts	Number of persons killed
Sept. 3	1596	(Keicho 1)	Oita (Kyushu)	708
Sept. 4	1596	(Keicho 1)	Kobé, Osaka district	1,173
Jan. 31	1605	(Keicho 9)	Pacific coasts from Kyushu to Tokyo Bay	8,800
Sept. 27	1611	(Keicho 16)	Aizu (North-east district)	3,700
Dec. 2	1611	(Keicho 16)	North-east and Hokkaido coasts	4,783
June 16	1662	(Kanbun 2)	Central district	800
Feb. 2	1666	(Kanbun 6)	Takata (Echigo province)	1,500
Dec. 31	1703	(Genroku 16)	Tokyo and Tokaido	5,233
Oct. 28	1707	(Kanyei 4)	Pacific coasts of Central district	4,900
May 20	1751	(Horeki 1)	Takata (Echigo province)	2,000
March 8	1766	(Meiwa 3)	Tsugaru straits	1,335
May 21	1792	(Kansei 4)	Unzen Mt. (Kyushu)	15,200
Dec. 18	1828	(Bunsei 11)	Echigo province	1,443
May 8	1847	(Koka 4)	Shinano and Echigo provinces	12,000
July 9	1854	(Ansei 1)	Yamato to Tokaido	1,057
Dec. 23	1854	(Ansei 1)	Pacific coasts	600
Dec. 24	1854	(Ansei 1)	Kyushu, Shikoku, Isé	3,000
Nov. 11	1855	(Ansei 2)	Tokyo and vicinity	7,000
Nov. 6	1872	(Meiji 5)	Hamada (Iwami province)	600
Oct. 28	1891	(Meiji 24)	Mino and Owari provinces	7,275
Oct. 22	1894	(Meiji 27)	Uzen and Ugo provinces	720
June 15	1896	(Meiji 29)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	27,122
Sept. 1	1923	(Taisho 12)	Kanto district	44,279
May 23	1925	(Taisho 14)	Tajima province	304
March 7	1927	(Showa 2)	Tango province	3,017
Nov. 26	1930	(Showa 5)	Izu, Suruga and Sagami provinces	248
March 3	1933	(Showa 8)	Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori prefectures	2,935

The Kanto Earthquake and Fire which occurred on September 1, 1923, was the severest of all the recorded earthquakes in the country in the number of casualties and amount of damages.

The quake started at 11 : 58′ 31″ A.M. on that day, the epicentre being at the bottom of the sea 28 kilometres below the sea level near the mouth of the Sagami river, 139° 17′ E. Long., 35° 22′ N. Lat. It was a seismic activity caused by a block movement of the earth, and the shock was felt all over the Empire and recorded by all the seismographs of the world. The largest width of the vibration reached to about 8 inches,

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and the duration of the quake, as recorded by the seismograph in the laboratory of the Tokyo Imperial University, was over three and a half hours.

As to the casualties and damages caused by the earthquake and fire a variety of reports is published. The statistics here given are made out of those published by the Extraordinary Earthquake Rescue Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, and those given in the Empire Statistic Year Book published by the Government.

DAMAGES TO BUILDINGS

(Earthquake Rescue Bureau Figures)

Damage	Number	Percentage
Totally burnt	381,090	54.9
Half burnt	517	0.1
Completely damaged	83,819	12.1
Half damaged	91,233	13.1
Carried off by tidal waves	1,390	0.2
Partly broken	136,572	19.6
Total	694,621	100.0

Of the above Tokyo had 354,453 houses damaged (51%), or 73.4% of the total number of houses in the city, while Yokohama had 94,882 houses destroyed (13.7%) or 95.9% of the total number of houses in the city.

CASUALTIES

(Figures from Empire Statistic Year Book and other statistical publications)

	Total	Men	Women	Proportion per 100 population in the district
Killed	44,279	20,953	23,326	0.88
Severely wounded	16,514	9,406	7,108	0.14
Wounded	35,560	20,865	14,695	0.34
Total	96,353	51,224	45,129	0.86

The number of persons killed is usually said to have reached over 100,000, and the Earthquake Rescue Bureau figures give 91,344. But the later statistics given by the Government in the Empire Statistic Year Book seems to be more correct. Of the total number there given as killed, 28,708 were crushed, 15,450 burnt in the ensuing fire, and 121 were drowned by the tidal waves.

No authoritative survey was made in regard to the loss of property and a variety of amounts is given as estimates. Most of them, however, are necessarily exaggerated. But taking the number of destroyed households, the average individual wealth and other factors as guides, the total amount of the loss may be safely said to have reached approximately ¥2,550,000,000.

Earthquakes of 1933 The biggest quake of the year occurred in the Sanriku district at 3:31 A. M. March 3. The district, which covers the Pacific coast line of three northeastern prefectures, Miyagi, Iwaté and Aomori, had often been washed by tidal waves due to seismic activities at the sea bottom, the severest loss of life being experienced in 1896. The people were, therefore, fully aware of possible tidal waves when they felt the first shock and immediately hurried to the hills, but the waves overtook them within half an hour or so, drowning 2,935 people and carrying away 13,172 houses, together with over 15,000 fishing boats. (These figures are subject to future correction). The number of casualties was but 10% of those of the 1896 quake, but the area covered and the destruction caused by it was greater. Ninety per cent. of the reconstruction work had been completed by the first anniversary.

Formosa Earthquake in 1935 On April 21, 1935 an earthquake struck Shin-

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chiku and Taichu prefectures, Taiwan (Formosa). The shock suddenly began at 6:2′ 17″ A.M. (Taiwan time or 7:2′ 17″ A. M. in Japan proper) and lasted nearly one hour. The epicentre was at a point about 10 kilometres below the surface at the mouth of the Daiankei near the town of Taikō, Taichū. The width of the vibration reached from 8 mm. to 16 mm. and the shock was especially strong in a limited district because it occurred at a comparatively shallow spot. Records tell that Formosa experienced big quakes in 1655, 1720, 1722, 1861 and 1867, and this was 46th quake after 1868 and is said to have been the largest so far as the damages are concerned, the statistics of which follow :

DAMAGES AND CASUALTIES IN THE FORMOSA EARTHQUAKE IN 1935

(April 24, Ministry of Overseas Affairs Report)

Casualties :	
Killed	3,185
Severely wounded	9,215
Wounded	1,415
Missing	6
Total	13,821
Damages :	
Dwellings completely damaged	15,292
" half damaged	15,457
" greatly damaged	4,436
" partly damaged	3,380
Total	38,565
Other buildings completely damaged	574
" " half damaged	128
" " greatly damaged	104
" " partly damaged	184
Total	990

National Parks

On October 8, 1932, a committee of 11 headed by Baron Yoshiro Fujimura, which had been conducting investigations for a year under instructions from the Home Office, submitted a report recommending 12 places in Japan as worthy of preservation and development as national parks. They were (1) Mount Fuji and Hakoné, (2) Nikko, (3) Akan, (4) Daisetsusan, (5) Lake Towada, (6) the Japan Alps, (7) Yoshino and Kumano, (8) the Inland Sea, (9) Daisen, (10) Mount Aso, (11) Unzen and (12) Mount Kirishima.

There of them, i.e. the Inland Sea, Unzen and Mount Kirishima were formally announced as national parks by the authorities in March, 1934, and the five parks, Akan, Daisetsuzan, Nikko, the Japan Alps and Aso in November, 1934.

Descriptions of the national parks, decided and projected, follow :

Mount Fuji and Hakoné In the three prefectures of Yamanashi, Kanagawa and Shizuoka in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, the combination of the world-famous Mount Fuji, the five beautiful lakes at its foot and the hot spring resort of Hakoné is to be known as Fuji Park. Mount Fuji, superb, peerless and highest mountain of Japan proper, is known the world over for its beauty. Its perfect cone rises 3,773 metres above sea level. In July and August, crowds of pilgrims and others climb its sacred slopes to the summit.

Below Mount Fuji are the famous five Fuji lakes, all of which are visited by nature lovers because of their scenic beauty.

Few visitors to Japan fail to visit the Hakoné district, noted for its mountain scenery, invigorating climate, hot springs and places of general interest. The district, popularly known as Mount Hakoné, is the crater of an extinct volcano. Lake Ashinoko is famous for its reflection of Mount Fuji when that elusive peak is visible.

Nikko In the prefectures of Gunma, Fukushima, Tochigi and Niigata in the centre of the Mainland of Japan, 90 miles north of Tokyo, Nikko is famous the world over for its combination of art and nature. The gorgeous shrines and temples are as striking as its cryptomeria

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avenue, the mountains, lakes and waterfalls. Lake Chuzenji, the largest lake in the proposed park, is extremely beautiful, and the Kegon waterfall, which serves as an outlet of the lake, is a most striking sight. Beside the lake stands Mount Nantai, which resembles in shape Mount Fuji. In inner Nikko are smaller lakes and also the hot spring district of Yumoto.

Akan Situated in Kushiro province on the Island of Hokkaido, this park contains a wide area of active volcanic mountains, imposing forests and lakes. Lake Mashu, one of the beautiful lakes below the range of volcanic mountains, lies within 10 kilometres of the Deshikutsu Hot Springs. The lake is nearly 20 square kilometres in area, and in its centre lies a small island.

Lake Kutsusharo, the largest of the group in Akan Park, measures 76.22 square kilometres in area, with the beautiful island of Tomoshiri in its centre, 12 kilometres in circumference. At the southern extremity of the lake is a small protruding strip of highland called Wakoto Peninsula, at the foot of which is Wakoto Hot Springs.

Lake Akan, probably the most beautiful of the Akan group, 11.86 square kilometres, has a zigzag shore and, being rich in changes, presents a very pleasing appearance. On the southwest of the lake rises Mount Oakan, an active volcano.

Akan Park is suitable for sightseeing trips of two or four days from the city of Kushiro.

Daisetsuzan The Great Snow Mountains district, in the centre of the Island of Hokkaido, presents a range of active volcanoes known as the Daisetsuzan Range. Because of the great height of the mountains, this is often called the Roof of Hokkaido. Surrounding the mountains are virgin woods over an area of 490,000 acres. The mountains form the source of the Ishikari River, the largest river on the island.

The Daisetsu volcanic range rises in more than 10 mountains, including Mount Tokachi and Mount Sangoku. Many lakes are found on the summits of the volcanoes. Mount Asahi, the highest mountain in the group and the highest in Hokkaido, is 2,290 metres above sea level. Its shape, resembling that of Mount Fuji and trailing far to the foot, is very beautiful to look at from a distance. From its summit can be seen on a fine day all Hokkaido, a magnificent view seldom equalled anywhere else.

Lake Towada In the Ohu district in Northern Japan, extending over the two prefectures of Akita and Aomori, the proposed Towada Park is distinguished by Lake Towada on the south and Mount Hakkoda on the north. Lake Towada, the third deepest in Japan, is 378 metres deep at the greatest depth. So clear is the water that one can see into it for 18 metres.

The lake, which is 401 metres above sea level is 78.02 square kilometres in area and 46.2 kilometres in circumference. In origin and scale, the lake resembles Crater Lake in America, but the beauty and variety of scenery here is said to be far superior to that of the American lake.

The Japan Alps (Chubu Sangaku or central mountains) Extending over the prefectures of Nagano, Gifu, Toyama and Niigata in Central Japan, the Hida range of mountains is called the Japan Alps after the European Alps because of its similarity in shape and scenery. Mounts Tsubakuro, Shirouma, Yari, Hodaka and Norikura are some of the high peaks, in the upper val-

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leys of which snow may be found even in mid-summer. The region is an excellent place for summer mountain climbing and camping.

Kamikochi, probably the most popular spot in the region, is a flat valley in the shape of an S, 1,500 metres above sea level and surrounded by peaks towering an additional 2,000 metres. Through this valley runs the clear-watered Azusa River. The Kurobé Valley on the north is equally known for its majesty. Steep cliffs of great height stand on both sides, running for almost 80 kilometres from south to north. The region is the source of many beautiful streams and cascades which adorn and add colour to the mountain scenery.

Yoshino and Kumano On the Pacific coast of central Japan and extending over the prefectures of Wakayama, Nara and Miyé, the proposed Yoshino and Kumano Park has the dual beauties of mountains and the sea. The park area includes Mount Ominé, Mount Sanjo, Mount Odaigahara, the Hokusan Valley, Onigashiro and the beach.

Yoshino, noted for its cherry blossoms, and the other mountains in the Yoshino Range are from 1,000 to 2,000 metres above sea level. One of the highest of the 70 mountains is Mount Ominé, which is visited by 200,000 pilgrims annually. Mount Bukkyo, 1,915 metres above sea level, the highest peak in the region, commands on a fine day a striking view over the surrounding country. The sea coast within the area extends 80 kilometres. At the southern extremity of the Ushio Promontory stands a 63-foot lighthouse. Within the proposed park are the 800-foot Nachi waterfalls, the greatest in Japan, and 48 other waterfalls of varying sizes.

The Inland Sea This sea park lies between the Island of Shikoku and the Chugoku district on the Mainland of Japan, extending to the three prefectures of Hiroshima, Okayama and Kagawa and consisting of numerous islands of all shapes and sizes between Shodo-shima in the east and Abuto in the west. The seascape is ever changing as one voyages on its historic waters. Most of the trans-Pacific liners traverse it and occasional glimpses of its beauty can be had from the trains between Kobé and Shimonoseki. The sea is famous for its great variety of fish and their superior flavour.

The area between Kitaki Island and Shimotsui, dotted here and there by numerous islands of varying sizes, presents the best scenic view in the region.

The Island of Shodo, the largest of the group, is renowned for its scenic beauty, especially its crimson autumnal leaves. Yashima is known in history as the spot where the military clans of Genji and Heiké staged a decisive battle centuries ago, ending in the victory of the former.

Daisen In the prefectures of Tottori and Okayama, in Western Japan, the proposed Daisen Park is to be the only national park facing the Japan Sea. It includes, besides Mount Daisen, 1,713 metres above sea level, several peaks of similar height. Mount Daisen is called the Fuji of Hoki, because it resembles Mount Fuji in shape when seen from Shimané prefecture. While its western side is graceful, the northern is very imposing and majestic. Numerous rocks of huge size protrude from the ground. Wide plains around the mountain offer the best skiing ground in the Chugoku district.

Mount Aso In the centre of Kyushu, Aso Park consists in Mount Aso, which forms five peaks. Aso is an active volcano, with the larg-

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est and most celebrated crater in the world. Being double-cratered, it has a huge depression measuring 16 kilometres from east to west and 20 kilometres from south to north, in the centre of which lies the central crater. Within the large crater are 11 villages where 50,000 people live. Their peaceful life is interesting when contrasted with the imposing figure of the mountain.

The five Aso peaks have characteristics all their own. Naka Peak has a crater which is very active and emits smoke which ascends furiously. Half way up Eboshi Peak are three hot-spring districts, Yutani, Suitama and Jigoku, 800 metres above sea level.

Unzen In Nagasaki prefecture, Kyushu, the renowned sulphide hot springs of Unzen, discovered in 1661, annually attracts many foreigners and Japanese. Unzen is famous for the medicinal properties of its waters. It is regarded as the best summer resort in Kyushu and is also visited for its wild cherry blossoms in spring, its splendid azaleas in May, its maple foliage in autumn and its celebrated "Silver Thaw" in winter, when trees and shrubbery are coated with ice.

Unzen, consisting of the lower peaks of Unzen, Nodaké, Takaiwa, Kusenbu, Torikabuto, Azuma, Hachimaki, and Bizan, has a feminine beauty of mountain scenery in contrast with the masculine grandeur of Mount Aso.

Mount Kirishima In the prefectures of Miyazaki and Kagoshima, Kyushu, the proposed Kirishima Park consists of 22 gracefully shaped volcanic mountains with characteristic craters, lakes, plains, woods and forests. The view from the mountains extends as far as Sakura Island in Kinko Bay, and that toward Mount Aso and Unzen in the distance is extremely beautiful. Kirishima is also rich in folklore, which gives it a touch of romance.

To have the best view, one must go up Mount Karakuni, the highest peak in the group, 1,700 metres above sea level. The woods turn into slopes and farther on comes a huge plain. The crater lake is soon reached, and hence a steep road leads to the summit. Three hours of walking are needed to reach Mount Takachiho. In the neighbourhood of Shinnen and Nakadaké, wild azaleas bloom in May, turning the locality into a veritable flower garden.

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CHAPTER II

POPULATION

General Survey

The outstanding aspects of the population of Japan are that it has virtually doubled in Japan proper in the past 60 years, that the excess of its birth rate over the death rate is one of the highest in the world, and that its density is such that the land within the Empire leaves scant room for expansion.

The third quinquennial national census, taken on October 1, 1930, showed a total population for the Empire of 90,396,043, exceeded in only the British Empire, China, the Soviet Union and the United States. Though lack of statistics makes it impossible to trace the growth with any accuracy from early days, it has been variously estimated that in the 7th and 8th centuries the population ranged between 5,000,000 and 8,000,000 or 9,000,000. Figures compiled at regular intervals between 1721 and 1846, despite their understatement of the actual population because of certain known omissions, indicate comparative stability at about 26,000,000 for more than a century preceding the Meiji Restoration.

The first estimate of population after the Restoration, made in 1872, was roughly 33,000,000. By 1889, the total was 40,000,000, and the 50,000,000 mark was passed in Japan proper about 1909. Each decade showed an accelerated increase:

1870–1880	5%
1880–1890	7.6%
1890–1900	10%
1900–1910	12%
1910–1920	13%
1920–1930	15%

This increase, it is to be noted, started with the opening of the country to world commerce and paralleled Japanese economic expansion. As means of subsistence gained, so did the size of the population. The death rate did not drop appreciably until recent years, but the birth rate, in contrast with that in other leading nations, became higher, jumping from 17 per 1,000 of population in 1872 to 32.35 per 1,000 in 1930, with a peak of 36.2 in 1920. In no other important nation, unless it be the Soviet Union, is the rate so high.

With a total area of 382,314 square kilometres, Japan proper has a population density of 169 persons to the square kilometre.

In 1930 the average number of the members of a household in Japan proper was 5.1. It differs according to districts. In the eastern districts, from Toyama, Nagano to Hokkaido, it was from 5 to 6, the northeastern prefectures heading the list with their average of 6. In the western districts, that is to say, Ishikawa, Aichi, Kyoto, Osaka, Chugoku (western prefectures of the Main Island), Shikoku, Kagoshima prefecture and the Loochoos, it was below 5, the lowest being Kyoto, Osaka and Chugoku districts. Classified in accordance with prefectures, those prefectures which have big cities show a much smaller average, Tokyo being 4.8, Osaka 4.6, Kyoto and Hyogo (Kobé) 4.7. This phenomenon is evidently occasioned by the social and economic conditions in city life which necessitate a small-family system.

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POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE

According to the census of October 1, 1925

	Total population	Male	Female	Population per square kilometre	Males to 100 Females
Empire	88,456,929	42,209,100	41,247,829	124	102.3
Japan proper	59,736,822	30,013,109	29,723,713	156	101.0
Korea	19,522,945	10,020,943	9,502,002	88	105.5
Formosa	3,993,408	2,052,669	1,940,739	111	195.8
Karafuto	208,754	122,379	81,375	6	150.4
Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,054,074	644,491	409,583	283	157.4
South Sea Mandated Islands	56,294	30,100	26,194	26	114.9

According to the census of October 1, 1930

	Total population	Male	Female	Population per square kilometre	Males to 100 Females
Empire	90,896,043	45,675,654	44,720,389	134	102.1
Japan proper	64,450,005	32,390,155	32,059,850	169	101.0
Korea	21,058,305	10,763,679	10,294,626	95	104.6
Formosa	4,592,537	2,353,288	2,239,249	128	105.1
Karafuto	295,196	168,532	126,664	8	133.1
Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	1,328,011	809,044	518,967	355	155.9
South Sea Mandated Islands	69,626	37,929	31,697	32	119.7

The average rate of annual increase of population during the five years from 1925 to 1930 in Japan proper was 15.304 per 1,000; 15.361 in male and 15.247 in female. In Chosen it was 15.256, in Taiwan 28.352, in Karafuto 76.963.

The quinquennial increase of the population, 1925-1930

Empire	6,939,114	Kwantung Province and South Manchuria Railway Zone	273,937
Japan proper	4,713,183	South Sea Mandated Islands	13,332
Korea	1,535,360		
Formosa	599,129		
Karafuto	91,442		

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF JAPAN SINCE THE FIRST NATIONAL CENSUS OF OCTOBER 1, 1920

Year	Population of the Empire		Japan proper		
	Japan proper	Others	Births	Deaths	Natural increase
1920	55,963,053	21,025,326	2,025,564	1,422,096	603,468
1925	59,736,822	23,720,107	2,086,091	1,210,706	875,385
1929	62,938,200	24,131,124	2,077,026	1,261,228	815,798
1930	64,450,005	25,946,038	2,085,101	1,170,867	914,234
1931	65,366,500	25,354,311	2,102,784	1,240,891	861,893
1932	66,296,000	27,230,234	2,182,742	1,175,344	1,007,398
1933	67,238,600	—	2,121,253	1,193,987	927,266
1934	68,194,900	—	—	—	—

Note:—National census was taken three times quinquennially since 1920. For intercensal years figures on population are estimations.

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PREFECTURAL POPULATIONS

According to the census of October 1, 1930

Prefecture	Area (Square kilometre)	Households	Population	Population per sq. kilometre	Estimate Oct. 1, 1934
Total	382,314,390	12,705,896	64,450,005	169	68,194,900
Hokkaido	88,775,036	509,758	2,812,835	32	3,061,600
Aomori	9,630,924	148,291	879,914	91	933,100
Iwaté	15,235,306	162,965	975,771	64	1,035,200
Miyagi	7,273,754	187,661	1,142,784	157	1,221,200
Akita	11,663,861	167,095	987,706	85	1,028,500
Yamagata	9,325,757	176,984	1,080,034	116	1,121,900
Fukushima	13,781,613	263,939	1,508,150	109	1,564,200
Ibaraki	6,090,990	281,110	1,487,097	244	1,549,200
Tochigi	6,436,585	205,360	1,141,737	177	1,182,500
Gumma	6,335,823	217,025	1,186,080	187	1,239,500
Saitama	3,802,700	265,353	1,459,172	384	1,510,800
Chiba	5,078,810	281,316	1,470,121	289	1,526,400
Tokyo	2,144,787	1,125,773	5,408,678	2,522	6,142,100
Kanagawa	2,353,484	323,301	1,619,606	688	1,780,800
Niigata	12,578,050	346,687	1,933,826	154	1,999,700
Toyama	4,257,419	150,661	778,953	183	802,600
Ishikawa	4,197,513	155,084	756,835	180	761,600
Fukui	4,017,969	128,308	618,144	154	634,200
Yamanashi	4,465,866	122,012	631,042	141	655,200
Nagano	13,626,130	327,871	1,717,118	126	1,787,000
Gifu	10,494,701	235,071	1,178,405	112	1,214,800
Shizuoka	7,769,912	327,871	1,797,805	231	1,898,400
Aichi	5,081,142	521,146	2,567,413	505	2,764,400
Miyé	5,765,280	235,706	1,157,407	201	1,196,900
Shiga	4,050,929	147,963	691,681	171	714,800
Kyoto	462,196	328,202	1,552,832	336	1,669,200
Osaka	1,813,631	770,868	3,540,017	1,952	3,921,800
Hyogo	8,322,875	562,599	2,646,301	318	2,798,600
Nara	3,688,600	120,302	596,225	162	606,100
Wakayama	4,723,423	177,455	830,748	176	865,100
Tottori	3,489,481	94,729	489,266	140	502,800
Shimané	6,618,042	157,568	739,507	112	753,100
Okayama	7,046,475	274,915	1,283,962	182	1,320,100
Hiroshima	8,436,517	360,897	1,692,136	201	1,751,300
Yamaguchi	6,082,108	249,188	1,135,637	187	1,168,800
Tokushima	4,143,221	144,540	716,544	173	737,800
Kagawa	1,858,730	150,153	732,816	394	758,600
Eimé	5,667,108	239,509	1,142,122	202	1,178,500
Kochi	7,103,620	153,957	718,152	101	742,500
Fukuoka	4,939,646	496,447	2,527,119	512	2,706,300
Saga	2,443,897	128,788	691,565	283	696,900
Nagasaki	4,075,777	241,547	1,233,362	303	1,288,500
Kumamoto	7,437,723	256,285	1,353,993	182	1,400,000
Oita	6,333,880	190,318	945,771	149	970,100
Miyazaki	7,738,846	148,006	760,467	98	815,600
Kagoshima	9,103,810	322,088	1,556,690	171	1,623,800
Okinawa	2,386,288	123,274	577,509	242	593,300

Races of the Japanese Empire

The Japanese What constitutes the main part of the population of the Empire is the Japanese. Their number, according to the latest national census of 1930, reaches to about 64,400,000 (32,300,000 males and 32,050,000 females), most of whom occupy the main group of the Japanese archipelago, although they are also found scattered in almost any part of the Empire.

Of late, constant emigration and

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immigration are taking place between Korea and Japan, but the main population of Korea is Korean and numbers about 20,000,000.

The Ainu inhabit Hokkaido, Chishima (the Kuriles) and the Japanese part of Karafuto (Saghalien).

Most of them are found in Hokkaido, especially in the province of Hitaka, their number being 16,000. In Karafuto there are about 1,500 according to the national census of 1925; formerly they lived scattered along the sea coasts of Karafuto, but the government policy made a point of collecting them in a few prescribed Ainu villages for the purpose of better protection. Those in Chishima are very few in number and do not exceed one hundred. In Hokkaido, as a result of daily contact with the Japanese, they are greatly mixed and are fast changing their customs and manners to accord with the fashion of the Japanese neighbours.

As to the position of the Ainu in the ethnic system, there is no consensus of opinion. It was, and still is, a conundrum in anthropology. Years ago the view that the Ainu formed a "Race Island" was put forward by Y. Koganei.

Gilyaks whose home is in the Amur region of Siberia, are also found along the Poronai River in the southern part of the Japanese possession in Saghalien. They call themselves "Nickbun" and were reported in 1925 to be 77 in all, 40 being males and 37 females. Their affinity with other races is not clear, and they are simply classed as one of the palae-Asiatics.

The Orokes who inhabit the same region in Saghalien as the Gilyaks, are also immigrants from the mainland of Asia. They are a branch of the Tungusic group, but are said to show a considerable influence of the Ainu, Gilyaks and also of the Russians.

The inhabitants of Formosa may be roughly divided into two groups, one is chiefly made up of the Chinese immigrants from Kwantung and Fukien provinces, and occupies the lowland districts and the western half of the island; and the other is made up of the wild hill-tribes inhabiting the mountainous eastern half, and is the more aboriginal of the two. These, on the basis of physical anthropology, ethnology and linguistics, are usually subdivided into eight tribes, namely: Taiyal, Seddaka, Saiset, Tsuou, Bunun, Paiwan, Ami and Yami. They are estimated to be about 130,000 in number and to belong either to Malay, or to the Indonesian family.

The Natives of Micronesia Micronesia which is under our mandatory administration, consists of innumerable small islands, some of which are uninhabited; hence, the native population is only about 49,000. The natives of Saipan, Palau, Yap, Truk, Ponape, Kusaie, Jaluit, etc., constitute the main part of the population. They are usually divided into two ethnic groups. One is known as the Chamorros and is chiefly found in Saipan, although some have emigrated to the island of Palau and Yap, and comprises about 2,800 in all according to the census of 1923. The other, commonly known as Kanakas, and found scattered in almost every island, is estimated at 46,000 in number.

In addition, it may be said that in the Ogasawara group of islands known as the "Bonin" (corruption of "Mujin" or "Bunin"=uninhabited) there are the naturalized descendants of European and American fishermen, Italian, English, Portuguese, etc., numbering about 120 and these form a sort of foreign settlement of their own.

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Age Distribution

Figures for 64,067,050* persons residing in Japan proper show that those less than 14 years of age, termed juveniles, constitute 36.7% of the population; those from 15 to 59 inclusive, termed productives, 55.9%, and those of 60 or more, termed the aged, 7.4%. Of the males, 36.5% are juvenile, 57% productive and 6.5% aged; of the females, 36.9% are juvenile, 54.8% productive and 8.3% aged. Though males exceed females at birth, mortality among them is higher up to the age of 5. Between the ages of 5 and 34, female mortality is the greater, but with the latter age male mortality again takes the lead.

In the decade between 1920 and 1930, the number of juveniles per 1,000 of population increased by two, productives gained by six and the aged decreased by eight. Despite this tendency of the productive group to become larger, it still carries in Japan a much heavier burden than the productive groups in other countries, as is indicated in the following compilation of the general age groups per 1,000 of population:

*Note: The figures do not cover the full population because they are made out tentatively by the sampling method for the benefit of the public on the basis of a certain number among all the reports sent into the Statistics Bureau. The complete figures are not yet available.

DISTRIBUTION OF JUVENILES, PRODUCTIVES AND THE AGED

Age[1]		Total	Males	Females	Males to 100 Females	Per 1,000 of Total	Per 1,000 of Males	Per 1,000 of Females
		64,067,050	32,294,890	31,772,160	101.65	—	—	—
Juveniles	0–14	23,502,060	11,780,060	11,722,000	100.50	367	365	369
Productives	15–59	35,827,260	18,413,100	17,414,160	105.74	559	570	548
Aged	60–	4,737,730	2,101,730	2,636,000	79.73	74	65	83

1 Those below one year were calculated as 0, those not yet fully 2 years of age as 1 year old, etc.

DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS

Age	Total	Males	Females	Males to 100 Females	Per 1,000 of Total	Per 1,000 of Males	Per 1,000 of Females
Total	64,067,050	32,294,890	31,772,160	101.65	—	—	—
0– 4	9,044,000	4,468,000	4,576,000	97.64	141	138	144
5– 9	7,741,000	3,897,000	3,844,000	101.38	121	121	121
10–14	6,717,060	3,415,060	3,302,000	103.42	105	106	104
15–19	6,272,660	3,281,660	2,991,000	109.72	98	102	94
20–24	5,452,180	2,810,160	2,642,020	106.36	85	87	83
25–29	4,822,370	2,509,330	2,313,040	108.49	75	78	73
30–34	4,091,990	2,148,960	1,943,030	110.60	64	67	61
35–39	3,541,890	1,812,870	1,729,020	104.85	55	56	54
40–44	3,382,220	1,738,200	1,644,030	105.73	53	54	52
45–49	3,103,490	1,558,470	1,545,020	100.87	48	48	49
50–54	2,867,080	1,438,080	1,429,000	100.64	45	45	45
55–59	2,293,370	1,115,370	1,178,000	94.68	36	35	37
60–64	1,692,520	804,520	888,000	90.60	26	25	28
65–69	1,265,170	586,170	679,000	86.33	20	18	21
70–74	888,040	371,040	517,000	71.77	14	11	16
75–79	541,000	223,000	318,000	70.13	8	7	10
80——	351,000	117,000	234,000	50.00	5	4	7

Vocational Distribution

According to the census of 1920, the percentage of persons engaged in agriculture was 48% of the entire population, industry 19%, commerce 13%, and other occupations below 10% each.

The complete figures of the 1930 census are not yet available; but the Statistics Bureau issued the following tentative table:

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OCCUPIED AND UNOCCUPIED

	Total	Male	Female	In Every 1,000 Total	Male	Female
Total	64,067,050	32,294,890	31,772,160	1,000	1,000	1,000
Occupied	29,220,550	19,089,520	10,131,030	456	591	319
Unoccupied	34,846,500	13,205,370	21,641,130	544	409	681

OCCUPIED, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS OF OCCUPATION

Total	29,220,550	19,089,520	10,131,030	1,000	1,000	1,000
Agriculture	14,156,030	7,791,030	6,365,000	484	406	628
Fisheries	568,040	521,040	47,000	19	27	5
Mining	236,180	198,180	38,000	8	10	4
Industry	5,290,560	4,286,560	1,004,000	181	225	99
Commerce	4,463,110	3,026,110	1,437,000	153	159	142
Transport	1,108,560	1,027,560	81,000	38	54	8
Public service	2,031,070	1,685,060	346,010	70	88	34
Domestic service	806,000	87,000	719,000	28	5	71
Miscellaneous	561,000	466,980	94,020	19	24	9

UNOCCUPIED

Total	34,846,500	13,205,370	21,641,130	1,000	1,000	1,000
Living on proceeds from property, investment, etc.	193,010	129,010	64,000	6	10	3
Children, the aged and unemployed	34,653,490	13,076,360	21,577,130	994	990	997

Sex Distribution

As a whole, males slightly outnumber females in Japan proper but by a considerable margin in the colonies, as the following table indicates. Between rural and urban areas, there is a difference in this respect. Females exceed males in the rural districts of Japan proper, and in the cities the proportion of males to females is much higher than in the country as a whole. The following table gives the ratio of males to 100 females in Japan proper as recorded in the quinquennial censuses :

	Whole area	Rural areas	Cities	Cities above 100,000
1920	100.4	98.7	108.7	112.6
1925	100.0	98.2	107.6	111.3
1930	101.0	99.2	107.9	110.6

In Chosen, Taiwan and the Kwantung Leased Territory, the same fact is observed, the ratio of males to females being higher in the cities than in the whole areas, but it is not so among the Japanese elements in these colonies. Though Japanese males out-number females in both rural and urban districts, the excess is less in the cities. Karafuto is an exception to the general rule. The ratio of males to 100 females in the colonies is as follows :

	Total		Japanese		Natives	
	Whole area	Cities	Whole area	Cities	Whole area	Cities
Chosen[1]	103.9	107.7	107.8	106.2	103.2	104.6
Taiwan	105.1	108.9	117.0	115.4	103.6	102.5
Kwantung	155.9	190.8	107.2	105.6	163.1[2]	263.6[2]
Karafuto	133.1	119.8	—	—	—	—

1. For Chosen and Taiwan, the figures are for the end of 1930; for Kwantung and Karafuto, October 1, 1930.

2. A few foreigners are included.

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The following tables show the rate of marriages, divorces and births, in Japan proper, in the latest decade.

Marriages and Divorces

In 1933 the number of marriages in Japan proper was 486,058, a decrease of 29,212 compared with the previous year. The number of marriages per 1,000 population was 7.23, or 0.54 lower compared with the previous year, regaining the general trend of recent years, which is decidedly on the decline. The number of divorces in the same year was 49,282, or 2,155 less than in 1932. The number of divorces per 1,000 population was 0.73 or 0.05 lower than the previous year. Before 1920 the number of divorces surpassed the 100,000 mark in a year and the proportion per 1,000 population was from 2.0 at the lowest to 3.0 at the highest, but it has kept a rate lower than 1.0 since 1920.

MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES

Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population		Year	Marriages	Divorces	Proportion per 1,000 population	
			Marriages	Divorces				Marriages	Divorces
1924	513,130	51,770	8.68	0.88	1929	497,410	51,222	7.90	0.81
1925	521,438	51,687	8.73	0.87	1930	506,674	51,259	7.86	0.80
1926	502,847	50,472	8.31	0.83	1931	496,574	50,609	7.60	0.77
1927	487,850	50,626	7.96	0.83	1932	515,270	51,437	7.77	0.78
1928	499,555	49,119	8.01	0.79	1933	486,058	49,282	7.23	0.73

MARRIAGES BY AGE GROUPS

Husbands

Year	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	513,130	521,438	502,847	487,850	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058
Under 15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15-19	14,436	13,818	13,825	12,378	11,654	10,617	9,896	8,467	7,784	6,635
20-24	166,737	167,658	157,404	147,413	146,627	142,225	145,421	144,234	145,917	130,569
25-29	186,584	192,689	190,710	191,987	202,217	204,513	209,552	205,747	214,886	205,402
30-34	67,430	68,850	67,590	65,286	68,419	69,012	70,638	70,903	77,421	73,934
35-39	31,949	32,290	30,231	28,754	28,629	28,299	28,713	27,893	29,299	29,129
40-49	31,215	30,873	28,790	27,464	27,431	27,664	27,565	24,948	25,303	25,454
50-59	10,807	11,097	10,731	10,622	10,585	10,942	10,755	10,397	10,720	10,740
Above 60	3,972	4,163	4,066	4,046	4,043	4,138	4,129	3,985	3,990	4,195

Wives

Year	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	513,130	521,438	502,847	487,850	499,555	497,410	506,674	496,574	515,270	486,058
Under 15	132	135	116	62	27	27	34	26	37	19
15-19	123,741	123,537	123,677	120,584	117,694	109,115	105,467	96,089	92,064	80,592
20-24	247,920	254,092	239,763	231,869	243,966	250,238	268,962	267,714	279,728	263,644
25-29	78,238	80,108	77,831	75,979	78,086	77,795	77,755	76,528	83,836	83,152
30-34	27,749	27,607	27,712	26,673	27,480	27,656	27,432	26,155	28,567	27,181
35-39	14,731	14,821	13,930	13,114	13,297	12,963	12,797	12,395	13,044	13,320
40-49	15,045	15,158	14,086	13,633	13,223	13,557	13,049	11,759	12,017	11,987
50-59	4,587	4,905	4,666	4,860	4,735	4,926	5,087	4,868	4,886	4,999
Above 60	987	1,075	1,066	1,076	1,047	1,138	1,091	1,090	1,091	1,161

PROPORTION PER 1,000 MARRIAGES

Husbands

Year	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0
Under 15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15-19	28.1	26.5	26.5	25.4	23.3	21.3	19.5	17.1	15.0	13.7

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Year	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
20-24	324.9	321.5	313.0	302.2	293.5	285.9	287.0	290.5	283.2	268.6
25-29	363.6	369.5	379.2	393.4	404.8	411.2	413.6	414.3	417.0	422.6
30-34	131.4	132.0	134.4	133.7	137.0	138.7	139.4	142.8	150.3	152.1
35-39	62.3	61.9	60.1	58.9	57.3	56.9	56.7	56.2	56.9	59.9
40-49	60.8	59.2	57.3	56.3	54.9	55.6	54.4	50.2	49.1	52.4
50-59	21.1	21.3	21.4	21.8	21.1	22.0	21.2	20.9	20.8	22.1
Above 60	7.8	8.0	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.0	7.7	8.6

Wives

Year	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0
Under 15	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
15-19	241.1	236.9	246.0	247.2	235.6	219.4	208.2	193.4	178.7	165.8
20-24	488.1	487.3	476.8	475.3	488.4	503.1	521.0	539.1	542.9	542.4
25-29	152.5	153.6	154.8	155.7	156.3	156.4	153.5	154.1	162.7	171.1
30-34	54.1	52.9	55.1	54.7	55.0	55.6	54.1	52.7	55.4	55.9
35-39	28.7	28.4	27.7	26.9	26.6	26.1	25.3	25.0	25.3	27.4
40-49	29.3	29.1	28.0	27.9	26.5	27.3	25.8	28.7	23.3	24.7
50-59	9.0	9.4	9.3	10.0	9.5	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.5	10.3
Above 60	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4

Births and Deaths

The natural increase of population has become greater with the advance of years. For several years since 1910 the natural increase kept to the 700,000 mark. In 1916 and 1917 it decreased a little, and in 1918 it reached the lowest figure of 300,000, largely due to the prevalence of a severe influenza epidemic. In 1919, however, the increase regained, reaching the 500,000 mark, and it continued to increase till the 940,000 mark was attained in 1926. There were ups and downs since, but 1932 was a record year, registering an increase of 1,007,000. It was for the first time that the million mark was attained.

BIRTHS AND STILL-BIRTHS

Year	Total	Births (Infants living) Legitimate		Illegitimate	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1924	1,998,520	944,014	903,109	75,974	75,423
1925	2,086,091	984,854	949,789	75,973	75,475
1926	2,104,405	1,006,671	948,262	75,122	74,349
1927	2,060,737	977,205	939,545	71,741	72,246
1928	2,135,852	1,018,477	974,168	72,225	70,982
1929	2,077,026	989,627	949,351	69,039	69,009
1930	2,085,101	1,001,441	949,438	68,110	66,111
1931	2,102,784	1,006,360	963,502	67,025	65,897
1932	2,182,742	1,050,185	999,016	67,769	65,772
1933	2,121,253	1,022,150	970,041	65,538	63,524

Year	Still Birth Total	Infants (Legitimate)	Infants (Illegitimate)	Percentage males to 100 females Birth	Living Births	Still Births
1924	125,839	92.4	7.6	104.2	94.1	5.9
1925	124,403	92.7	7.3	103.5	94.4	5.6
1926	124,038	92.9	7.1	105.8	94.4	5.6
1927	116,922	93.0	7.0	103.7	94.6	5.4
1928	120,191	93.3	6.7	104.4	94.7	5.3
1929	116,971	93.4	6.6	104.0	94.7	5.3
1930	117,730	93.6	6.4	105.3	94.7	5.3
1931	116,509	93.7	6.3	104.3	94.8	5.2
1932	119,579	93.9	6.1	105.0	94.8	5.2
1933	114,138	93.9	6.1	105.2	94.9	5.1

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DEATHS BY CAUSES 1929-1933

Total	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
	1,261,228	1,170,867	1,240,891	1,175,344	1,193,987
Cause of Death					
Typhoid fever	8,032	8,350	8,176	6,954	7,719
Paratyphoid	353	378	312	372	345
Eruptive typhus	3	1	3	1	1
Malaria	97	60	63	68	74
Smallpox	11	4	8	44	55
Measles	16,070	5,965	13,691	6,220	8,579
Scarlet fever	248	303	327	336	408
Whooping cough	9,822	7,437	8,260	14,657	6,369
Diphtheria	4,712	4,079	4,586	4,522	5,450
Influenza	8,480	5,207	15,673	5,370	4,883
Cholera	114	2	1	1	—
Cholera morbus	167	90	89	75	77
Dysentery	3,166	2,839	2,806	2,863	3,605
Pest	2	0	0	0	0
Cerebrospinal meningitis	209	169	165	165	244
Other epidemics	19,447	18,087	18,480	19,403	19,691
Tuberculosis, lungs	88,440	86,082	89,192	87,427	93,081
Cerebral tuberculosis	6,239	5,847	6,076	5,924	6,575
Tuberculosis, other organs	28,811	27,706	26,607	25,845	26,537
Cancer	42,497	43,536	43,187	43,852	44,919
Mortal swellings	1,237	1,366	1,354	1,406	1,476
Meningitis	54,097	47,532	46,296	43,586	42,707
Cerebral hæmorrhage, apoplexy	108,251	104,735	107,178	107,148	109,443
Diseases of the heart	38,593	37,486	38,080	35,087	36,189
Acute bronchitis	16,604	14,344	15,247	14,209	13,743
Chronic bronchitis	15,271	13,586	15,117	13,419	13,349
Pneumonia and bronchopneumonia	121,181	101,046	129,380	112,681	105,484
Pleurisy	17,189	16,581	17,677	17,560	17,690
Other diseases of the respiratory organs	14,305	13,453	15,018	13,491	14,116
Diseases of the stomach	22,901	22,917	22,554	21,794	22,067
Diarrhœa and enteritis	156,736	142,583	140,062	137,351	142,529
Appendicitis and cæcitis	2,661	2,598	2,530	2,648	2,572
Hernia, intestinal obstruction	4,827	4,830	4,761	4,823	5,175
Hepatitis	4,491	4,652	4,295	4,437	4,694
Nephritis	65,391	63,435	64,241	61,360	61,103
Diseases of the female genitals	1,802	1,747	1,711	1,693	1,554
Puerperal fever	1,765	1,647	1,561	1,654	1,451
Accidents of childbirth	4,102	4,034	4,106	3,876	3,909
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	82,587	75,102	77,609	75,287	74,639
Senility (old age)	79,181	76,591	85,650	77,529	82,982
Violent deaths	26,937	26,587	25,675	27,116	31,270
Suicides	12,740	13,942	14,353	14,746	14,805
Syphilis	6,378	6,016	6,097	5,864	5,835
Beriberi	15,456	15,419	17,767	11,805	13,867
Diabetes mellitus	2,300	2,247	2,209	2,331	2,551
Peritonitis	20,718	20,207	19,484	19,334	19,947
Other diseases	81,099	78,876	75,454	77,994	80,485
Ill-defined diseases and causes	45,508	41,171	44,633	41,016	39,924

Proportion per 1,000 deaths

Total	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0	1,000.0
Cause of Death					
Typhoid fever	6.4	7.1	6.6	5.9	6.5
Paratyphoid	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3
Eruptive typhus	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Malaria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

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Cause of Death	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Smallpox	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Measles	12.7	5.1	11.0	5.3	7.2
Scarlet fever	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Whooping cough	7.8	6.4	6.7	12.5	5.3
Diphtheria	3.7	3.5	3.7	3.8	4.6
Influenza	6.7	4.4	12.6	4.6	4.0
Cholera	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cholera morbus	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Dysentery	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4	3.0
Pest	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cerebrospinal meningitis	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Other epidemics	15.4	15.5	14.9	16.6	16.5
Tuberculosis, lungs	70.1	73.5	71.9	74.4	77.9
Cerebral tuberculosis	4.0	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.5
Tuberculosis, other organs	22.8	23.7	21.4	22.0	22.2
Cancer	33.7	37.2	34.8	37.3	37.6
Mortal swellings	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
Meningitis	42.9	40.6	37.3	37.1	35.8
Cerebral hæmorrhage, apoplexy	85.8	89.5	86.4	91.2	91.7
Diseases of the heart	30.6	32.0	30.7	29.9	30.3
Acute bronchitis	13.2	12.3	12.3	12.1	11.5
Chronic bronchitis	12.1	11.6	12.2	11.4	11.2
Pneumonia and bronchopneumonia	96.1	86.3	104.3	95.9	88.3
Pleurisy	13.6	14.2	14.2	14.9	14.8
Other diseases of the respiratory organs	11.4	11.5	12.1	11.5	11.8
Diseases of the stomach	18.2	19.6	18.2	18.5	18.5
Diarrhœa and enteritis	124.3	121.8	112.9	116.9	119.4
Appendicitis and cæcitis	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.2
Hernia, intestinal obstruction	3.8	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.3
Hepatitis	3.6	4.0	3.5	3.8	3.9
Nephritis	51.8	54.2	51.8	52.2	51.2
Diseases of the female genitals	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3
Puerperal fever	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.2
Accidents of childbirth	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3
Diseases peculiar to early infancy	65.5	64.1	62.6	64.1	62.5
Senility (old age)	62.8	65.4	69.0	66.0	69.5
Violent deaths	21.4	22.7	20.7	23.1	26.2
Suicides	10.1	11.9	11.6	12.5	12.4
Syphilis	5.1	5.1	4.9	5.0	4.9
Beriberi	12.3	13.2	14.3	10.0	11.6
Diabetes mellitus	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.1
Peritonitis	16.4	17.3	15.7	16.4	16.7
Other diseases	64.3	67.3	63.2	66.4	67.5
Illdefined diseases and causes	36.1	35.2	36.0	34.9	33.4

DEATHS CLASSIFIED BY AGE AND CAUSES 1933

Age	Total	Typhoid fever	Measles	Whooping cough	Diphtheria	Influenza	Dysentery
Total	1,193,987	7,652	8,442	6,157	5,437	4,765	14,880
Total	405,781	94	7,979	6,002	3,860	2,067	10,660
0	257,251	7	3,083	3,442	339	1,386	175
1	72,428	17	3,185	1,595	1,062	336	1,083
2	36,652	19	1,010	567	998	166	3,530
3	23,508	28	426	267	812	106	3,474
4	15,942	23	275	131	649	73	2,398
5— 9	33,119	287	405	150	1,350	193	2,649
10—14	22,585	601	27	4	157	96	200
15—19	50,824	1,195	9	1	27	132	119

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Age	Total	Typhoid fever	Measles	Whooping cough	Diphtheria	Influenza	Dysentery
20—24	57,123	1,122	6	0	13	132	124
25—29	41,806	957	4	0	4	118	73
30—34	35,542	793	2	0	8	132	87
35—39	32,720	618	2	0	2	133	54
40—44	32,657	485	2	0	2	108	70
45—49	36,716	411	1	0	3	129	68
50—54	47,654	379	1	0	7	133	81
55—59	58,166	276	2	0	1	173	117
60—69	129,047	325	1	0	3	467	261
70—79	135,632	96	1	0	3	507	242
80—89	64,628	13	0	0	1	234	73
90 and above	5,244	0	0	0	0	11	2
Ill-defined	62	0	0	0	0	0	0

Age	Tuberculosis, lungs	Tuberculosis, other organs	Syphilis	Purulent infectious septicemia	Cancer and other ingligant tumours	Meningitis	Cerebral hoemorrhage, embolism and thrombosis	Chronic endocarditis, valvular disease	Arteriosclerosis and gangrene	Bronchitis
Total	93,640	33,063	5,835	8,993	46,879	42,546	110,719	23,123	4,842	25,397
Total	1,698	3,057	3,482	3,224	158	27,892	208	511	171	11,215
0	461	527	3,297	2,054	46	12,622	64	182	64	8,561
1	576	742	128	532	35	5,868	53	142	30	1,618
2	301	626	25	244	28	4,292	44	92	36	579
3	183	571	16	204	33	2,994	22	77	27	303
4	177	591	16	190	16	2,116	25	68	14	154
5— 9	1,104	2,452	28	751	44	3,979	82	503	36	316
10—14	3,897	2,935	31	593	54	1,928	84	759	12	259
15—19	17,782	6,582	40	413	112	1,967	143	1,042	6	712
20—24	20,699	6,344	89	434	197	1,567	262	965	18	736
25—29	14,157	3,576	124	407	427	958	368	858	11	543
30—34	9,141	2,276	252	433	919	787	787	966	17	405
35—39	6,140	1,449	333	428	1,749	618	1,603	1,076	26	327
40—44	4,620	1,049	312	393	2,748	500	2,941	1,297	52	343
45—49	3,905	866	304	344	4,113	472	5,188	1,442	105	533
50—54	3,515	793	245	371	6,128	474	8,914	2,007	203	809
55—59	2,943	669	250	351	7,711	469	12,897	2,407	349	1,177
60—69	3,230	724	255	542	14,493	647	35,397	4,739	1,316	3,387
70—79	780	252	84	255	6,890	297	31,909	3,637	1,618	3,382
80—89	67	38	6	50	1,111	47	9,544	902	848	1,280
90 and above	3	1	0	4	18	2	887	29	54	73
Ill-defined	4	0	0	0	2	1	5	1	0	0

Age	Pneumonia (all forms)	Pleurisy	Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	Diarrhœa and enteritis	Hernia, Intestinal obstruction	Nephritis	Puerperal sepris and toxœmias of pregnancy
Total	106,247	17,577	10,524	180,751	5,392	59,986	3,160
Total	69,154	2,661	172	95,439	1,440	6,605	0
0	42,925	1,012	35	50,704	960	2,257	0
1	15,844	1,051	38	29,210	198	1,139	0
2	5,871	304	36	7,924	126	1,213	0
3	2,801	174	38	4,829	85	1,137	0
4	1,715	120	25	2,772	71	859	0

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Age	Pneumonia (all forms)	Pleurisy	Ulcer of the stomach or duodenum	Diarrhœa and enteritis	Hernia, Intestinal obstruction	Nephritis	Puerperal sepris and toxœmias of pregnancy
5— 9	3 260	524	63	3,272	193	2,247	0
10—14	1,458	873	49	954	142	1,186	0
15—19	2,253	2,741	180	1,333	187	1,328	209
20—24	2,528	2,857	261	1,460	228	1,564	767
25—29	2,195	1,609	282	1,182	242	1,501	662
30—34	2,194	1,048	398	1,066	231	1,675	633
35—39	1,814	749	534	1,036	246	1,920	578
40—44	1,756	640	728	986	241	2,093	284
45—49	1,767	616	985	1,338	302	2,435	26
50—54	2,210	717	1,343	1,930	314	3,400	3
55—59	2,809	687	1,457	2,905	367	4,525	2
60—69	6,296	1,133	2,489	6,551	736	12,055	0
70—79	4,925	587	1,329	7,676	425	12,481	0
80—89	1,542	131	246	3,400	97	4,697	0
90 and above	88	4	7	220	1	273	0
Ill-defined	1	0	1	3	0	1	0

Age	Congluital debility (under 1 year)	Senility	Accidental deaths	Suicides	Beriberi	Others
Total	67,498	83,197	29,871	14,805	13,828	208,781
Total	67,498	0	7,645	0	8,074	64,813
0	67,498	0	1,436	0	7,733	46,431
1	0	0	2,146	0	284	5,516
2	0	0	1,984	0	34	6,603
3	0	0	1,146	0	11	3,744
4	0	0	933	0	12	2,519
5— 9	0	0	2,771	1	41	6,418
10—14	0	0	1,212	88	265	4,721
15—19	0	0	2,003	1,821	1,262	7,283
20—24	0	0	2,441	2,714	1,106	8,489
25—29	0	0	1,863	1,586	715	7,434
30—34	0	0	1,793	1,022	512	8,015
35—39	0	0	1,547	830	397	8,511
40—44	0	0	1,333	765	292	8,635
45—49	0	0	1,212	831	240	9,075
50—54	0	0	1,248	961	235	11,233
55—59	0	0	1,100	986	232	13,299
60—69	0	9,128	1,777	1,689	300	25,780
70—79	0	36,761	1,384	1,162	152	18,876
80—89	0	33,632	496	360	25	5,888
90 and above	0	3,675	33	22	0	342
Ill-defined	0	1	13	17	0	19

Birth and death rates in Japan proper are shown below:

PROPORTION PER 1,000 POPULATION

Year	Birth	Still-Birth	Death	Excess of Birth
1924	33.79	2.13	21.22	12.57
1925	34.92	2.08	20.27	14.65
1926	34.77	2.05	19.18	15.59
1927	33.61	1.91	19.81	13.81
1928	34.38	1.93	19.91	14.47
1929	33.00	1.86	20.04	12.96
1930	32.35	1.83	18.17	14.19
1931	32.17	1.78	18.98	13.19
1932	32.92	1.80	17.73	15.19
1933	31.55	1.70	17.76	13.79

Expectation of Life

The following table gives average expectation of life of Japanese people for both sexes calculated at the Bureau of Statistics in the Cabinet based on the vital statistics for a period from 1921 to 1925. The average expectation of life may also be called the average span of life. It means the average length of years during which persons of various age

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is expected to survive. Of course, the length of life of any individual person, or state of his health in the future may not be predicted by the following table alone, but it may serve to give the general idea for the study of the problem :

Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females	Age	Males	Females
Under 1 year	42.06	43.20	1 year	49.14	49.42	2 years	50.62	50.86
3 years	50.96	51.22	4 years	50.81	51.12	5 ,,	50.35	50.71
6 ,,	49.70	50.10	7 ,,	48.96	49.39	8 ,,	48.19	48.63
9 ,,	47.37	47.83	10 ,,	46.53	47.00	11 ,,	45.68	46.18
12 ,,	44.82	45.36	13 ,,	43.96	44.55	14 ,,	43.12	43.80
15 ,,	42.31	43.12	16 ,,	41.56	42.51	17 ,,	40.88	41.94
18 ,,	40.25	41.41	19 ,,	39.67	40.89	20 ,,	39.10	40.38
21 ,,	38.52	39.87	22 ,,	37.92	39.35	23 ,,	37.32	38.83
24 ,,	36.70	38.28	25 ,,	36.06	37.72	26 ,,	35.40	37.14
27 ,,	34.72	36.55	28 ,,	34.03	35.94	29 ,,	33.31	35.32
30 ,,	32.59	34.69	31 ,,	31.85	34.06	32 ,,	31.12	33.41
33 ,,	30.37	32.76	34 ,,	29.62	32.10	35 ,,	28.87	31.44
36 ,,	28.12	30.77	37 ,,	27.37	30.11	38 ,,	26.62	29.44
39 ,,	25.87	28.77	40 ,,	25.13	28.09	41 ,,	24.39	27.41
42 ,,	23.66	26.71	43 ,,	22.93	26.01	44 ,,	22.21	25.30
45 ,,	21.49	24.58	46 ,,	20.78	23.85	47 ,,	20.08	23.13
48 ,,	19.38	22.40	49 ,,	18.70	21.67	50 ,,	18.02	20.95
51 ,,	17.35	20.24	52 ,,	16.69	19.53	53 ,,	16.04	18.82
54 ,,	15.40	18.12	55 ,,	14.77	17.43	56 ,,	14.16	16.74
57 ,,	13.56	16.07	58 ,,	12.98	15.41	59 ,,	12.41	14.76
60 ,,	11.87	14.12	61 ,,	11.33	13.49	62 ,,	10.80	12.87
63 ,,	10.29	12.26	64 ,,	9.79	11.67	65 ,,	9.31	11.10
66 ,,	8.84	10.54	67 ,,	8.38	9.99	68 ,,	7.94	9.46
69 ,,	7.52	8.94	70 ,,	7.11	8.44	71 ,,	6.72	7.96
72 ,,	6.35	7.50	73 ,,	5.99	7.05	74 ,,	5.64	6.62
75 ,,	5.31	6.21	76 ,,	4.99	5.82	77 ,,	4.69	5.44
78 ,,	4.40	5.08	79 ,,	4.13	4.74	80 ,,	3.87	4.41
81 ,,	3.62	4.11	82 ,,	3.39	3.82	83 ,,	3.17	3.54
84 ,,	2.96	3.28	85 ,,	2.77	3.04	86 ,,	2.58	2.81
87 ,,	2.41	2.60	88 ,,	2.24	2.40	89 ,,	2.09	2.21
90 ,,	1.95	2.04	91 ,,	1.81	1.88	92 ,,	1.69	1.73
93 ,,	1.57	1.59	94 ,,	1.46	1.47	95 ,,	1.37	1.36
96 ,,	1.27	1.25	97 ,,	1.18	1.15	98 ,,	1.09	1.09
99 ,,	0.99	0.98	100 ,,	0.83	0.89	101 ,,	—	0.77

In the following table is given the comparison of figures in the above table; (−) indicates the decrease over the corresponding figures for the period from 1908 to 1913.

Age	Males	Females
Under one year	(−) 2.19	(−) 1.53
Five years	(−) 2.22	(−) 1.45
Ten years	(−) 2.29	(−) 1.51
Twenty years	(−) 1.96	(−) 1.29
Thirty years	(−) 1.72	(−) 1.08
Forty years	(−) 1.69	(−) 0.94
Fifty years	(−) 1.59	(−) 0.89
Sixty years	(−) 1.41	(−) 0.87
Seventy years	(−) 1.15	(−) 0.84

The expectation of life has, on the whole, declined.

Average Age of Death In the following table are given the average age of males and females who have died since 1886 :

Year	Males	Females
1886	38.13	38.91
1902	32.65	33.70
1912	31.60	32.17
1922	31.71	32.10
1923	31.43	31.68
1924	32.22	32.65
1925	32.15	32.29
1926	32.24	32.55
1927	32.30	32.91
1928	32.83	33.06
1929	32.57	33.27
1930	33.80	34.46
1931	33.74	34.50
1932	33.56	34.34

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Urbanization

As in other countries where industry is of importance, Japan has experienced a shift of population from the countryside to the towns and cities. Concurrently, communities have amalgamated to form larger units. The following tables show the trend toward larger urban centres; the first, the increase in the number of communities of large population, and the second, the increase in the proportion of the population residing in these larger communities. For 1920, 1925 and 1930, the figures are based on the national censuses of these years, but the earlier figures depend on less comprehensive statistics compiled by local authorities.

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES CLASSIFIED

According to Population

	1930	1925	1920	1913	1908	1903	1898
Total Number	11,865	12,019	12,244	12,356	12,457	13,328	14,027
Population up to 499	70	82	126	163	228	461	646
500—999	258	264	304	306	360	512	738
1,000—1,999	2,092	2,275	2,354	1,982	2,190	2,667	3,311
2,000—4,999	6,886	7,054	7,264	7,584	7,652	8,055	8,018
5,000—9,999	1,878	1,735	1,639	1,852	1,654	1,343	1,081
10,000—19,999	426	392	374	335	268	185	152
20,000—29,999	93	78	76	55	35	25	33
30,000—39,999	38	36	40	25	26	33	25
40,000—49,999	27	31	20	17	15	7	3
50,000—99,999	65	51	31	26	19	16	12
Above 100,000	32	21	16	11	10	9	8

DISTRIBUTION PER 1,000 OF POPULATION IN CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES[1]

Size of Communities	Oct. 1, 1930	Oct. 1, 1925	Oct. 1, 1920	End of 1913	End of 1908	End of 1903	End of 1898
up to 499	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	2.3	3.5
500—999	3.2	3.6	4.3	4.3	5.3	8.1	12.4
1,000—1,999	51.8	60.8	67.3	57.6	67.6	87.3	115.2
2,000—4,999	343.2	377.2	412.2	441.6	469.2	518.1	540.5
5,000—9,999	193.5	192.2	193.4	219.6	207.5	177.2	151.3
10,000—19,999	88.7	87.5	90.7	81.6	69.3	51.7	44.1
20,000—29,999	34.2	30.3	32.3	23.6	16.3	12.4	17.5
30,000—39,999	20.1	20.9	25.1	16.1	17.8	23.3	18.7
40,000—49,999	18.5	23.1	15.9	13.5	12.8	6.3	2.8
50,001—99,999	68.3	57.7	37.6	33.6	26.1	22.2	17.0
Above 100,000	178.2	146.3	120.7	107.7	107.0	92.1	77.0

1. For administrative purposes, all of Japan proper is divided into cities, towns and villages, persons residing in what would be known as rural districts in other countries belonging, as the case may be, to the nearest cities, towns and villages.

In September, 1934, there were 125 cities in Japan proper, which meaning an increase of 4 every year since the 1930 census. According to the estimate on October 1, 1933, the number of major cities which have more than 100,000 population was 34, including 4 cities which have more than 1,000,000, Tokyo leading others with 5,663,350. The total urban population comprises 21,568,000 or 31.6 per cent. of the population of Japan proper. The rapid growth of cities may be proved from the fact that the rate of increase of population in cities is much higher than that of Japan proper, as is shown below:

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	Population		Quinquennial Increase		Rate of Increase	
	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities	Japan proper	Cities
1920	55,963,053	13,909,805	—	—	—	—
1925	59,739,822	16,606,809	3,773,769	2,697,504	6.7	19.39
1930	64,450,005	19,489,405	4,713,183	2,882,596	7.9	17.06
1933	67,238,600	21,568,000	2,788,595	2,128,600	—	—

If the rate of increase for 3 years between 1930 and 1933 keeps up for coming two years, the quinquennial increase of population in 1935 will be 4,647,658 for Japan proper and 3,546,666 for cities, the rate of increase 7.6 per cent. and 18.2 per cent. respectively.

NUMBER OF CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN JAPAN PROPER
(1889—1933)

	Cities	Towns	Villages
1889	39	715	12,632
1898	52	1,169	13,557
1906	66	1,164	11,283
1913	69	1,246	11,038
1920	83	1,366	10,782
1925	100	1,510	10,451
1930	109	1,625	10,180
1933	125	1,670	9,784

A village is an administrative unit consisted of several villages.

CITIES IN JAPAN PROPER
(October, 1934)

		Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1934 (Estimate)
1.	Tōkyō	2,070,913	5,663,350
2.	Osaka	2,453,573	2,722,700
3.	Kyōto	765,142	1,052,500
4.	Nagoya	907,404	1,017,700
5.	Kōbé	787,616	853,800
6.	Yokohama	620,806	703,900
7.	Hiroshima	270,411	295,700
8.	Fukuoka	223,289	282,800
9.	Hakodaté	197,252	223,700
10.	Nagasaki	204,626	217,000
11.	Sendai	190,180	216,900
12.	Kuré	190,282	207,100
13.	Yawata	168,217	200,500
14.	Sapporo	168,576	193,600
15.	Kumamoto	164,460	186,000
16.	Wakayama	117,444	171,400
17.	Kanazawa	157,311	165,200
18.	Okayama	139,222	160,600
19.	Yokosuka	110,301	160,100
20.	Shizuoka	136,481	155,800
21.	Toyohashi	98,555	154,800
22.	Otaru	144,887	153,200
23.	Sasebo	133,174	147,900
24.	Kagoshima	137,236	147,200
25.	Kawasaki	104,351	139,200
26.	Niigata	125,108	138,000
27.	Sakai	120,348	129,200
28.	Shimonoseki	96,543	126,400
29.	Hamamatsu	109,478	123,200
30.	Gifu	90,112	116,700
31.	Moji	108,130	115,300
32.	Takamatsu	79,906	107,100
33.	Ōmuta	97,298	105,000
34.	Kokura	88,049	101,000
35.	Tokushima	90,634	95,500
36.	Maebashi	84,925	93,900
37.	Kurumé	83,009	91,600
38.	Aomori	77,103	90,700
39.	Asahigawa	43,898	90,600
40.	Matsuyama	82,477	88,500
41.	Kōfu	79,447	88,300
42.	Takamatsu	79,906	86,300
43.	Utsunomiya	81,388	85,600
44.	Nishinomiya	39,360	82,700
45.	Nagano	73,912	79,800
46.	Matsumoto	72,141	79,100
47.	Toyama	51,760	78,100
48.	Himeji	62,171	77,000
49.	Ubé	61,172	76,000
50.	Yamagata	68,423	72,200
51.	Wakamatsu (Fukuoka prefecture)	57,320	71,700
52.	Fukui	64,199	71,400
53.	Okazaki	65,507	70,700
54.	Morioka	62,249	69,200
55.	Miyazaki	54,600	68,600
56.	Kiryu	52,906	67,000
57.	Ōtsu	34,379	66,600
58.	Mito	50,648	66,100
59.	Tsu	56,089	65,600
60.	Naha	60,585	65,200
61.	Takasaki	59,928	63,700
62.	Shimizu	55,665	63,100
63.	Tobata	51,674	62,700
64.	Nagaoka	57,866	61,600
65.	Muroran	55,855	60,500
66.	Ōita	57,294	60,400
67.	Akita	51,070	60,400
68.	Kushiro	51,586	58,900
69.	Fukuyama	38,214	58,300
70.	Hachinohé	52,907	58,000
71.	Kōriyama	51,367	58,000

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		Population in 1930 (Census)	Population in 1934 (Estimate)
72.	Hachiōji	51,888	57,100
73.	Takaoka	51,760	57,000
74.	Ujiyamada	51,080	56,100
75.	Nara	52,784	55,900
76.	Yokkaichi	51,819	55,400
77.	Chiba	49,088	54,900
78.	Amagasaki	50,064	54,700
79.	Imabari	43,735	52,700
80.	Saga	46,183	49,400
81.	Fukushima	45,692	49,100
82.	Uwajima	44,276	48,800
83.	Numazu	44,027	48,800
84.	Ichinomiya	42,229	48,200
85.	Ashikaga	43,898	47,500
86.	Beppu	43,074	47,500
87.	Kawaguchi	41,324	47,200
88.	Matsué	44,502	47,000
89.	Choshi	42,698	45,900
90.	Iizuka	40,009	45,800
91.	Hirosaki	43,337	45,600
92.	Wakamatsu (Fukushima prefecture)	43,731	45,100
93.	Yonezawa	44,731	44,800
94.	Urawa	36,832	44,700
95.	Tottori	37,189	43,800
96.	Seto	37,309	42,100
97.	Ōgaki	38,508	40,800
98.	Akashi	38,958	40,300
99.	Miyakonojō	35,512	39,600
100.	Kumagaya	35,918	38,400
101.	Kishiwada	35,102	37,500
102.	Ueda	35,138	37,200
103.	Nōgata	40,072	35,800
104.	Yonago	33,632	36,500
105.	Tsuruoka	34,316	36,300
106.	Tsuyama	34,159	36,200
107.	Kawagoé	34,205	36,000
108.	Nobeoka	30,897	35,900
109.	Hiratsuka	33,498	34,900
110.	Matsuzaka	33,251	34,900
111.	Ishinomaki	30,743	34,800
112.	Obihiro	28,185	34,400
113.	Yamaguchi	32,385	33,500
114.	Sanjō	31,256	33,400
115.	Sakata	30,280	32,200
116.	Kurashiki	30,112	31,900
117.	Kainan	28,686	31,300
118.	Hagi	32,106	31,200
119.	Takada	30,934	31,000
120.	Onomichi	29,084	30,200
121.	Karatsu	29,149	30,100
122.	Nakatsu	28,563	29,800
123.	Shingū	28,967	29,600
124.	Marugamé	28,837	29,500
125.	Shuri	20,119	19,800
	CITIES IN TERRITORIES		
	CHOSEN		
126.	Keijō (Seoul)	394,240	438,700
127.	Fusan	146,098	180,100
128.	Heijō	140,703	—
129.	Taikyū	93,319	107,800
130.	Jinsen (Chemulpo)	68,137	78,300
131.	Kaijō	49,520	—
132.	Shingishū	48,047	—
133.	Kankyō	43,851	—
134.	Genzan	42,760	48,200
135.	Chinnampo	38,296	47,800
136.	Seishin	35,925	49,600
137.	Moppo	34,689	41,500
138.	Masan	27,885	32,200
139.	Kunsan	26,821	30,400
	TAIWAN		
140.	Taihoku	230,490	256,300
141.	Tainan	94,546	101,700
142.	Kiirun	75,070	84,600
143.	Takao	62,722	76,600
144.	Kagi	57,880	67,500
145.	Taichū	54,188	63,800
146.	Shinchiku	45,014	50,600
147.	Heitō	34,909	40,900
148.	Shoka	43,530	48,200
	KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY		
149.	Dairen	292,552	307,871 (Dec., 1933
150.	Port Arthur	33,933	29,737
	KARAFUTO		
151.	Odomari	33,312	46,200
152.	Toyohara	31,648	47,800

Foreign Residents

The number of foreign residents in Japan proper, for the past five years has been as follows:

Year	Diplomatic and consular corps	Total	Males	Females
1929	370	38,829	27,972	10,857
1930	361	40,290	28,612	11,678
1931	390	28,317	19,655	8,662
1932	371	26,885	18,615	8,270
1933	374	29,268	19,764	9,504

Information given with the 1933 figures shows 10,136 foreigners engaged in commerce; 2,453 in professional work; 1,514 studying; 1,557

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in mining and manufacturing; 149 in transportation; 3 in agriculture and forestry; 1 in fisheries; 566 in various other occupations, and 12,889 without occupations.

The following table classifies the foreign residents according to countries of origin:

FOREIGN RESIDENTS (December 31, 1933)

Countries of Origin	Diplomatic and consular corps	Total	Men	Women
Total	374	29,268	19,764	9,504
China	46	19,932	14,793	5,139
Manchoukuo	9	128	103	25
Siam	5	28	22	6
Straits Settlements	0	8	6	2
Philippines	0	86	70	16
Iraq	0	11	8	3
Georgia	0	1	0	1
India	0	317	227	90
Afghanistan	0	0	0	0
Armenia	0	27	14	13
Persia	2	9	7	2
Turkey	4	23	14	9
Syria	0	4	3	1
Russia	17	1,479	776	703
Poland	6	46	32	14
Latvia	2	9	6	3
Lithuania	0	9	6	3
Estonia	0	11	7	4
Finland	4	16	8	8
Sweden	8	79	46	33
Norway	6	15	9	6
Denmark	7	82	45	37
Great Britain	44	1,044	971	993
Holland	15	139	86	53
Belgium	8	39	22	17
Luxemburg	1	21	10	11
France	21	491	262	229
Spain	4	101	42	59
Portugal	8	158	81	77
Italy	10	132	72	60
Switzerland	1	203	116	87
Germany	16	1,118	637	481
Austria	2	41	25	16
Hungary	0	19	12	7
Serbia	0	2	1	1
Czechoslovakia	5	33	18	15
Rumania	3	5	3	2
Yugoslavia	2	9	6	3
Malta	0	2	1	1
Greece	3	4	3	1
Egypt	1	12	7	5
Abyssinia	1	0	0	0
Bolivia	3	0	0	0
Canada	7	304	139	165
U. S. A.	51	2,039	974	1,065

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Countries of Origin	Diplomatic and consular corps	Total	Men	Women
Mexico	4	19	10	9
Honduras	3	1	1	0
Haiti	1	0	0	0
Panama	1	2	1	1
Dominica	1	0	0	0
Venezuela	4	2	1	1
Salvador	1	0	0	0
Guatemala	3	4	1	3
Cuba	2	3	2	1
Brazil	7	11	8	3
Colombia	1	1	1	0
Argentina	5	6	3	3
Peru	5	18	11	7
Chile	3	6	3	3
Uruguay	4	4	3	1
Paraguay	3	0	0	0
Australia	0	45	20	25
Hawaii	0	6	5	1
New Zealand	0	2	2	0

Emigration

History Though there are records of Japanese having gone abroad for trade and residence in the latter years of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th century, the rigid laws against leaving the country during the period of seclusion, from 1636 to 1858, reserved the problem of emigration for modern times. As a result of negotiations between the Japanese Government and the Hawaiian Consul in Yokohama, 153 emigrants went to Hawaii in 1868 to work on sugar plantations. The venture was a failure, however, and not until 1885, after the visit of King Kalakaua of Hawaii to Japan in 1881 and the conclusion of treaties regarding travel, emigration of labourers and navigation, was there further emigration to the islands. In this year, 951 went. Their success encouraged an increase in the ensuing period, and by 1894 approximately 30,000 Japanese had gone.

Because of the rapid development of the emigration business, the Government now turned it over to private companies, which soon became numerous. Regulations to safeguard the interests of the emigrants were enacted in 1896. The companies sent 10,000 to Hawaii and about 1,000 each to Australia and Canada in 1897 and 23,000 to Hawaii, 3,000 to the United States, 1,700 to Canada, 790 to Peru and about 2,500 to other countries in the following year. But the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands by the United States in 1898 and establishment of the Territorial Government in 1900, brought application of the American law against the entry of contract labourers, which dealt a great blow to the companies.

By 1904, the movement of Japanese from Hawaii to the mainland of the United States had assumed sizable proportions, as had emigration to that country directly from Japan. In the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement, signed in 1908, Japan agreed to restrict the issue of passports to nationals wishing to enter the United States. The United States Supreme Court decided in

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1922 that Japanese are ineligible for citizenship, and two years later the Quota Immigration Act was passed, containing a clause denying the right of entry into the United States for permanent residence of any person not eligible for citizenship. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada also provided, by various methods, for exclusion of Japanese.

These obstacles to entry into the Anglo-Saxon countries had two results, first, an abrupt decrease for a few years in the number of emigrants and, second, the discovery of new outlets. Several South American lands, notably Brazil, offered inducements. The Government adopted a positive polity of sending emigrants to quarters where they were not unwelcome, and in 1921 a subsidy was given to the Overseas Enterprise Company (Kaigai Kogyo Kaisha) to arouse interest in emigration. Encouraged by this change in policy, emigration associations sprang up one after another in the prefectures, and plans were made to purchase tracts of land in Brazil for colonization. To such land, the Shinano Emigration Association (Nagano prefecture) sent 450 emigrants in 1925.

Enactment of the Emigration Association Law in 1927 resulted in an increase of "independent" emigrants, quite different from the labour-contract emigrants which had constituted the bulk in earlier years. Prefectural emigration associations set up under the provisions of this law organized a federation which co-ordinated the buying of Brazilian land. A home for emigrants was opened in Kobé, the main port of embarkation. Companies specializing in South American colonization came into being. Part of the reason for establishing the Ministry of Overseas Affairs in the Government in 1929 was to provide an agency for administration and control of matters pertaining to emigration and colonization.

Movement The following table shows the movement of Japanese travellers and emigrants during the past 10 years:

NUMBER OF PASSPORTS ISSUED

Year	Total	To men	To women
1924	27,032	17,837	9,195
1925	22,176	15,628	6,548
1926	28,619	20,017	8,602
1927	31,177	21,364	9,813
1928	34,008	23,191	10,817
1929	37,900	25,589	12,301
1930	38,383	26,589	11,794
1931	27,144	19,803	7,341
1932	30,757	19,941	10,816
1933	42,451	27,163	15,288

EMIGRANTS

Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan
1924	13,098	12,579
1925	10,696	13,918
1926	16,184	14,549
1927	18,041	14,735
1928	19,350	15,004
1929	25,704	14,073
1930	31,829	14,546
1931	10,884	12,965
1932	19,033	13,170
1933	27,317	14,141

The destinations of those leaving Japan in recent years have been:

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Brazil	2,077	4,435	2,685	5,565	15,092	23,299
Philippines	12,002	15,597	13,741	1,109	747	941
Peru	1,410	1,585	831	299	369	481
Canada	1,050	430	187	106	98	91
U. S. S. R.	870	868	1,513	1,238	1,096	1,095
U. S. A.	306	236	0	0	0	0
Hawaii	265	119	0	0	0	0
Straits Settlements	420	513	835	549	356	322
Mexico	353	249	434	283	149	85

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	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Argentina	387	430	489	362	239	135
Dutch E. Indies	191	507	558	447	533	468
Australia	270	277	75	34	92	59
Others	249	338	531	392	262	341
Total	19,850	25,704	21,829	10,384	19,033	27,317

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRATED JAPANESE

1904-1931

Country	1904 Number	1904 Percentage of total	1914 Number	1914 Percentage of total	1920 Number	1920 Percentage of total
Continental U. S.	48,354	34.9	80,723	22.5	125,476	23.2
Hawaii	65,008	46.9	90,808	25.3	108,109	20.0
Philippines (including Guam)	2,652	1.9	5,298	1.5	9,337	1.7
Canada	3,838	2.8	11,959	3.3	17,668	3.3
Brazil	5	0	15,462	4.3	33,456	6.2
Peru	1,486	1.1	5,381	1.5	5,910	1.1
Manchuria (including Kwantung Leased Territory)	1,151	0.8	100,294	28.0	150,465	27.8
China (including Hong-Kong)	7,399	5.3	21,662	6.0	54,544	10.0
South Sea Mandated Islands	0	0	0	0	2,303	0.4
Others	8,698	6.3	27,124	7.6	34,516	6.3
Total	138,591	100.0	358,711	100.0	541,784	100.0

Country	1926 Number	1926 Percentage of total	1929 Number	1929 Percentage of total	1931 Number	1931 Percentage of total
Continental U. S.	133,605	20.8	140,945	17.7	103,996	13.3
Hawaii	127,951	20.0	134,042	16.9	144,295	19.3
Philippines (including Guam)	10,124	1.6	51,772	6.5	19,695	2.5
Canada	19,885	3.1	22,664	2.9	20,156	2.6
Brazil	55,481	8.8	103,166	13.0	119,740	15.3
Peru	11,787	1.8	18,041	2.3	20,650	2.6
Manchuria (Including Kwantung Leased Territory)	191,656	29.9	215,009	27.0	232,753	29.7
China (including Hong-Kong)	48,961	7.6	55,708	7.0	55,433	7.1
South Sea Mandated Islands	7,718	1.2	16,021	2.0	22,663	2.9
Others	32,931	5.2	37,650	4.7	38,517	4.9
Total	640,099	100.0	795,018	100.0	777,908	100.0

JAPANESE RESIDING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

	Total	Males	Females		Total	Males	Females
1926	640,099	367,589	272,510	1930	755,209	431,538	323,671
1927	674,522	387,250	287,272	1931	635,227	361,450	273,777
1928	717,529	409,933	307,596	1932	672,266	385,315	286,951
1929	759,439	429,818	329,621	1933	749,158	—	—

Note: Before 1930 the Kwantung Provinces and the Railway Zone of the S.M.R. Co. are included.

According to the census taken on Oct. 1, 1932

	Total	Males	Females		Total	Males	Females
Asia	228,208	129,065	99,143	Far Eastern Russia	2,201	2,000	201
China	58,374	29,037	29,337	Hong-Kong	1,471	824	648
Philippines and Guam	20,316	14,740	5,576	British India and Ceylon	1,443	828	615
Manchuria	135,507	72,891	62,616	Borneo and Sarawak	582	402	180
Straits Settlements				Siam	290	191	99
Malay	5,864	4,561	2,415	French Indo-China	265	127	138
Dutch East Indies	6,874	3,449	2,313	Persia	20	15	5

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	Total	Males	Females
Europe	3,778	2,811	967
England	1,565	1,040	525
France	818	660	158
Germany	819	736	83
Netherlands	36	23	13
Switzerland	139	104	35
Belgium	64	37	27
U. S. S. R.	61	42	19
Italy	82	50	32
Austria	34	24	10
Turkey	29	22	7
Spain	31	15	16
Sweden	14	10	4
Greece	10	5	5
Czechoslovakia	22	13	9
Poland	20	9	11
Hungary	2	2	—
Rumania	10	5	5
Finland	3	1	2
Portugal	6	4	2
Latvia	14	10	4
North America	129,429	77,510	51,919
United States	102,895	61,481	41,414
Canada	19,626	11,514	8,112
Mexico	5,824	3,700	2,124
Cuba	754	562	192
Panama	330	253	77
South America	160,387	95,039	65,348
Brazil	132,699	76,801	55,898
Peru	21,141	13,381	7,760
Argentina	5,124	3,884	1,240
Chile	625	411	214
Bolivia	599	421	178
Uruguay	36	27	9
Paraguay	10	7	3
Colombia	141	95	46
Venezuela	12	12	0
Africa	152	101	51
Egypt	56	36	20
South Africa	26	17	9
East Africa	63	42	21
Algeria	7	6	1
Oceania	150,312	80,789	69,523
Hawaii	146,764	77,734	69,030
Australia and New Zealand	3,548	3,055	493
Others	38,959	20,211	18,384

The Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, the South Sea Mandated Islands, Manchoutikuo, and China are in a special category as regards Japanese colonization, and details of the Japanese residing in these regions will be found in other chapters. The following paragraphs, however, summarize the status of the settlers in the principal lands open to Japanese, other than those above mentioned:

Brazil The Japanese first went to Brazil in 1908, but only in the past decade has the number leaving annually for this destination been of any volume. Of the 157,476 settlers registered at the end of October, 1933, over 150,000 were in the State of Sao Paulo, the majority working on coffee plantations. They are expected eventually to establish themselves as independent farmers. Those who left Japan with adequate capital and superior agricultural skill already own extensive tracts of land. The growing of potatoes around Sao Paulo City by Japanese is particularly notable.

Argentina Though the Japanese first went to Argentina in 1907, only a few have followed. Of the 5,334 residing there in 1933, over 2,000 were in Buenos Aires, the capital, where they are engaged mainly in industry and business. Those on farms cultivate cotton, tea, cocoa and cinchona bark, from which quinine is prepared.

Peru Japanese emigration to Peru dates from 1899. In October, 1933, there were 21,281 residents, of whom more than 17,000 were in Lima and most of the others in or near Callao and other cities. Majority of them are engaged in commerce while about 2,000 farmers, some of whom own their own land, have mostly specialized in the cultivation of cotton, in which several Japanese corporations are interested. Argentina offers opportunities for development of sugar cane cultivation, forestry and stock raising by Japanese.

Other South American Countries Chile, Colombia, Bolivia, Paraguay and Venezuela have no restrictions on the entrance of the Japanese. As the soil in these countries is suited

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for various agricultural enterprises, the Japanese Government is encouraging emigrants. The last statistics show 635 Japanese in Chile, 627 in Bolivia and 5 in Paraguay.

Mexico After the arrival of the first emigrants in 1897, Mexico gave promise of becoming an important outlet. About 1906, increasing numbers went. Endemic fever and repeated revolutionary outbreaks, however, spelled ruin for most of the Japanese enterprises, and of recent years the emigration to this destination has been slight. In 1933, 5,297 Japanese resided there, most of them engaged in agriculture, horticulture and cattle raising.

Philippines More Japanese emigrants now go to the Philippine Islands than to any other country except Brazil. Settlement there began in 1900, and on October 1, 1933, the Japanese residents numbered 20,400 of whom 4,179 were in Manila, 1,378 elsewhere in Luzon and 12,592 in Cotabato and Davao. In Mindanao island, the large number of Japanese is accounted for by the large-scale cultivation of hemp, an enterprise originated by them. Many other Japanese in the Philippines are engaged in the fishing and building trades.

Other South Sea Countries Most of the Japanese residing in the Straits Settlements, the Malay States, British Borneo, the Dutch East Indies, India, Siam and French Indo-China are representatives of companies and clerks in banks, though many are small merchants and domestic servants. In the Dutch East Indies and the Malay States, Japanese have extensive rubber and cocoa plantations, and in Java they cultivate hemp, sugar cane and tea. As native and Chinese labour is so cheap, the number of Japanese contract labourers in this region is negligible.

On October 1, 1933 there were 5,729 Japanese residents in the Malay States and the Straits Settlements; and 6,949 in the Dutch East Indies.

1933 Emigrants

In 1933 the number of emigrants to foreign countries except China and Manchoukuo reached 27,317, an increase of 8,289 over that of the previous year. Of the total, 23,299, or 85%, went to Brazil, 1,095 to the eastern U.S.S.R., 468 to the Dutch East Indies, 941 to Philippine Islands, 481 to Peru, 322 to the Straits Settlements and Malay.

The age classification of the emigrants is as follows:

Age	Total	Men	Women
1— 4	3,112	1,575	1,537
5—19	9,901	5,693	4,208
20—29	7,517	4,417	3,100
30—49	5,533	3,455	2,078
50 & above	1,254	779	475
Total	27,317	15,919	11,398

A majority of the emigrants were farmers and farm labourers, these comprising 24,176 or 89%, of the total and 95% of those who had occupations as shown in the following table:

EMIGRANTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION IN 1933

Occupation	Total	Men	Women
Farmers and farm labourers	24,176	13,444	10,732
Industrials and workers	118	91	27
Engaged in Mining	884	875	9
,, Fisheries	317	292	25
,, Communication and transportation	10	10	0
,, Commerce	823	663	160
House workers and cooks	75	26	49
Day labourers	269	239	30
Officials, etc.	270	101	169
Unoccupied (mostly children)	375	178	197
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1922 that Japanese are ineligible for citizenship, and two years later the Quota Immigration Act was passed, containing a clause denying the right of entry into the United States for permanent residence of any person not eligible for citizenship. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Canada also provided, by various methods, for exclusion of Japanese.

These obstacles to entry into the Anglo-Saxon countries had two results, first, an abrupt decrease for a few years in the number of emigrants and, second, the discovery of new outlets. Several South American lands, notably Brazil, offered inducements. The Government adopted a positive polity of sending emigrants to quarters where they were not unwelcome, and in 1921 a subsidy was given to the Overseas Enterprise Company (Kaigai Kogyo Kaisha) to arouse interest in emigration. Encouraged by this change in policy, emigration associations sprang up one after another in the prefectures, and plans were made to purchase tracts of land in Brazil for colonization. To such land, the Shinano Emigration Association (Nagano prefecture) sent 450 emigrants in 1925.

Enactment of the Emigration Association Law in 1927 resulted in an increase of "independent" emigrants, quite different from the labour-contract emigrants which had constituted the bulk in earlier years. Prefectural emigration associations set up under the provisions of this law organized a federation which co-ordinated the buying of Brazilian land. A home for emigrants was opened in Kobé, the main port of embarkation. Companies specializing in South American colonization came into being. Part of the reason for establishing the Ministry of Overseas Affairs in the Government in 1929 was to provide an agency for administration and control of matters pertaining to emigration and colonization.

Movement The following table shows the movement of Japanese travellers and emigrants during the past 10 years:

NUMBER OF PASSPORTS ISSUED

Year	Total	To men	To women
1924	27,032	17,837	9,195
1925	22,176	15,628	6,548
1926	28,619	20,017	8,602
1927	31,177	21,364	9,813
1928	34,008	23,191	10,817
1929	37,990	25,689	12,301
1930	38,383	26,589	11,794
1931	27,144	19,803	7,341
1932	30,757	19,941	10,816
1933	42,451	27,163	15,288

EMIGRANTS

Year	Leaving Japan	Returning to Japan
1924	13,098	12,579
1925	10,696	13,918
1926	16,184	14,549
1927	18,041	14,735
1928	19,350	15,004
1929	25,704	14,073
1930	31,829	14,546
1931	10,384	12,965
1932	19,033	13,170
1933	27,317	14,141

The destinations of those leaving Japan in recent years have been:

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Brazil	2,077	4,435	2,685	5,565	15,092	23,299
Philippines	12,002	15,597	13,741	1,109	747	941
Peru	1,410	1,585	881	299	369	481
Canada	1,050	430	137	106	98	91
U. S. S. R.	870	888	1,513	1,288	1,096	1,095
U. S. A.	306	236	0	0	0	0
Hawaii	265	119	0	0	0	0
Straits Settlements	420	513	935	549	356	322
Mexico	353	249	434	283	149	85

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Beginning of Shintoism People in this age formed large families and the clan system prevailed. In many families the succession followed the maternal side, clan councils were called and patriarchs were elected. Shintoism, though in the most undeveloped state, was already a creed; people revered their forefathers and worshipped their own family gods, and the members of each clan were united in the worship of their own particular god, gaining thereby a more vivid feeling of belonging to one and the same blood. In the Imperial House, the Emperor Jimmu instituted religious ceremonies for his Divine Ancestors, who became the objects of worship of the National Shintoism in later ages, and his successors followed his example and prayed to the gods for the welfare of their beloved nation. Before Chinese models were adopted the ancient government of Japan was very simple, and ritual observances and public affairs were one, as the Japanese "Matsuri-goto" may mean either the administration of state affairs or religious ceremony.

Political Affairs In 87 B. C., the Emperor Sujin sent armies to the remoter central and western districts and subdued all the opposing tribes. In the first century A. D., the Emperor Keiko sent Yamato-Takeru or some generals to the farthest west and east, and suceeded in bringing the whole land under his sway, sending his sons to be the rulers over those subdued districts, and the Emperor Seimu divided the whole land into territories and prefectures for the convenience of governing them. Sushin and Suinin carried out plans for stimulating industry and commerce, and the nation became rich and the national power was much augmented, so that the small kingdoms in the Korean peninsula came one by one to be its tributaries. It was through these small Korean kingdoms that a knowledge of the religion and culture of the greater Oriental nations first reached Japan. In 285 A. D. Confucianism was officially introduced into the country, with its important moral precepts concerning righteousness, loyalty, filial piety, and love. In 552, during the reign of the Emperor Kimmei, the public introduction of Buddhism with its teachings on cause and effect opened up new vistas in religious and philosophic thought.

Civilization Introduced From the remains of this period we can infer that the Japanese people whose settlements extended from Kyushu to districts near the present-day Kyoto had risen above barbarous life long before the first century of the Christian Era. Their shell-mounds contain many bronze utensils which correspond to the Chinese productions of the Han Dynasty (206 B.C.–221 A.D.). The Do-Taku which seem to have been used as musical instruments or kept as a kind of treasure were found in the districts extending from the western end of the Main Island to Totomi and Kaga provinces near Nagoya and in Shikoku Island. They were found with the remains of the so-called Yayoi style which characterizes the works of the original Japanese as distinguished from the

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Japan had tributaries in Korea at this period, but, at the same time, heads of large families in Kyushu and Loochoo had some relations with the Han Dynasty as local tributary lords. We have good reason to believe that considerable numbers of continental people came to the islands either individually or in large bodies, and the civilizations of China, India and Korea had been constantly introduced to the islanders or brought in by the immigrants themselves so that there had really been several centuries of preparation before the formal or official reception of Chinese books and culture in the 3rd century at the Central Court in Yamato province.

Japanese Traits In those days Japanese characteristics and tribal traits were already established. The mild climate and beautiful natural features of the islands and the surrounding seas exerted ineradicable influences on the nature of the inhabitants. From such an early period the islanders, economically self-supplying and self-sufficient, enjoyed comparatively peaceful lives without much danger of being invaded by outside political powers. Consequently they became admirers of the realistic world, highly optimistic with pragmatic ideals; they had deep appreciation of natural life and a religious belief full of light. Their mode of action was sprightly, innocent and active. Loyalty to one's lord and filial piety were their two main principles of morality fostered from the remotest past; next in importance came valour in the highest sense of the term. There was no distinction in the position of the sexes and able women assumed high places in public affairs.

Primitive Literature There were written numerous local histories and genealogies of the Imperial Court and clans, and stories of heroes of victorious battles were earnestly listened to in their gatherings. They had ballads and a crude form of poetry which later came to be called waka, the metrical arrangement being 5-7 or 5-7-7, instead of the later 5-7-5-7-7. The ideas expressed were simple and pure, mostly concrete, lacking in the abstract thoughts of later days, putting immediate feelings into metre. The subjects poeticized were women, wars, and saké, as is common with primitive people in other parts of the world, and poems which sung the beauty of natural sceneries were rare.

No Pastoral Life The islands, severed as they were from the continent, were unsuited for raising cattle, and the ancient Japanese people had no experience of a pastoral life. Excavation of mounds gives no indication of it, while the undeveloped legs of the Japanese seem to suggest something of their ancestral habits.

With the progress of agricultural life the oldest clan system which had no class differences began to undergo changes because of the increase of population and consequent need of new land. Clans began to separate into branches, the latter leaving the parent stock and going out to get new lands. In many cases land was obtained by violence and there arose the relation of master and subject. Blood relation among the people widened to local relation and there appeared ruling clan heads to control and represent the districts or provinces. Soon these ruling families began to keep hereditary power in their hands. The primitive

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for various agricultural enterprises, the Japanese Government is encouraging emigrants. The last statistics show 635 Japanese in Chile, 627 in Bolivia and 5 in Paraguay.

Mexico After the arrival of the first emigrants in 1897, Mexico gave promise of becoming an important outlet. About 1906, increasing numbers went. Endemic fever and repeated revolutionary outbreaks, however, spelled ruin for most of the Japanese enterprises, and of recent years the emigration to this destination has been slight. In 1933, 5,297 Japanese resided there, most of them engaged in agriculture, horticulture and cattle raising.

Philippines More Japanese emigrants now go to the Philippine Islands than to any other country except Brazil. Settlement there began in 1900, and on October 1, 1933, the Japanese residents numbered 20,400 of whom 4,179 were in Manila, 1,378 elsewhere in Luzon and 12,592 in Cotabato and Davao. In Mindanao island, the large number of Japanese is accounted for by the large-scale cultivation of hemp, an enterprise originated by them. Many other Japanese in the Philippines are engaged in the fishing and building trades.

Other South Sea Countries Most of the Japanese residing in the Straits Settlements, the Malay States, British Borneo, the Dutch East Indies, India, Siam and French Indo-China are representatives of companies and clerks in banks, though many are small merchants and domestic servants. In the Dutch East Indies and the Malay States, Japanese have extensive rubber and cocoa plantations, and in Java they cultivate hemp, sugar cane and tea. As native and Chinese labour is so cheap, the number of Japanese contract labourers in this region is negligible.

On October 1, 1933 there were 5,729 Japanese residents in the Malay States and the Straits Settlements; and 6,949 in the Dutch East Indies.

1933 Emigrants

In 1933 the number of emigrants to foreign countries except China and Manchoukuo reached 27,317, an increase of 8,289 over that of the previous year. Of the total, 23,299, or 85%, went to Brazil, 1,095 to the eastern U.S.S.R., 468 to the Dutch East Indies, 941 to Philippine Islands, 481 to Peru, 322 to the Straits Settlements and Malay.

The age classification of the emigrants is as follows:

Age	Total	Men	Women
1— 4	3,112	1,575	1,537
5—19	9,901	5,693	4,208
20—29	7,517	4,417	3,100
30—49	5,533	3,455	2,078
50 & above	1,254	779	475
Total	27,317	15,919	11,398

A majority of the emigrants were farmers and farm labourers, these comprising 24,176 or 89%, of the total and 95% of those who had occupations as shown in the following table:

EMIGRANTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION IN 1933

Occupation	Total	Men	Women
Farmers and farm labourers	24,176	13,444	10,732
Industrials and workers	118	91	27
Engaged in Mining	884	875	9
" Fisheries	317	292	25
" Communication and transportation	10	10	0
" Commerce	823	663	160
House workers and cooks	75	26	49
Day labourers	269	239	30
Officials, etc.	270	101	169
Unoccupied (mostly children)	375	178	197
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CHAPTER III

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

Ethnologic Beginnings

According to modern scientific research it seems almost certain that Japanese tribes lived on these Islands at least as early as 2,000 B.C., in the latter part of the New Stone Age. It seems probable that yellow folk from the mainland of Asia, the natives of some southern islands, and possibly some kind of white-skinned race from the northwest, drifted to the Japanese islands, where they found a milder climate and more fertile soil than in their homelands, and formed a mixed race which we may call the Yamato Tribe and their blood became so well blended in the course of time that many think the Japanese people, their descendants, to be homogeneous.

They lived mostly on seashores or riversides. Their shell-mounds are rich in relics of those early days. They dug caves in the hillsides and pits in the flat ground for their dwellings, used stone tools and lived on natural food such as game, fish and shell-fish.

In the 3rd century B.C. the Indo-Chinese brought rice to the islands and the natives learned to cultivate and eat it. By this time a primitive agricultural life must have begun, and according to one of the oldest Chinese records on Japan the islanders already had a knowledge of silk-making even in such a remote period. Four different styles of clothing seem to have been prevalent, that of the Ainu, Tunguse, Indo-Chinese and Huns respectively, although there were some tribes who went naked. Judging by the clay images or idols they left behind them, the Ainu clothes consisted of an upper and a lower garment, the upper garment of the women being open in front, while that of the men was not. The dress of the Tunguse much resembled the Korean in style and they were fond of using jewels or stone ornaments.

They lived in groups, forming villages which consisted in some cases of several hundred households. They seem to have had a primitive communal life, each tribe or group being firmly united by ties of blood and belief. But there had appeared as yet no political organization or system and there was a continual stream of immigrants from the continent. Clan and tribal fighting and alliances gave opportunity for mixing blood. By the beginning of the Christian Era the Ainu and the ancestors of the Japanese, mainly Tunguse by descent, gradually settled down on the islands, the former living in the north-eastern half and the latter spreading over the south-western half.

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.–531 A.D.)

The period of 1,000 years from the Emperor Jimmu to the Emperor Keitai (who reigned from 507 to 531) may be called the Age of Traditions of Japan. The first book of history "Nihonshoki" (Japanese Annals) which was first compiled in the 28th year of the Empress Suiko, and the second oldest record "Kojiki" (Antiquities) which appeared about one hundred years later, tell of some

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or natural system of common property was transformed to that of private property. Powerful clans had serfs as property and subordinate clans or subjects paid tribute.

Age of Foundation (532–709)

As mentioned above, by the 6th century A. D. Japanese social and economical conditions were well prepared for the reception and appreciation of the Chinese civilization of the brilliant age of the Sui and Tang Dynasties.

Political Events With religion, other things such as painting, sculpture and architecture were gradually introduced and in the sixth century Prince Shotoku-Taishi, striving for the promotion of learning, religion and art, tried his best to make a radical improvement in the state administration and in the social life of the people. His work was a forerunner of the Taika Reformation.

In the meantime, there arose troubles among the clans which had power in the Government and their conflict became greater with the advancement of civilization. Two of the most important of these clans, Soga and Mononobé, came into violent collision over the question of adopting Buddhism as the national religion, until finally the former got the upper hand. But the Soga family abused their power so greatly that they stirred up the opposition of Kamatari Fujiwara, a loyal subject, and Prince Naka-Ohyé, who later became the Emperor Tenchi. The Soga power was suppressed in the year 645; this was the first step to the Taika Reformation which followed.

Emperor's Power Reduced As a natural development land became divided among the Imperial house, the clans and the temples. The Imperial estates were obtained in various ways, and consisted of, firstly, land owned ever since the first rule of Jimmu; secondly, land newly cultivated by the farmers who served the august family; thirdly, estates presented by local nobles; and fourthly, memorial lands for the dead Imperial members. Clans owned their estates, either by natural right, conquest or as prizes for merit. A clan's estate might increase yearly to the extent that it took the form of a territory, and consequently the national unity under the Emperor was endangered.

Shinto shrines and Buddhist temples also possessed their own glebes which had been given them by nobles as offerings.

As regards cultivating or farming the land, it is said that it developed from communal to tenant-farming. The patriarchs in the country districts began to possess a great number of people and large estates and enrich themselves by the labour of their serfs. Their wealth gave them influence and power and they became really local lords. This state of affairs continued without much change till the Taika Reformation in the 7th century.

The old clan system allowed high officials of the Court and the powerful families in the provinces to exercise almost absolute power over their own territories. The emperors ruled the people indirectly, all the official positions being hereditary. This system gave birth to several political vices or abuses, and the Imperial authority became much reduced. The excesses of the Soga clan showed clearly the injurious effect of this system, and the necessity of ending it.

The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation When the Soga family were destroyed, the Emperor Kotoku started a plan for a reformation, appointing the Crown Prince Naka-Ohyé to the

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head of the council which was composed of Kamatari Fujiwara, Kurahashimaro Abé and other great scholars of the time. The Crown Prince, with Kamatari at his right hand, studied the Chinese system of government and made plans for a revolutionary change of politics for the welfare of the people. Introducing from China the system of "nengo" or year-names, he called this period Taika or "Great Reformation" in the summer of 1305 from Jimmu or 645 A. D. This was indeed only seven days after the death of Soga. Japan has experienced three great changes in politics since the founding of the nation. The first was the Taika Reformation, the second the establishment of the Shogunate at Kamakura, 1192, and the third was the Meiji Restoration, 1868. In the second year of Taika the Imperial Edict of the Reformation was proclaimed. Some of its provisions were as follows:

(1) To bring all the private lands into public possession; (2) to divide the confiscated lands among the people, taking a census and fixing reasonable taxes; (3) to fix divisions of Kuni, Gun and Ri for the convenience of administration, putting officials in each division. These changes were practically carried out, and the clan system was entirely broken down, thus bringing about a centralization of political powers according to the Chinese pattern. The following is but a summary of the vast Reformation:

(A) Public land and people (citizens). (1) The people had, hitherto, belonged to the powerful gens and families and had been kept in the poorest condition not far removed from serfdom, while the land had been the private estates of the gens, and wealth had been almost entirely accumulated by them alone. In this reformation the land was all confiscated by the Central Government, and the people became direct subjects or citizens of the Emperor; so was the clan system destroyed. (2) The public land was distributed to citizens evenly. The census was taken first and all the names of the people were registered and every male over the age of five was given two "tans", or a little less than half an acre, of land, while a woman was given two-thirds of this. This land was returned to the Government when the holder died. The registration was renewed every sixth year. (3) Three taxes were newly imposed: one was on the land, being two bundles of rice on each "tan", the second was a requisition of labour, or else twelve feet of cloth or about two-and-a-half bushels of rice instead, from each house, and the third was a certain proportion of the special products of the locality.

(B) Centralization of government. The reformation of Taika was specially concerned also with the centralization of government and putting down the local divisions of the clan system. To accomplish this aim, a central government had to be established on a very strong basis. In 649, the Emperor ordered the establishment of the Central Government which consisted of eight departments modelled on the Tang government. In the country district the old officials were replaced by new state and country governors, horse stations were established for the convenience of travel and traffic, barrier-gates were set up in important places, and defensive preparations were made in the remotest districts.

(C) Appointment of men of ability. The third merit of the Reformation was in the appointment of able men among the people at large to important positions. Under the

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old clan system even the officials were hereditary and this gave birth to various political abuses. This hereditary officialdom was entirely done away with by the Taika Reformation, and any one who had real talent might become a high official, no matter to which or to what kind of clan or house he belonged.

Prince Naka-Ohyé, who headed the council of this great revolutionary improvement, declared "As there are not two suns in the sky so there cannot be two kings over a nation, and the Emperor must be the only one who governs over and controls his people under heaven," and he set the first example to the people by handing over his own estates and subjects to the Mikado, thereby speeding the Reformation.

A Premature Trial Public and official intercourse with continental governments greatly enlightened the Japanese mind, and the Taika Reformation was the result of idealistic longings of the time for a complete structure of government. As a matter of fact the Imperial Government had never been solidly established before the Reformation.

The study of the Sui and Tang Dynasties and political and diplomatic relations with the continental countries stimulated from outside the need of forming a government worth while in the eyes of neighbouring states, while at home political and social affairs urged the high officials and princes of the Court to take drastic means to consolidate the Central Government, taking advantage of the general trend of the cultured class of people for an imitation of all things Chinese.

It was not, therefore, a natural reformation of a government already well organized, but rather the commencement of a real central government, influenced by the international spirit of the Chinese Government at that time. Unity and centralization of administration was completely exemplified by their big neighbour, and the young minds of the Japanese officials and nobles, entirely caught by its brilliancy, were too impatient to make fuller investigations on the adaptability of Chinese institutions to Japan and the Japanese of the day. The Taika Reformation, therefore, was hardly a success so far as its economic system was concerned and the formal institutions mentioned in (A) soon began to collapse.

Its Lasting Merit But the fundamental and imperishable meaning of the Taika Reformation is that it was the first systematic organization of the central government and the establishment of the spirit of national unity.

It was in this age that the whole nation of Japan was united into one. The Ezo tribes in Hokkaido Island and the inhabitants of the southern islands came to pay homage to the Central Government, and Buddhism was propagated among the northern islanders and the Kyushu tribes in the south as a cultural enterprise of the Government.

Taiho Law After half a century, or in 701, the Taiho Law was promulgated which completed the work of the Taika Reformation, especially in the organization of the Government. The construction of the Daijokan (the Great Government) was regulated in the Taiho Law and this form of central government continued till the Meiji Restoration, when it was revived in power and called Dajokan. The Government consisted of the Daijo Daijin, the Sa (left) Daijin, the U (right) Daijin, four Dai Nagon, three Sho Nagon, four secretaries, ten scribes, three Sa-benkan, and three U-benkan.

The Daijo Daijin was the tutor and personal councillor to the Emperor, and had no fixed office. In view of

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the importance of the position it was not filled when there was found no suitable man. The Sa Daijin was the prime minister and controlled all the administrative offices and might over-rule the decisions of the Danjodai (a kind of court of administrative litigation).

The U Daijin took the work of the Sa Daijin in his absence and his responsibility was the same as that of the Sa Daijin. The Dai Nagon acted as counsellor in national affairs with the three Daijin just mentioned and assisted them, directly reported all the political affairs of importance to the Emperor, handed Imperial orders to the departments, and executed the offices of Imperial attendants. The Sho Nagon administered affairs of minor importance, the Secretaries and Scribes administered the business concerning public documents and Imperial edicts, etc. The Sa (left) Benkan administered the following four departments: the central, the ritual, the administrative, and the civil. The U (right) Benkan administered the other four departments: the military, the judicial, the treasury and the Imperial House. That is to say, the practical administration of the eight departments were executed by the Left and Right Benkan in accordance with the decisions and directions of the three Daijin and four Dai Nagon.

Learning and Religion A century around the Taika Reformation was the period when the Government was busy also in the study of Chinese literature, importation of the continental culture, and compilation and promulgation of new laws. It was an age of laying foundations for the future progress of the Japanese civilization. This study of continental cultures did not stop with that of China, but ancient nations west of China became tutors of the Japanese. Among the treasures which were accumulated by the Emperor Shomu (724-749 A.D.) and kept in the Sho-so-in Museum at Nara, there are many art products of Rome and Persia. The area represented by the treasures practically covers all the civilized countries of the Orient and a large portion of the Western world.

Systematic education of the young began with the building of Horyuji temple (see Chapter XXVIII). With the compilation of the Nihonshoki and Kojiki, Shintoism was formulated as the national religion. As to the nature of Shintoism and its philosophical analysis as a dogma opinions are divided, it nevertheless developed in this age from mere nature-worship to ancestor-worship, cosmogony and anthropomorphism, including a germ of the idea of a central deity of the cosmos in the belief in Amé-no-minaka-nushi-no-kami. On the other hand Buddhism was eagerly taken into the lives of the upper class people who had power to assimilate it.

Nara Age
(710–793)

Golden Age of Buddhism After the Taika Reformation in 646, the Government rather avoided the trouble of intercourse with the Korean Peninsula and concentrated their power on the better administration of home affairs, encouraging intercourse with China in order to bring the Chinese civilization more into Japanese life, and 60 years later founded the City of Nara as the capital, in Chinese style. For 70 years following its founding, it was an age of imitating Chinese things. Buddhism won the faith of all classes of the people and developed and expanded among them by leaps and bounds. This was the golden age for Buddhist fine arts, existing specimens of which make today the international

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treasures of old Buddhism. The nation was prosperous and the people enjoyed a happy life such as they had not known before.

Throughout most of the 8th century Nara was the Imperial capital and towards the end of it Japanese civilization began to assume its own form and characteristics favoured by the peaceful social conditions. The Japanese poetry, waka, took a definite style and the range of subjects handled in the poems came to include all phases of life and nature as we see in the Mannyoshu collection of waka of this period.

The use of abbreviated forms of Chinese characters began in this period for the convenience of copying books in an age without much printing, although block-printing was introduced from China by 770 A.D., and prepared a way to the invention of Kana characters in the following Heian Age.

Division of the Rich and the Poor

As mentioned above, the economic plan of the Taika Reformation soon began to collapse. It was not, however, a return to the old patriarchal system but an advance to feudalism.

The even distribution of land under the Taika Reformation proved in practice insufficient and many farmers were compelled to obtain more land by cultivation of waste areas or to fall into heavy debt. On the other hand the nobles or former patriarchs of larger clans, the Court officials and priests began to accumulate special prize lands, gift lands and subject tenants. Many of the common people were reduced to the position of serfs, although in Japan there has never been such an inhuman system of slavery as existed formerly in Western countries, and people of the upper class became landed proprietors with wide estates which were called "Soen".

For the cultivation of new arable land, labour and the digging of water courses were required, so such land naturally came into the hands of the wealthy people. Besides the addition of newly cultivated land they enlarged their estate by purchasing the land of the poorer people, confiscating mortgaged land and conquering weaker landowners by force. This tendency in the rural districts went its course unchecked, while the Central Government was occupied with political and diplomatic affairs mostly concerning matters in the capital cities of Nara and Heian (Kyoto), and Court nobles gave themselves up to luxurious living.

Korea, China and Japan.
(660 B.C.–1019 A.D.)

From the time when these islands were first populated the Korean Peninsula had intimate relations with the islanders. Especially was this the case with the south-eastern part and the Izumo district, according to traditions. At the time of Sujin the southern part of Korea became a Japanese protectorate, but its eastern neighbour, Silla, scorned Japan and was subdued by Empress Jingo in 200 A. D. The western half and lands in the north also came under the influence of Japan and the whole peninsula became tributary to her. These small kingdoms mostly acknowledged the Japanese authority, but sometimes they rose in rebellion and Japan frequently had to send armies to the peninsula, till finally the Governor's office was destroyed by Silla in 562. Silla soon became the master of the whole peninsula, conquering the other small states, and entered into good terms with the Chinese Government. The ruling power of Silla was usurped by another dynasty in the 9th century. Japan did not forget to interfere in their affairs when suitable chance offered, but all her attempts

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were in vain and she had lost her last trace of influence by the year 936.

The northern part of Korea had once been a territory of China in the second century B.C. Intercourse between the Japanese and Chinese people had already started in those days, and during the years in which the Korean peninsula was tributary to Japan the trade and travel between the two nations became greater and more frequent; many Chinese scholars and artists became naturalized in Japan and worked for the Government in the fields of literature, art and general technique. Some Emperors sent delegates to south-eastern China to get teachers of weaving and sewing.

In 607, when Shotoku Taishi was regent, an ambassador was sent to the Sui Dynasty and friendly official intercourse was opened. Later, when the Tang Dynasty replaced the Sui, diplomatic relations were still unbroken between the two nations and many young men and monks went to China for study. The culture and civilization of the continent flowed into Japan and greatly influenced her politics and social life. In the Era of the Emperor Tenchi, this intercourse was once checked by difficulties with Korea, but the Tang Emperor sent his delegates again to Japan to re-establish friendly relations, and they were accordingly restored. During the Nara Age, especially, travel was most frequent between the two countries, and science, religion, the fine arts, architecture and forms of living were all taken from China, such imitation continuing till the beginning of the Heian Age. Chinese civil wars proved a hindrance to these friendly relations and the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates in 894.

In Manchuria a strong nation appeared in 713 and invaded northern Korea, and started some trade with Japan. Another arose later which came down even to the central part of the peninsula. Still another dynasty then gained control over much of eastern Asia and tried to invade the islands, but was defeated by the Japanese army in 1019.

Heian Age
(794–1192)

Fujiwara Despotism The Emperor Kammu changed the capital from Nara to the new city of Heian, i. e. the present Kyoto, in 794, and instituted a new era. For several decades after that the Imperial sceptre retained its power. But from the middle of the 9th century, the house of Fujiwara became closely related to the Imperial House, and began to assume regentship of the country. Taking all political power from the Imperial House, they gradually concentrated it in their own hands and planned only for the benefit of their family and relatives. Their despotism reached its climax with Michinaga Fujiwara in the 10th century.

In those days the Fujiwara family gave themselves over to luxury, and greatly influenced the city life of Kyoto making it indolent and vicious. But on the other hand literature and the fine arts made special progress. As the result of the cessation of sending delegates to China they turned their faces to Japanese habits and inherited ideas, and began to take on a Japanese flavour and style which was most graceful. Buddhism now assumed a strong and influential position not only among the people at large but also in the Court. The Enryaku Temple of Kyoto and the Kofuku Temple of Nara especially played a great part in this new tendency. It was noticeable that by this time the imported religion was largely transformed and Japanized in character.

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Rise of Samurai Class Another remarkable phenomenon of this age was the rise of the samurai, the warrior class. The direct rule of the Emperor, in consequence of the weakening centralization of administrative power, was declining. In the local districts, the private lands owned by the aristocratic families were increasing year by year, and the orders issued by the Central Government were disregarded in those private territories. Local affairs fell into confusion, and robbers stalked abroad in the towns and villages. Wealthy landowners in the villages hired and fed soldiers for self-defence, and these farmer-soldiers finally became samurai, men whose profession was fighting. Sons of aristocratic families who could not get official positions also became soldiers with the farmers and strove after power. Soon they became really powerful, being specially rampant in the farther districts and even rebelled against the local order. But the bodyguard of the Court, hopelessly impotent, was useless for real battle, and the samurai rebellions were suppressed only by other samurai bodies. The princes and nobles also hired samurai to guard themselves and to further their political feuds. Warriors were encouraged to become ever more skilful in the practice of arms. It was quite natural that such a course of affairs gradually gave important positions to the samurai class in the Governmental offices. Among them the most famous ones were of the Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heiké) families.

In the middle of the 11th century, the Emperors wished to restore the Imperial power and suppress the Fujiwara despotism. Finally in 1156 the Fujiwara power was completely broken and overthrown by the Genji and Heishi warriors, who were much honoured in consequence by the Imperial House. Before long, however, these two samurai houses became rivals and in 1159 Kiyomori Taira (Heishi) won the day against Yoshitomo Minamoto (Genji). Kiyomori had rare ability and great ambition, and forgetting that he was but a samurai followed the examples of Fujiwara and became himself another despot. For his wilful behaviour he was hated by all classes of the people, and Yoritomo Minamoto, son of the defeated Yoshitomo, rose on the tide of general bad feeling against the Tairas, and the whole Taira family were defeated and drowned at the battle of Dan-no-ura in the Inland Sea in 1185. It was Yoritomo Minamoto who first established the Government by the Samurai class.

Literature At the end of the Nara Age an abbreviated form of Chinese characters began to be used among scribes. In this Heian Age the Katakana, a Japanese syllabary of simple 'square' characters was derived from the Chinese ideograms, and lastly Hira-kana, a smoother and more fanciful style of Kana was invented and came to be used first among educated ladies and then by gentlemen also. Chinese sentences had monopolized the literature of former ages, but from the first quarter of this period pure Japanese sentences in Japanese alphabet appeared in a good volume and gave impetus to the rapid spread of Waka composition and beautiful Japanese stories like the Taketori-monogatari and Isé-monogatari.

The culture of this age had not yet reached the rural districts and common people, but existed only in the larger cities and a number of towns and among the aristocratic class. The 'kulturträger', the bearers of civilization and culture of the age, were court nobles, government

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officials, priests and monks, and their families. It may be going too far to say that Heian was the only city of the Empire in those days, for there are evidences of the existence of some local market towns and trade ports. It is nevertheless true that there was a great difference in grade of civilization between the capital and the rural districts. The intelligentsia in the capital kept political power and literary heritage to themselves and their successors, their living being supported by the contributions and tenant fees from their estates at country places. They lived a luxurious and easy monotonous life as is shown in the Genji-monogatari by Murasaki-shikibu, a woman novelist. But at the same time Japanese literature made wonderful progress in this age.

Education School education was undertaken by the Government along definite lines in the city and local districts. In the city of Heian there was a Dai-gaku, (school of higher learning), which took in 400 boys of higher officials. There were 143 higher officials and 850 lower officials in the city. In the districts there were established Koku-gaku, provincial schools, open mainly for the boys of local officials. At Dazai-fu in Kyushu the Gakugyo-in, or institute of learning, was established for the provinces of the northern half of the Island. The main course of study in these schools was related to national politics based on the teachings of Confucius. But literature, music, physical science, pharmacology, astronomy, mathematics and penmanship were not neglected. Some of the local schools were superior and sent out able scholars. Children of the princes and court nobles were taught by private tutors. School education especially flourished in the Enryaku, Konin and Showa eras, under the Emperors Kammu, Saga and Nimmyo respectively. The building of the new capital of Heian gave rise to a new spirit of enterprise among the people and broader humanistic ideals began to show themselves, with sincere aspirations for the advancement of national civilization. Many young students went abroad. Prince Shinnyo, a young monk of the Shochoji temple in Izumi province, went to the Tang capital, and started from Rusha to Raetsu, near Singapore, for the study of Buddhism, but died on the way. The needs of the time gave rise to many private schools. Some representative ones were the Busho-in of Seiko Sugawara, the Kangaku-in of Fuyutsugu Fujiwara, the Gakkan-in of Tachibana, the Shogaku-in of Yukihira Arihara, and the Kobun-in of Kiyomaro Waké. The Sugawara family especially produced a succession of first class scholars, and many able young men came in to the Bunsho-in. This study of foreign learning continued from the previous ages to the middle of the era when the Emperor Uda stopped the sending of delegates to China.

With the slackening interest in Chinese cultural studies early in the 10th century the Government schools were gradually reduced in numbers and influence, as the power of the Imperial Government dwindled and the Fujiwara connections came to monopolize all official positions, leaving outsiders without hope of preferment. The Daigaku-in in Heian was closed after the buildings (five blocks of classrooms and one storehouse) were burnt down in the fire of 1177. Learning became an hereditary privilege with the growth of reactionary reverence for established lineage. Buddhism also became much Japanized by the appearance of such monks as Saicho of the Tendai and Kobo Daishi of the Shingon Sect.

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Economic Condition The cleavage between the common people and ruling classes became more marked and the clan or family ties weakened as the connection between demand and supply became more complicated. From this arose the necessity for exchanges and markets. Waka of the Mannyoshu suggest the existence of markets in Japan at such an early date. As a matter of fact there had been several markets opened in bygone times such as those of Tsubaki, Atokuwa and Eka. On the beach of Takahama in Hitachi and by the straits of Asakumi in Izumo province there were primitive markets opened for the people. These markets were first started in connection with Shinto festivals. In the Nara Age, there were the East and West Markets in the city of Nara, where trees were planted for giving shade, and from there pedlars travelled around as far as Echizen province.

In the 7th century A. D. silver and copper money was already in considerable circulation. In the 8th century copper money was cast by the Imperial Government, although it is not clear whether all the money in circulation before that was of Chinese origin or not. In the first year of the Wado Era, 708, silver and copper coins named Wado-kaiho were cast at the Imperial mint, and this coining of metals continued, ushering in the period of money instead of barter.

In the Heian Age public markets were opened in the East and the West of Heian city. The East Market consisted of 51 shops and the West Market of 33, and they continued till the time of the Gen-pei (Genji and Heishi) wars in the 12th century. The largest among the local markets were at Tsubaki, Tatsu, Asuka and Ausa in Yamato province, Shikama in Harima (near Himeji), Naniwa in Settsu and Kowaki in Omi. There were many trading ports, and of these Hakata, Muko and Naniwa (Osaka) were the most thriving in foreign trade, Hakata coming first, located as it was at the northern end of Kyushu, nearest to Korea and China. Foreign commerce at this era was mostly governmental, private trading not being allowed.

Kamakura Age
(1192–1337)

Samurai Government Samurai government continued for 685 years, from the time of Yoritomo Minamoto to the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate. During the feudal age the Minamoto, Ashikaga and Tokugawa families appeared successively as the heads of this Samurai government, holding all power, both political and military, in their hands. At the Imperial Court were the august officials, but its rulership was only nominal, and the real sovereign power was kept by the Shogunate.

In the middle of the Heian Age, the Fujiwaras grasped despotic authority in politics, and the rule of the Imperial Court degraded into formalism. Imperial officials and nobles indulged in an effeminate life, discarding militarism. As stated above, vicious customs prevailed, misunderstandings arose between the Central Government and district offices and the gap between the rich and the poor became greater, gangs of robbers terrorized the people, civil wars great and small constantly occurred, and the people could not live in peace. This state of things gave opportunity for the rise of the warrior class, and the military government under the leadership of Yoritomo Minamoto was welcomed by the people as suitable for the troublous times, and the Shogunate came into being on its own merits.

The Kamakura Shogunate Yoritomo

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adopted Oyé's counsel, and asking the permission of Goshirakawa, the ex-Emperor who had the real power at the Court, stationed his warriors in different parts of the country as governors and deputies. He gave these governors military and police authority and to the deputies he assigned the administration of land and tax affairs, in 1185. All the political power fell into Yoritomo's hands as a natural consequence, and the military and political offices which were established at Kamakura became Shogunate head offices; in 1192, he was asked by the Kyoto Government to become Seii-tai-Shogun, or Generalissimo, and this meant the public recognition of the Shogunate authority.

Yoritomo's lineal descendants did not continue to hold the power beyond the third generation, but the nearly-related Hojo family took their place and ruled the people with ability till Takatoki Hojo was overthrown by faithful adherents of the Emperor Godaigo in 1333. The Kamakura Shogunate was the real Central Government of Japan for over 140 years.

After becoming Shogun by Imperial Order, Yoritomo Minamoto took great care to control the warrior-lords. He himself lived a very simple life and issued orders to the lords and warriors to do the same, thereby setting good examples to the people. His teachings did not primarily stress skill in fighting or the use of weapons but rather the moral precepts which must underly the true warrior's way. The hitherto neglected and disorderly rural districts were taken care of and became closely united with the Kamakura Government, their agricultural and commercial life was improved, and the heavy taxation formerly levied by extravagant nobles was reduced to make the peasants' lives practical examples. He encouraged the propagation of the Zen teachings which emphasized an ascetic life, and those of the Jodo Sect which taught man to realize his sinfulness. The principles of Bushido, however, had mainly to do with the lord-and-subject relation among the samurai, and had defects as a common morality for the masses. But it is noticeable easier.

Foundation of Bushido Yoritomo was a pious man, revered both Shintoism and Buddhism, and was loyal to the Emperor. Bushido was indeed established by his teachings and here that the polygamy among the nobles of former days was gradually discarded and monogamy began to gain ground in this age, probably in consequence of the recognition of personality and the unusual emphasis on the fidelity of a lady to her lord in the Bushido code. Ideas of honour became strong; loyalty to the Emperor, patriotism, and belief in Japan as being the country specially favoured of the Gods became established national ideals; Buddhism was completely Japanized; and the general moral standard was considerably raised.

Education Education progressed also in the sense that it spread to local districts and especially among the samurai class. The Terakoya (see Chapter XXVIII) schools were started in the Buddhist temples of this age. Text books suitable for the education of samurai boys were compiled. At the time of the Ashikagas famous centres of learning were established at Ashikaga and Kanazawa (see Chapter XXVIII) near the present Tokyo. The Ashikaga Gakko (Ashikaga School) was first established by Yoshikané Ashikaga, a cousin of Yoritomo Minamoto, and has been continued for seven hundred years up to the present day. The Kanazawa Bunko (Kanazawa Libra-

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ry) was first established in 1275 by Sanetoki Hojo, great-grandson of Tokimasa Hojo the Shogun. Women's education was not neglected and sewing, housekeeping, penmanship and reading and composition of prose and poetry were taught to the daughters of well-to-do people.

Art and Literature The rise of individualism gave a new turn to the cultural life of the people. The break of tradition was discernible in fine art and literature. This was the age of Sung and Yuan in China and their literature and arts, flooding Japan, laid the foundations of the modern literature and fine arts which developed after the Muromachi period. Picture rolls of famous battles and illustrated histories of shrines and temples were produced, reflecting the taste of the day. That portrait-painting first began during this age may be taken as a recognition of the individual value of men. (See Chapter XXXV.)

Commerce and Industry Before the Kamakura Age, agriculture was almost the sole industry of the people, although some things were produced in government factories. The spread of culture among the local population in this age, however, quickened the progress of commerce and industry in country places and local centres. Hand-work and carpentry were emancipated from the protection of the nobles and temples, primitive guilds were created and classes of artisans of armaments, porcelain, and lacquer-work, etc. came into existence. Seven guilds were established, of silk workers, charcoal burners, rice merchants, furniture makers, miscellaneous industrials, paper manufacturers and makers of ornamental things and cattle dealers.

Joyei Judicial Code In the first year of Joyei, 1232, a judicial code was issued. It was called Joyei Shikimoku (Joyei Judicial Code) compiled by Yasutoki Hojo and his colleagues. This was a compilation founded on the judicial customs of olden days and had no incongruities with the Japanese common life as was often the case with the laws issued by the Central Government at Heian, largely imitations as they were of Chinese laws. It proved, as a matter of fact, to be more practical and effective, and survived many other laws, as an authoritative code for the samurai class, to the time of the Meiji Restoration.

Muromachi Age
(1338–1602)

The Muromachi Shogunate Shortly after the downfall of the Kamakura Government, Takauji Ashikaga established a Shogunate in Kyoto, wholly on his own accord, in 1338, and in the time of his grandson Yoshimitsu his work was completed. It was called the Muromachi Shogunate after the name of the street in Kyoto in which the government had its headquarters. Its system and institutions were almost the same as those of the former Kamakura Government. A relative of Ashikaga governed eastern Japan, staying at Kamakura. This Kamakura governor was first a simple representative of the Muromachi Shogunate, but by and by he began to stand in rivalry against it. Governors were sent to other places and generals were placed at the head of different military bodies. The governors in local districts were real lords, and acted freely on their own caprices.

Korea, China and Japan

The public exchange of delegates with foreign countries was, as we have said, abolished, but private trade continued nevertheless. The Sung Dynasty united China in 979, and called forth a thriving inter-

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national commerce. Merchants and Buddhist monks made visits to China much oftener than before. Kiyomori Taira opened a port at Hyogo and interviewed Chinese merchants at his palace. In the Kamakura Age, the Buddhist Zen sect was introduced from China, and the Hojo built huge temples for its monks.

The Yuan Invasion In 1206 the Yuan Dynasty gained sovereignty over the greater part of China and extended its territory even to a part of Europe. The great Emperor Kublai Khan took Korea, and destroyed the Sung Dynasty, winning possession of all China in 1279. He sent a messenger with advice to Japan to become his tributary, under threat of war. But Tokimuné Hojo, then in power at the Kamakura Shogunate, uniting forces with the Kyoto Court, firmly rejected the proposal. The result was a crisis for Japan in 1274 and again in 1281. The Yuan ruler in alliance with the government of Korea sent a great army to invade Japan. The Japanese were hard pressed, but they fought bravely with their small forces, and by the help of a typhoon which destroyed the enemy fleet they won the day in the summer of the year 1281.

The trade between the two nations, however, did not cease with the war. Takauji Ashikaga wished to build the Tenryuji temple and to get funds for the purpose he constructed trade boats which were called Tenryuji boats.

Trade with the Mings From the beginning of the Kamakura Age, Japanese pirates had plundered the coasts of China and Korea. In the Muromachi Age, the Shogun Yoshimitsu Ashikaga concluded a friendly treaty with the Emperor of Ming in 1401. At the time of Yoshinori delegates of the Shogunate went to Ningpo with passports given by Ming authorities and traded there with the Chinese merchants. Not only Government delegates, but also the governors of local districts, monks and priests of temples or shrines, and some merchants of Hyogo and other ports sailed in and out with a similar purpose. The trade with Ming brought a great profit to Japan, and the Shogunate was relieved of its economic hardships, the western ports throve and the people became wealthy. The Shogunate did its best to prohibit the ravages of pirates, to prove their friendliness to the Ming Dynasty, but at the end of the Muromachi Age when the Shogunate lost its power and the local lords did as they liked, Japanese pirates again pillaged Chinese coasts, which were for a long time troubled with them.

Relations with Korea At the time of the rise of the Mongolian nation, Korea turned against Japan under pressure of the Mongols. But the Japanese pirates ravaged unbearably along her coasts, and she asked the help of China to send a strong protest to the Japanese Government. A general of Korea, Li-Seikei, was successful in protecting the nation from the attacks of the Japanese pirates, and he finally established a new dynasty of his own and called the new country Chosen in 1392.

Among the provincial lords there were many who had intercourse with Korea. Tsushima Island, especially, had close relations with her because of the nearness of its location. Its lord, So, opened trade with Korea in 1868. When Korea became known as Chosen these relations became even more intimate. There were many Tsushima islanders who became residents of Korea. (As to Japan's relations with the Western nations since 1543 when the Portuguese first came to Japan, see pp. 77-87 of the Japan Year Book, 1933,

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and Chapter VI of this volume.)

Feudalism It was during this age that feudalism was established as a definite system, and many of the provinces were ruled over by warrior-lords. Warriors fought each other, farmers were awakened to the need of uniting to protect their interests, and temples quarrelled with one another over the delimitation of their spheres of influence. It was a "dark age" in one sense, but important as an age of social change and progress. The advance of foreign trade was remarkable, and Japanese emigrants settled down in the South Sea Islands.

The warrior-lords began to disregard the orders of the Shogunate, becoming selfish and money-loving. Yoshimitsu Ashikaga, the third of the line, reorganized the Shogunate and restored its power for a while, but after his death it began to decay and the local lords usurped its authority. Both in the capital of Heian and in the districts civil wars raged year after year. The luxurious living initiated by Yoshimitsu and Yoshimasa (the 8th Shogun), spread like an epidemic among the local lords and warriors, and the ones who suffered most from the poison were the common people, the farmers and merchants, because the expenses of the luxury of the upper classes came always from their pockets.

The latter half of the Muromachi Shogunate was an age of civil strife among the feudal lords. All tradition and authority disappeared, and any talented man, favoured by fate, had the chance to make himself a lord.

Military and General Education Progress in military arts and the use of weapons was a feature of the age. Various styles of Kendo (fencing) were founded and schools to teach the art flourished in the four corners of the Islands. Nor was general education neglected. Both the Ashikaga Gakko and Kanazawa Bunko fulfilled their functions as educational centres, Terakoya were established in more districts and education began to reach the farmers and merchants. In 1561 St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu, and the Catholic faith was first preached among the Japanese. Otomo and other lords in Kyushu were baptized and within less than 30 years there were 200 churches built and over 1,500,000 people converted. Nobunaga Oda was in favour of Christianity from his policy of suppressing the unruly power of the Buddhist monks. Catholics were also eager to establish schools. Within the feud of Otomo there was established a seminary (Casa Professa) for training preachers. Colleges for young laymen were established at Arima in Higo province, Kyushu, Funai in Bungo province, Kyushu, and Azuchi in Omi province near Kyoto. The last one was opened in 1581, and 25 boys from good families were instructed in the catechism, Latin, Portuguese, Japanese reading and composition.

Woman's Position Here it must be mentioned that the status of women was greatly lowered in this age of war-lords and samurai. Men vaunted their physical prowess in battle, while women were compelled to live secluded lives, sheltering at home from the dangers of the times. Chinese dicta concerning the "three obediences and seven reasons for divorce" making of woman little better than a slave or chattel, suited the selfish convenience of man, and the Buddhist idea of woman as an impure being detrimental to man's ascent to Buddhahood, all worked together to pull woman's social position down to a ridiculously low level, contrasting with the high status she

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had enjoyed in more ancient days.

Commerce Ravaged by frequent warfare, the city of Heian or Kyoto had become deserted, the population thronging to the villages which nestled around the castles of the feudal lords. These in time became thriving cities or towns. Among sea ports Hakata, Hyogo, Muro, and Sakai were representative ones. To Sakai, for instance, came the foreign ships direct, and there arose many wealthy merchants who had financial power over the Muromachi Shogunate. It was a free city, governed by its own city assembly and protecting itself by the city guard. Yukinaga Konishi who was first a pharmacist and became a lord on his own account, Sen-no-Rikyu, the famous specialist in the tea ceremony, and Sukéémon Noya, a millionaire merchant in foreign trade with the South Sea Islands, were representative men of Sakai.

Industry The taste of the age was rather simple and purely Japanese. The warrior-lords found recreation in the tea ceremony or garden-making. The preservation of natural simplicity was the dominant note in these gardens, rocks and pebbles being used in their construction. The national leader in this direction was Yoshimasa Ashikaga, the Shogun, who originated the tea ceremony. This ceremony was never a mere drinking of tea but a formalized social meeting, at which guests were invited by the host to a simple and tasteful dinner which was called Kaiseki. Choice porcelain wares and other utensils were used in it and the guests were entertained not only by the repast but also by the exhibition of rare articles and scroll pictures. It became a fashion of the time and greatly stimulated and improved the art of making porcelain, lacquer and cast-iron wares and Kakémono paintings. These were exported to the continent for the first time in the history of Japan.

The last quarter of this age, however, called the Momoyama Period in art history, was represented by the gorgeous taste of Hideyoshi Toyotomi who built the Momoyama Palace of silver and gold. The influence of the Western world definitely reached Japan with the coming of Catholic priests in this period. It affected not only the spiritual and mental life of the Japanese but also the field of architecture, etc. When Nobunaga Oda built the Azuchi Castle, the first of its kind, in 1576, Catholic priests gave advice or directed the construction. The central building of the Japanese castle is called Tenshu-kaku. The word Tenshu means the Heavenly Lord or God of the Catholic Church, and the Tenshu-kaku signifies the Tower of the Heavenly Lord. It is said that in the Tower of the Heavenly Lord Catholic images were enshrined when it was first built. According to an art investigation, there are in Italy remnants of old buildings which resemble the Japanese castles and the influence of the Roman architecture through the Portuguese and Spaniards must have been felt in the Japanese castle building.

Economical Conditions There were economic reasons underlying the civil wars among the feudal lords in the latter half of the Muromachi Age. Enlarged volume of production, progress of communication and transportation, advancement of commerce and industry and changes in military strategy following the introduction of guns led to the wars of territorial invasion and expansion among the lords who had to provide for an increasing number of soldiers and officials. Both commerce and industry had progressed slowly but steadily with the spread of civilization to local centres since

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the time of Yoritomo Minamoto. Natural economy evolved to that of commodity. Merchants and artisans were gaining standing as a class. Up to the middle of the Muromachi Age the guilds called "Za" monopolized the supply of goods to the lords; this system, however, came to an end with the progress of free trading, and public markets were permanently established. The appearance of large towns and cities necessitated the accumulation of commodities and provisions from adjacent country places and other parts of the land and hastened the growth of wholesale dealers. The wholesale dealers of the age were called "Mommaru" and combined the businesses of innkeeping, wholesale trading, transportation and money exchange at the same time. Banking business also made considerable progress. There were no banks in the modern sense, but the pawnshops were the banks of the day when as yet there was no regular credit system. Buddhist temples and the brewers of saké acted also as money lenders and they together with the pawnshops were usurers and capitalists. Tanomoshi-ko (small associations for mutual financial aid) were already in vogue. Accumulation of wealth became a dire necessity for the lords, but they had to rely wholly upon the farmers and merchants for financial support while the Central Government was too weak to aid them or protect their interests in accordance with the change of social and economic conditions. Some fell so heavily into debt that finally they had to surrender their territory to their creditors. The Shogunate prohibited the purchase or mortgage of land owned by the samurai to merchants and land proprietors, but this regulation was not observed. By the end of the Kamakura Shogunate it had become too late to attempt the financial rescue of the samurai. The lords levied heavy taxes on their people and farmed out their collection to appointed merchants. The final outcome of this system, however, was to let the land fall into the hands of those agents, so that the lords were driven in desperation to get new land by force. At times the farmers and smaller merchants resorted to violence to protect their rights and demand more merciful governance from their respective lords or the Shogunate. They often attacked the wealthy merchants, temples and pawnshops to get back goods they had pawned.

The latter half of the Muromachi Age witnessed the phenomenon of Buddhist mob rioting and fighting. The Shin Sect (or Ikko Shu) founded by Shinran gained great numbers of followers among the common people, and some uprisings of these religionists were in reality directed against the ruling class. For instance, the Ikko mob which started rioting in the districts of Kaga, Noto and Echigo provinces, fought against Masachika Togashi the lord of Kaga and killed him, while another in the district near the present-day Kobé and Osaka defeated the armies of Hosokawa their lord, the fight extending over several provinces from Sakai to Ishiyama in Omi province. Iyéyasu Tokugawa, then lord of Mikawa, fought with them in 1563, and to Nobunaga Oda also they were a constant source of trouble.

The social changes caused by the progress of trade and commerce during the Kamakura and Muromachi Ages and the consequent disorder among the ruling classes were not allowed to take their own course very long, for foreign relations, especially with Western countries, presented many international problems and the necessity of national unity

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became keenly felt. As already mentioned, the introduction of firearms brought about a fundamental change in methods of fighting. Arrows were no match for bullets. Preparations for war had to be made on a much larger scale and the warriors or soldiers reorganized in a more systematic way, and consequently the smaller lords were forced to unite under the leadership of greater ones who possessed real power and means to organize new armies. And thus the unity of all Japan was realized through three stages under three great war-lords, Nobunaga Oda, Hideyoshi Toyotomi and Iyéyasu Tokugawa.

Nobunaga Oda The first, Nobunaga Oda, was an official under the lord Shiba, but soon becoming independent he subdued many lesser lords one after another with his soldiers armed with guns, and, in July, 1573, dethroned Yoshiaki Ashikaga the Shogun and demanded direct access to the Emperor Ogimachi. Nobunaga who had had long and bitter experience of the Buddhist mobs waged war against them and set fire to the Enryakuji temple in Mount Hiei, one of the most powerful temples of the time, thus putting an end to Buddhist meddling in political affairs. He found another means of lessening the power of Buddhist temples by favouring the spread of the Christian faith. He gave all encouragement to its propagation and welcomed the inflow of Western learning and civilization. Nobunaga destroyed the barrier gates in districts which hindered free commercial intercourse and transportation and put an end to the monopolizing guilds and gave merchants opportunity for unrestricted trading. But in 1582 he was assassinated with his work yet incomplete, and it was left to Hideyoshi to continue the task of uniting the nation.

Hideyoshi Toyotomi Hideyoshi Toyotomi, a farmer's son, and one of the trusted generals of Oda, succeeded in subduing even such great lords as Mori and Shimazu in the west and Daté and Hojo in the north and practically united the whole nation by force. In 1583 the whole land of Japan was surveyed to divide it into new rural districts. In 1586 Hideyoshi fixed the costumes of the samurai according to their rank. In 1588 the common people were ordered to surrender their swords for casting a Daibutsu (great image of Buddha), the purpose of this order being to prevent the wearing of swords by any except the samurai. The law of 1591 strictly prohibited the shifting of hereditary business, and the four classes of samurai, farmers, artisans and merchants were firmly fixed.

To force obedience to the law Gonin-gumi (Five Men's Bands) were compulsorily organized. All the people (samurai inclusive) were grouped by 5 or 10 families and each group not only took joint responsibility for the doings of all of its members but helped its members in civil life. This originated before Toyotomi's time, but the law issued in 1600 made it an established institution and played an important part in the following Tokugawa Age both politically and socially. Hideyoshi planned an invasion of the Continent, Formosa, and the Philippines, but died in 1598 before realizing his dreams.

Before the absolute unity of Japan could be accomplished another great statesman was to take the work in hand.

Yedo Age
(1602–1867)

In 1600 Iyéyasu Tokugawa gained a decisive victory at Sekigahara, near Nagoya, over his opponents and became the practical ruler of Japan.

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Except for a small portion allotted to the Imperial House and various religious bodies over 90 per cent. of the entire land was divided among the Tokugawas, their relatives, and favourite generals and lords. Thus the complete unity of the nation was realized by the dual master-and-subject relation between the lords and their people and then the Shogun and the lords. This feudal system endured over 260 years, being quite unparalleled in the history of the world. This was a success primarily for the Tokugawa Shogunate rather than the nation. It was due for one thing to the financial and military strength of the Tokugawa family, secondly to the clever method of administration best suited to keep wayward war-lords in order, and thirdly to the halting of alien influences from overseas.

Iyéyasu located the seat of the Central Government at Yedo (Tokyo) and governed from there his 200 lords and generals. The financial basis of the Shogunate was superior. About 7,000,000 koku ("koku" in this case means the area of land which can produce one koku of rice) or nearly one-fourth of the national area of 30,560,000 koku, was owned by the Shogunate directly or indirectly. Besides, all the ports and places important for political and military purposes, the largest cities and the centres of industrial and commercial activities, and all the mines of any value were under the Shogunate's direct control. It also retained the right of casting coins.

Buké Hatto (Samurai Law) After giving the final blow to the Toyotomis in May, 1615, Iyéyasu Tokugawa ordered the drafting of the law concerning the daimyo (feudal lords) and samurai. In July of the same year the Samurai Law was pronounced before the gathering of the daimyo called for the purpose by the Second Tokugawa Shogun Hidetada. It consisted of 13 articles the gist of them being as follows: (1) Samurai must be well educated in general learning and versed in the arts of war; (2) Unbridled drinking and luxuriousness are strictly prohibited; (3) Criminals must not be aided or concealed; (4) All treasonous bodies and murderers should be banished; (5) No person other than the subjects of the daimyo should be allowed to live in his territory; (6) All repairs to castles must be done only by permission of the Shogunate and the building of a new castle is strictly prohibited; (7) If anyone detects a new castle building or a secret political organization in a neighbouring province he must report it to the Shogunate; (8) Marriages must not be celebrated privately; (9) All the lords are required to observe "sankin-kotai". (According to this article the lords were divided into two groups, and each group was to come up to Yedo, the seat of the Shogunate, in April every other year, to stay there for one year and the Shogunate prepared their Yedo residences where their families were kept as hostages. These rules were somewhat loosened in later years.) (10) Styles of costume should be regulated according to rank and social position; (11) Servants ought not freely to use the palanquin (the only vehicle in those days) in travel; (12) Samurai should be instructed to live frugally; and (13) the lords should use discretion in appointment of officials. The purpose of this law was to restrict the armament of the lords, to suppress political organization and treason, to effectively inspect the local government of the lords, and to force them to keep order by strict rules on their behaviour. The number of the daimyo was 157 according to the Shogunate statistics of 1614.

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Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) This law for the court nobles was promulgated in July, 1615, in the assembly of 150 court nobles at the Nijo Castle, Kyoto. It consisted of 17 articles, and included regulations regarding the positions of the Emperor, Imperial Princes and Princes, the appointment of a Regency and chief councillor, adoption, court ranks, institution of the year name, costumes, the order of promotion, orders issued by magistrates, sentences of the court, and the position, ranks, costumes and honorary titles of the head priests of Buddhist temples. The main points of it follow: (1) It is humbly recommended to the Emperor that he should be a good scholar and well versed in all the arts; (2) Unless he is equipped with knowledge and ability no one ought to be appointed to be Regent, Chief Councillor, Daijo Daijin, Sa Daijin or U Daijin even from among the Sekké (Five highest nobles from whom the Regent was to be chosen); (3) As to the appointment of a monk to the head of the Monzeki (temples the head priests of which are princes or court nobles) or the Ingé (temples next in rank to Monzeki). Customary order should be strictly kept, and when a common man is appointed his rank should not come up to the first Sojo (highest position of the priest, the order being Sojo, Sozu and Risshi, each subdivided into first and second) even though he be endowed with rare ability; except for those who are, at the same time, tutors of the Emperor or daijin. (4) To be head priest of the Monzeki, a Hoin (the highest rank, with surname of Sojo) or Sozu is to be appointed; to that of the Ingé, Sozu or Risshi; a Hoin or Hogen (next in rank to Hoin) is to be appointed according to customary order; a common man should be first recommended by the temple itself and then pass through the examination of the committee; (5) The head priest of the purple garb temples (or the temples of the highest order: the order of the temple was indicated by the colour of the garb wore by the head priest such as purple, scarlet, light blue, yellow, light red) should be appointed also according to customary regulations, although of late these regulations have been disregarded by Imperial order and there are those who usurp the position. Hereafter, the ability and virtue of the candidate must be examined and he must be recommended by the committee in the Imperial Court. (6) The honorary title of Shonin should be given to the learned monks only by Imperial order. It is to be divided into first and second grades and the first grade should be given to monks who have had over 20 years' experience in the faith, and the second to younger ones; those who are ambitious for the title without fulfilling its requirements should be banished.

System of Control Iyéyasu took scrupulous care not to give any chance to the Imperial House and the greater lords to gather forces against the Shogunate. His first policy was to restrict their powers by the promulgation of the Kugé Hatto and Buké Hatto above mentioned. His second was to allot their districts to the respective lords by an administrative plan deliberately schemed out. The Kanto district in which the seat of the Shogunate was located was put under the direct rule of the Shogun and ruled by his personal generals to protect the Central Government from an attack. In the districts around Kyoto, the city of the Imperial House, none of the Tozama Daimyo, the conquered lords, were placed, but only the relatives of the Tokugawa and the Fudai Daimyo, lords who had been on the

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Tokugawa's side from of old; and in Kyoto itself a representative office of the Shogunate had the responsibility of watching any political move in that city. Along the two main roads, the Tokaido and Nakasendo (or Koshukaido) which connected Kyoto and Yedo, the Fudai Daimyo only were appointed to rule over the districts. The Tozama Daimyo were all given lands in the remoter parts and between each two of them a Fudai Daimyo was placed to play the part of a barrier. Such important places as Osaka, Sakai, Fushimi, Nagasaki and Uji-Yamada were administered by the governors directly sent from Yedo. The children of Iyéyasu were given large feuds and established the Houses of Mito, Owari, Echizen and Kishu, forming a defensive semicircular line. As a whole, Iyéyasu cleverly divided the land among the lords so as to keep the balance between the East and the West, and this policy proved successful till the balance was broken when in the first half of the 19th century the western lords arose in rebellion. The Shogunate paid minute attention to all travellers along the Tokaido, and put a barrier at Hakoné, and no people were allowed to pass through the gate without a passport issued from the lords or the Shogunate. After the enforcement of the articles of the Buké Hatto requiring the family of a lord to stay at Yedo, women were almost entirely prohibited from leaving the city for they must get Hakoné passports directly from the Shogunate.

The purpose of the seclusion policy adopted by the Tokugawa Shogunate was to shut out any possible outside political influence and to prevent the local lords from getting large profits out of foreign trade, and rising thereby to financial and political power. The Shogunate did everything to safeguard their supremacy and to make the lords obedient as sheep, no matter how the national progress was hindered or into what miserable condition the people might be thrown.

Organization of the Tokugawa Shogunate The Shogunate was a government of one despotic ruler: the Shogun. No one man, however, can perform all the duties of a government unassisted. Although there were many changes in the organization and the names of offices in the 268 years of its rule the Yedo Government, in the main, had a Cabinet which consisted of one Tairo (the great elder), five Roju (the middle elders), and five Wakadoshiyori (the younger elders). The Tairo was the premier but, though the Shogun at times placed his most reliable and able statesman in the position, the years in which a Tairo held office were but few; for the rest the Shogun himself exercising its functions. The Roju were the ministers of the administration and signed the public ordinances and documents of the highest import. Their standard of administration was the former customs and the laws newly issued, and the secretaries had the responsibility of examining old customs and precedents to help the decisions of the Roju. These five saw to matters concerning the Imperial House, the court nobles and prince monks, and controlled all the lords and high officials, local governors and inspectors, and in wartime commanded the armies of the lords.

The Wakadoshiyori consisted of four or five members who were at once councillors and vice-ministers and controlled the Hatamoto (the generals who directly belonged to the Shogunate), and the lower officials, and in any emergency commanded the armies of the Hatamoto.

Both the Roju and the Wakadoshiyori were appointed from among the

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Fudai-Daimyo only.

Under the cabinet there were three Bugyo, the Jisha Bugyo (Temple and Shrine Department), the Machi Bugyo (City Department), and the Kanjo Bugyo (Counting Department). The Jisha Bugyo controlled all the temples and shrines in the country and administered justice in the remoter districts. The Machi Bugyo administered the city (Yedo) affairs from administrative business to justice, police and prisons. The Kanjo Bugyo took charge of the treasury of the Shogunate gathering taxes from the estates directly belonging to the Shogun.

The Roju, the Wakadoshiyori and the three Bugyo formed the Central Shogunate Government, all other officials belonging to or coming under the control of one or other of these. Among the local officials the most important were the Shoshi-dai who represented the Shogunate at Kyoto, the Osakajo-dai who represented the Shogunate at Osaka, the Fushimi Bugyo, overseers of the barriers at Kyoto, the Kobusho Bugyo or military department, and the Nagasaki Bugyo who controlled the lords in Kyushu.

Cultural Life Culture and civilization made greatest progress in the western part of Japan and it was in Osaka and Kyoto that literature and a more refined life developed in the earlier years of the Yédo period. Iyéyasu was anxious to spread knowledge and encouraged the study of the Japanese and Chinese literatures of former days; scholars of great learning appeared who opened schools and published commentaries or interpretations either of their own accord or by the backing or order of the lords. The progress of the art of printing greatly helped the spread of education in books. But in the early days of the age most of the energy of the ruling class and the common people was spent in readjusting their political and social life to the new state of affairs created by the united and centralized government of the Tokugawa Shogunate, and time was needed for the psychological atmosphere of the people to settle down toward a peaceful enjoyment of life in this better-organized society.

It was not until after half a century that a characteristic taste and way of life began to show themselves, discarding the old garbs of traditions. Here it must be noted that the fundamental feature of the literature of the age was that it was the creation of the common people, who were robbed of all opportunity for rising to higher social position or assuming official posts in the government. The so-called Genroku period commenced with the luxurious life of the fifth Shogun Tsunayoshi who was a man of enthusiasm, fond of learning, and encouraged lectures and schools. Even before his time the general trend of the period had been toward extravagance and amusement following a century of peace. The Shogun's example, however, quickened and intensified this tendency, and such amusements as "no" drama, joruri (or gidayu), and kabuki (see Chapter XXXVII) were enjoyed by the general masses, while pure literature such as hai-ku, waka, novels, and stories began also to be written and read among the lower classes. Skill in the fine arts, characteristic Japanese hand-work and special weaving arts reached the highest pitch.

The originality of the Japanese made itself felt in almost all lines and aspects of learning and daily life. One instance of this was in the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (the Great Japanese History) under the auspices of Mitsukuni Tokugawa, which had been commenc-

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ed in 1657. Mitsukuni of Mito who was a grandson of Iyéyasu and one of the greatest figures among the lords in the Tokugawa Age, called scholars to Mito for the encouragement of Japanese learning and ordered the production of the Dai Nippon Shi on principles purely Japanese, his spirit exercising a profound influence over the people. In the Genroku period literary men were able to publish their writings freely and the joruri of Chikamatsu, the novels of Saikaku, and the short poems of Basho had a great circulation, most of their works becoming literary treasures of Japan for ages to come.

The leadership in civilization was still with Osaka and Kyoto up to the end of this period. But the Sankin-kotai and the power of Yédo, the seat of the Shogunate, did not long allow the centre of culture and fashion to remain in these old western cities, and Yédo had finally assumed the first position in all matters of political and social life by the last quarter of the 18th century. The following 80 years, especially the first 50 years of it, was the golden age of the cultural life before the Meiji Restoration.

The educational programme of the Tokugawa Shogunate, begun with Iyéyasu himself and encouraged through former decades bore fruit in this period. There appeared many Japanese and Chinese scholars, and literature among the common people reached its prime.

The policy of the Tokugawa Shogunate in handling the people from the lowest up to the lords themselves, was very severe, and the class most oppressed was the common populace. Social tragedies amply reflect themselves in the literature of joruri writers, Chikamatsu and his contemporaries, and in spite of apparently good intentions of the Shogunate rulers and advisers to improve the political, economical and social conditions, in many cases the people in general were either trodden down under the feet of the lawless samurai or entangled and helpless in the network of the prohibitive laws.

But the characteristic optimism of the Japanese kept them from falling into hopeless discouragement and their surplus time and money were spent in amusements of all kinds. This repressed energy found its outlet in creative industry and literature, or their enjoyment. Besides the standard works of literature there are preserved smaller illustrated pamphlets, short novels and poems which reflect the life of the common people in those days. They expose the looseness of the social life in many respects, but it is wonderful how they show the innate heart of the Japanese people, optimistic, realistic and humane. If it were not for its partial suppression by the Government this common literature might have attained remarkable progress. All Japanese amusements either originated or took definite form in this age. In the upper classes of society a similar course of development ran through all the phases of life. Characteristic Japanese philosophy on human life or Shintoism was created by the combination of Chinese philosophies and Buddhism. Bushido was theorized and its morals were generally sound, and moral activity reached its zenith in the overwhelming loyalty movement at the end of the Yédo Age which culminated in the downfall of the Shogunate and the brilliant Meiji Restoration.

Gradual Economic Decline At the beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate foreign trade was carried on to a considerable extent but afterwards it was almost entirely prohibited except to a small extent through one trade port, and all hope of increasing

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the national wealth and economic progress of Japan was lost for the time being. Even with its income from the large territory above mentioned the Shogunate could hardly manage to keep pace with the ever increasing expenditure, and financial unsoundness appeared already at the time of the fourth Shogun, and from the fifth Shogun on they were forced to rely upon the profits gained by the recasting of coin. Various improvements and revisions of economic policy wrought no material change of situation for the better. In the Tempo Era (1830-1844), the Government stood on the brink of bankruptcy and during the last years of the Shogunate the financial situation went from bad to worse.

The local lords had territories of 10,000 koku to 1,020,000 koku each, but their income from these was too small to feed all their dependent samurai and soldiers, and to finance the Sankin-kotai travelling expenses. They fell into heavy debt, their creditors being the wealthy merchants and money lenders at Yédo and Osaka, the two business centres of the time. From the middle of the Yédo Age few of the lords could manage without the help of the rich merchants. Seventy per cent. of the national wealth was said to have gone into the hands of wealthy business men at the end of the age. In 1843 the lords sent about 4,000,000 koku of rice to Osaka, 3,000,000 koku of which went to the Osaka merchants as interest for their debt of 60,000,000 ryo (gold coin). All means to which they resorted to increase their incomes proved in vain.

The samurai were also compelled by the Sankin-kotai system to have two houses, one at their rural town and the other in Yédo. They were not allowed to do any productive work but received a kind of salary from their own lords, and mostly lived a leisurely life, although some were given offices in the local governments. The long peace did not necessarily bring happiness to the samurai, but rather drew them into different means of pastime and their fighting spirit was dulled with the increasing tendency for luxury. Their income was limited from the beginning and it was still more shortened by compulsory loans to their feudal lord out of their 'fuchi' or salary, or even complete suspension of its payment. They had no way of extorting from the farmers, as the lords had, and after losing all their means they could not help but break the law and work secretly for their living as artisans or small merchants. In the end the samurai began to sell their weapons and armour which had become useless in the long years of peace.

In the Yédo Age the country folk still lived on the natural products of their farms, helped out by some small income from their handwork, and each village constituted an economic unit, self-supplying and self-supporting. The political peace benefited farmers especially and increase of production resulted from the improvement of farming instruments and institutions. The kinds of vegetables grown became more numerous, sericulture advanced remarkably, and new areas of arable land were brought under cultivation. At the time of Toyotomi's land survey (1573) the rice production of the whole country had been estimated at 18,000,000 koku. In the Genroku Era (1688-1704) it increased to 25,780,000 koku, and, in 1842, to 30,550,000 koku. But 50% of the farmers' income had to be paid to the lords, they were forbidden to move from one place to another, or to change their occupation, purchase of land was restricted, the Goningumi and other feudal institutions

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fettered them hand and foot. So this class of people was also thrown into miserable depression, and farmers resorted to such desperate measures as infanticide, fleeing to cities and mob riots to escape from their difficulties or fight for their living.

It was estimated that the proportion of farmers to the whole population was 80%, and the total population in the Yedo Age showed a slow increase in the first half and a standstill in the latter. This was brought about by such natural causes as famines, prevalence of epidemics and insanitary dwellings; but the dreadful habit of infanticide which originated from the direst difficulty of living among the farming-class, must have been the greatest factor in checking the increase of population, for it was usual among farmers to restrict the number of their children to less than three in a family. Another negative measure was to flee from the territory of the despotic lord to large cities. Cities had insufficient capacity to receive the inflow of these country people because as yet there were no industrial factories, but there were many openings for house-workers, day labourers and apprentices in the business houses or artisans' shops.

The number of recorded farmer-mob riots reached 568, including 68 in the early period of the age, 236 in the middle and 264 in the last. The usual motive for rising in mobs was anger at the unreasonable extortion by the lords, tenant disputes being as yet rare.

Commerce and Industry The advance of commerce was helped by the increase of population in the towns and cities where central and rural governmental seats were located and the regular journeys to and from Yédo of the lords and their soldiers in Sankin-kotai. But as all foreign trade was banned, business could not take on any natural or international development. The main commodity of the day was rice. The production of this in Kansai, Chugoku (the Main Island west of Kobé), Shikoku, Kyushu and Hokuriku (districts facing the Japan Sea in the central part of the Main Island) were transported to Osaka rice-dealers, while that of Kanto and Ohu or the north-eastern provinces was sold in Yédo. Exchange business in rice had already commenced among Osaka merchants and speculations began to draw common interest. Coins of gold, silver, bronze or copper were in good circulation by this time, although these suffered changes of value at times, and the west of Osaka adopted the silver standard while the east of same the gold standard. Paper money was issued by the rural governments so that money economy prevailed all over Japan. Bank business or Ryo-gaé and credit system made considerable progress.

Yedo had over a million population and Osaka came next with several hundred thousand. There were many other cities of over ten thousand. Seclusion had put a stop to sea transportation to foreign lands, but land transportation within the country made wonderful progress. The five highways, To-kaido, Nakasendo, Koshu-kaido, Nikko-kaido and Oshu-kaido (Do or Kaido means road) converged at Yédo and men and goods came to the Shogunate capital along them and their by-roads from the remotest corners of the land. Coasting sea transportation had the following four main lines: the South Sea line between Yédo and Osaka, the West Sea line between Osaka and Nagasaki, the North Sea line from Shimonoseki to Matsumaé, and the East Sea line between Oshu and Yédo; the most

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important of these being the South Sea line which connected Yédo the greatest consuming city and Osaka the greatest commercial centre.

On the other hand industry was still undeveloped and most articles were made by handwork in the individual houses. Industry with large capital and in factories was limited to brewing at Nada, weaving at Ashikaga, Kiriu near Yedo and Hakata in Kyushu, metal foundries in Chugoku and shipbuilding.

The seclusion policy quenched the enthusiasm of the Japanese for foreign trade which had been greatly stimulated at the time of Nobunaga Oda. The Islanders were compelled to fall back on the old economic system of self-supply and self-sufficiency, unwillingly relinquishing the international spirit that had aspired to things Western on far larger a scale than that of China centuries ago.

At the same time, however, it resulted in the creation of many industries and fine arts purely Japanese, and the work of the artisans became minutely specialized in the course of time, numbering over 150 kinds. The artisans were united in guilds according to their kinds, which protected their rights and profits, master, artisans and apprentices comprising each house. There were government purveyors who were protected by the Shogunate and accumulated wealth. The number of merchants greatly increased and the classes of the wholesale merchants, middle men and retailers were definitely established. The wholesale dealers organized associations and gradually acquired real power over the samurai and the lords from their financial ascendancy.

The lowest stratum of society was composed of day labourers. They were (1) common day labourers, (2) kumosuké or coolies, (3) house servants and maids, and (4) women weavers. There was a still lower class of people called Yéta or Hinin (the unclean or no-man) whose intermarriage with the other classes was strictly prohibited and who were engaged in such business as straw-slipper making, leather work, digging graves and acting as night-watchmen and executioners.

Ronin A characteristic phenomenon of the Yédo Age was the appearance of the Ronin or masterless samurai. Such samurai had existed in previous years, but at the time of the despot Toyotomi their number was insignificant. The samurai who had followed lords defeated and ruined in battles became 'ronin' and their number was added to by the extinction of noble houses in punishment for rebellion, and the unemployment of the sons of samurai, other than the first born, who had no share in the inheritance of their father's property or position. Some samurai voluntarily chose the life of a 'ronin'. All these lawless 'ronin' lived from hand to mouth and were either at odds with the ruling class or gave constant trouble to the common people. The event mainly responsible for the creation of this class of people was the battle at Sekigahara (1600 A.D.) which decided the supremacy of the Tokugawas over the Toyotomis. In the 13 years between that battle and the Osaka battle which ended in the final destruction of the Toyotomi family, the number of the lords entirely ruined or partly deprived of territory reached over 100 and the confiscated area to approximately 9,000,000 koku. Some found second masters but the larger number of the samurai were thrown out of work. The Osaka battle was caused by these samurai in a last attempt to preserve the power of the Toyotomis, although it ended in their complete failure. Again, in

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the 23 years between the Osaka battle and the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637 another 70 lords lost the whole or a part of their territory by the relentless application of the Buké Hatto, and indeed the Shimabara Rebellion was nothing but an outburst of complaints by the Catholics and the ronin against the oppression of the Shogunate. But the power of the Shogunate was unshakable. The number of the ronin, however, was still more increased, and in the 4th year of the Keian Era, 1651, Yui-no Shosetsu and his colleagues attempted a change of the Shogunate government for the benefit of the ronin, although it was suppressed by the wholesale arrest of the ambitious leaders and the harakiri of Yui-no Shosetsu himself on July 25 of that year. There were minor events caused by outbreaks of the ronin here and there and at last the Shogunate was awakened by these uprisings to the graveness of the situation and after the Keian Era measures were taken to prevent further increase in the number of these masterless samurai. As a rule, in obedience to Bushido ethics, the samurai did not like to take a second master, and only a small portion found positions, while the rest either remained unemployed or chose some other occupation. Some became merchants or farmers. Others became scholars and opened Terakoya and educated the young in Confucianism and Japanese literature and morals. Still others became specialists in military arts and gave lectures to the samurai and the lords, while there were quite a number of experts in fencing and archery who opened drill-halls or schools in the larger cities. The better element of the ronin played an important part in the social development of the country standing in a freer position than the regular samurai. And the last and most praiseworthy task they accomplished was to take a prominent part in the movement for aiding the Imperial House which finally led to the Meiji Restoration.

Exclusion Policy

Policy of Toyotomi The Catholic faith spread over Japan very quickly and many churches were built in various places. But the dogmas and institutions of the Church were in many ways unfitting to Japanese ideals and customs. Besides, the friars or missionaries behaved themselves without discretion, disregarding the laws of the nation, partly tempted to this by the humble attitude of the Japanese officials toward the foreigners, out of their wish to profit by the foreign trade. Hideyoshi Toyotomi therefore destroyed the Catholic Church in Kyoto in 1585, and issued a Prohibition Law in 1587, forbidding the residence of missionaries at Nagasaki and other places. But he still allowed foreigners who did not mean to spread the religion to come.

A little later, when trade with Luzon was opened, Spanish missionaries came to Japan. These missionaries were antagonistic to the Jesuits and tried to preach another form of doctrine among the Japanese people in the face of the Prohibition Law, and quarrelled with the Portuguese missionaries. Hideyoshi again issued a more drastic prohibition law and severely punished them; but he died without accomplishing his aim, and both Portuguese and Spanish missionaries came in greater numbers and preached the Gospel more earnestly so that the believers in it increased with remarkable rapidity.

Policy of Iyéyasu Iyéyasu followed Hideyoshi's steps and encouraged foreign trade. But being anxious lest the people should be misled by

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the Catholic priests he prohibited their preaching in 1612, expelled them from the country, and strictly ordered the Japanese believers to turn from their faith, and those who did not obey his order were condemned to death. They called this turning from or casting away the Christian faith "Korobi" or rolling over.

Going Abroad Prohibited But missionaries came, pretending to be merchants, in considerable numbers, and secretly continued to spread Christianity. The Shogunate saw the difficulty of complete prohibition, and began to take stricter steps. Iyémitsu, the third Shogun, prohibited the importation of foreign books in 1630, forbade any one to go out of the country without permission of the Government in 1633, and prohibited the going abroad of any Japanese in 1636. Finally, no Japanese was allowed to return from other countries. And thus the ambition of the Japanese for foreign expansion was quenched.

Seclusion of the Nation The Shogunate kept a strict watch against the coming in of the Catholic faith and tried to exterminate the believers in the country. Their measures were so severe that the Christian believers arose in rebellion at Shimabara in 1637. The uprising was subdued in a short time, but because of it the Shogunate determined to go a step farther in carrying out the law, and prohibited the coming of foreign people entirely in 1639, with the only exception of the Hollanders who helped the Shogun's armies in the fight against the religious mob at Shimabara and cherished no idea of spreading the Catholic faith among the Japanese. Hollanders were allowed to trade at Nagasaki, although it was done under the guard of the Samurai.

With this strict seclusion policy the Shogunate was able to root out Catholicism and remove from the minds of the people the influence of foreign thought and belief, and so gain peace in home affairs. But during those years, foreign affairs became known to only a few of the Shogunate upper officials, and this merely through meagre reports presented by the Dutch Consul, and the people were kept in entire ignorance. The result of it all was the Japanese isolation from the nations of the world and the country's dropping behind out of the ranks of world civilization.

But general movements among the nations of the world did not allow Japan to stay forever in a secluded condition. In the 18th century, foreign ships began to visit Japan, and the Islanders could no longer leave these intruders at their shores unheeded. The end of the Yedo Age was evidently drawing near.

Foreign Studies Renewed Seventy years after the enforcement of seclusion, books on foreign trade and the state of affairs in the Western world were published and the people were much instructed by such literature. The Shogun Yoshimuné took an interest in Western studies and followed a liberal policy for importing Western books in 1720, and this brought about a Renaissance which awakened the Japanese from their long sleep.

Seclusion Law Re-enforced The Seclusion Law required the provincial lords to drive foreigners away from the shores of the Empire, but its observance grew lax with the lapse of time. At the end of the 18th century the Shogunate made it milder and allowed foreign ships to come, on condition that they had no enmity to the nation, and still later the Government treated them very humanely. Unfortunately, however, the repeated rough conduct of the

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English shipmen irritated the official mind to the last limit and they were compelled to re-enforce the old law, giving orders to the coastguard to bombard any foreign boat which came near the shore, and to arrest any of their crew who landed forcibly, and kill them if necessary. At the same time, they gave strict orders to the Japanese boats not to have any intercourse with foreign vessels (1825).

National Doors Opened

An American ship, the "Morrison", came to bring members of a Japanese shipwrecked crew back to their country, met with the bombardment, and went back to China in 1837.

In 1844, William II, King of Holland, sent a confidential letter with a special delegate to Japan, to warn that country to be careful not to follow the miserable example of China. Merchant vessels and warships of England and France many times came to the Loochoo Islands and the French made a forcible landing at Naha, the best port of the Loochoos, put missionaries ashore there and asked for the opening of friendly intercourse in 1844. The Shogunate complied with their request for trade, but drove the missionaries away in 1848.

Treaty of Amity with America In the sixth year of Kaei, 1853, Commodore Perry came to Uraga with a fleet of four warships. A friendly treaty was finally concluded between Japan and America in 1855.

Treaty with Russia Russia also sent Vice-Admiral Poutiatine to Nagasaki in 1853, and a treaty of commerce with Russia was concluded opening Shimoda, Hakodaté and Nagasaki for her vessels, and making agreements respecting their boundaries in the north.

At that time England and Russia were at war, and in 1854 an English warship came to Nagasaki for a supply of provisions. The Shogunate consented to open Nagasaki and Hakodaté for English vessels, and an agreement was reached between the two nations. Hakodaté and Shimoda were opened to Holland also and a treaty was concluded in 1855.

Conclusion of Commercial Treaties In 1856 the United States sent to Shimoda her Consul General, Townsend Harris, who finally succeeded in coming up to Yédo and got an interview with the Shogun Iyésada in 1857. He earnestly requested the Government's consent to open trade relations, and asked that an American minister might be stationed in Yédo, assuring his hearers of American sincerity. The foreign trade allowed hitherto by the Shogunate was only through the mediation of the officials, and Harris insisted upon free and direct commerce between the merchants of the nations.

The Shogunate officials themselves, already aware of the inconveniences of the old system, complied with his requests, regularly concluded a friendly commercial treaty with the United States, and agreed to open New Kanagawa (the present Yokohama), Nagasaki, Niigata, and Hyogo (Kobé) in addition to Shimoda and Hakodaté. They allowed Americans to settle in those ports for trade, gave them freedom to come in to Yedo and Osaka, recognized their freedom of religious belief and extraterritorial jurisdiction, and regulated the rate of tariff in 1858. This was the so-called Ansei modus vivendi.

In the same year the treaty was sanctioned by the Shogunate, without the Imperial grant. The Shogunate concluded similar treaties with Holland, Russia, England, and France in the same year; and with

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Prussia, Switzerland and Belgium a little later.

Opening of the Country The Government appointed a commissioner to administer foreign affairs in 1858, and the Shogun earnestly requested the Imperial sanction for the provisional treaties, and finally got it in 1865. The carrying into practice of all these treaties was realized with the opening of Hyogo (Kobé) port in 1867, the year of the accession of the Emperor Meiji. In the meantime, several international troubles occurred. Russia tried to invade Tsushima in 1861, Satsuma warriors fought against an English fleet off Kagoshima in 1863, and the Nagato clan had an engagement with the combined fleets of France, England, Holland, and America at Shimonoséki in 1864.

Downfall of the Shogunate

Court and Shogunate The Yedo Government adopted the policy of keeping the Imperial Court at a respectful distance, paying apparent homage to it, but actually presenting it only with 120,000 koku of rice, the pension of a middle-class lord.

Uprising of the Loyalists On the other hand the smouldering fire of loyalty to the Imperial House was gradually fanned into a blaze by the increasing attention paid to the study of Confucianism and old Japanese literature. Confucian scholars taught that the first duty of the people was to be loyal to the King (Emperor) and not to the Conqueror (Shogun), while the students of the old Japanese literature explained the irrationality of the Shogunate régime in the country of which the sovereignty belonged solely to the Imperial House. Down to the middle of the Yédo Age, however, these teachings did no harm to the Shogunate for both the ruling class and the people took them as mere matters of academical interest without practical application. Mitsukuni Tokugawa, the lord of Mito was among the foremost in advocating the virtue of loyalty to the Imperial House, himself beginning a work of the compilation of Japanese history to make this characteristic Japanese virtue clearly understood, and erecting a monument to the loyalist Masashigé Kusunoki at Minatogawa, Kobé. And such scholars as Ansai Yamazaki, Keisai Asami, Soko Yamaka, etc. mostly praised the virtue of loyalty, though not necessarily to incite any anti-Shogunate sentiment. Their teachings, nevertheless, acted to stimulate Imperial loyalty in the hearts of the samurai and the people till the time came when it should burst into flame.

The first instance of these sentiments being transformed into practical action was the movement of Takénouchi Shikibu who came from Niigata to Kyoto and went about among the Court nobles insisting upon the need of a loyalists' uprising. He was banished by the Shogunate in 1759. Daini Yamagata and Umon Fujii followed him, but both were soon put to death. However, the corruption and weakening of the Shogunate régime quickened the anti-Shogunate feeling in general towards the end of the 18th century. Especially the renaissance of Japanese literature and national character brought about by the teachings of the Japanese scholars, Norinaga Motoori and Atsutané Hirata greatly helped the cause of the loyalist movement. Hikokuro Takayama went around the provinces propagating the principle; Kumpei Gamo visited the tombs of the deceased Emperors and publicly bewailed their neglected state. Sanyo Rai wrote a Japanese history in which he praised the Imperial House and chastised the Shogunate with a

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keen and powerful pen.

The knocking at Japan's doors by foreign countries presented ample chances for the loyalists to take advantage of the confusion and misdoings of the Shogunate Government, and public opinion finally endorsed their movement at the beginning of the 19th century.

The Ansei Coup d'État When Komei, father of Meiji the Great, came to the Throne, he did not hesitate to give Imperial suggestions and command to the Shogunate, and the Imperial power was greatly strengthened. The party which was defeated in its hopes for choosing another man for the 14th Shogun schemed a reformation of the Shogunate from within. They united with other forces and asked for an Imperial edict to accomplish their plans. The Emperor issued an edict and reprimanded the Shogunate for their rudeness in concluding treaties without the Imperial permission. Whereupon the Shogunate sent a delegate to apologize for their mistake, but at the same time the Tairo (premier) Naosuké Ii declared the coup d'état of Ansei, 1858, and punished and put into prison all who worked for the issuance of the Imperial edict. His purpose was to reestablish the governmental authority of the Shogunate. But Ii was assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun's palace in 1860.

The assassination of the Tairo gave what was to prove a final blow to the Shogunate though the Roju, Nobumasa Ando, schemed a combination or amalgamation of the Imperial Court and the Shogunate to save the latter from ruin. Some of the powerful lords in the west responded to the idea for a time, but public opinion was overwhelmingly against this amalgamation movement on the part of the pro-Shogun party, and the anti-Yedo movement increased still more in power. Most of the loyalists gathered in Kyoto and hotly discussed the matter. The ronin or unemployed samurai flocked to the cause in such great numbers that it was necessary for the armies of the lords of Satsuma, Tosa and Choshu to keep them in bounds in order to preserve the peace of the city.

On the other hand, the Emperor Komei sent a messenger to Yedo to urge the reformation of the Shogunate Government. The Shogun Iyeshigé tried to make improvements in the system of Sankin-kotai, etc., but it was too late to regain the support of the people. The Namamugi incident, in which three Englishmen were killed or injured by the lord of Shimazu's samurai and England demanding compensation, stirred the extreme anti-foreign party to fury and the Kyoto Court sent Sanétomi Sanjo this time to Yédo and ordered the Shogunate to wage war against all foreigners. In 1863 an Anti-Foreign Edict was issued by the Shogunate, and the armies of the Choshu and Satsuma lords attacked foreign merchant ships and warships. The fanatical Kyoto loyalists demanded that a nation-wide anti-foreign movement should be launched, and the Emperor was inclined to take command of the movement himself, but the more sagacious and saner-minded princes and lords advised him to realize the unwisdom of anti-foreign action, and the leaders of the radical element lost influence and fled to the west. For a while the schism among the loyalists persisted, but the object lesson of the bombardment of Shimonoseki by a combined foreign fleet weakened the anti-foreign movement to a great extent. By 1867, when the Emperor Meiji ascended to the Throne, the anti-foreign movement had died away and the loyalists were solely

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concerned with the destruction of the Shogunate régime, recognizing the inability of the Shogunate to sustain the national honour in the crisis.

Prince Sanetomi Sanjo, one of the seven court nobles who had fled to the west, joined Prince Tomomi Iwakura in leading the anti-Shogunate movement. The hostility between the two greatest of the western lords, Shimazu, lord of Satsuma province and Mori of Choshu or Nagato, was pacified by the arbitration of Prince Sanjo and they became strongly united in the common cause. Prince Iwakura succeeded in making a definite plan for the destruction of the Shogunate, gathering many young and gifted samurai under these two lords, such as Takamori Saigo, Toshimichi Okubo of Satsuma and Takayoshi Kido of Nagato, etc., and asked the Imperial sanction for their movement.

On October 14, 1867, the Emperor Meiji gave orders to the Satsuma and Choshu lords to open hostilities against the Yedo Government. On the side of the Shogunate Toyonobu Yamanouchi, former lord of Tosa in Shikoku, was informed of this secret plan of the Imperial army, and being anxious to avert the impending civil war sent Shojiro Goto to present a memorial to the Shogun Yoshinobu (Keiki) Tokugawa, advising his surrender of the sovereign authority. Whereupon Yoshinobu, who was staying at Kyoto, immediately called an assembly of the representative samurai of the lords then staying in the city to the Nijo Castle on October 13, 1867, and asked their opinion on his determination to surrender. The assembly gladly agreed to his decision on the initiative of Shojiro Goto and Tateaki Komatsu, a subject of the Satsuma lord. On October 14, Yoshinobu presented a written request for the Imperial permission, and on October 24 the resignation of the Shogun was formally tendered to the Throne. Thus the Yedo Shogunate ended with the 15th Shogun, after having continued for 265 years, and after a total period of 675 years the sovereign authority was restored to the Throne.

The Meiji Restoration

In December of the same year, the Emperor Meiji issued an important order abolishing the old officialdom and forming a new Dajokan which should consist of the president, councillors and vice-councillors, and proclaiming the direct rule of the Throne in every line of national government. The Imperial Prince Arisugawa was appointed President of the Dajokan, and those court nobles and feudal lords who had faithfully worked for the restoration were given the position of councillors, while some other men of ability were made vice-councillors from among the nobles and common samurai, and the people were allowed to live in complete equality, discarding the old castes of nobles or common people. This change was called "Ishin" or the renovation of all things. In the following year, 1868, or the first year of Meiji, the Emperor by the advice of Takayoshi (Koin) Kido, a vice-councillor, called together the princes and high officials to the Shishin-den or central palace and took the famous oath of five articles before the ancestral gods. These five articles of the Imperial oath provided the foundation to the new régime. They were as follows: "(1) We will call councils and rule the nation according to public opinion; (2) Men of upper and lower classes without distinction shall be united in all enterprises; (3) Civil officials and military officers shall be in one accord and all the common people shall be so treated that they can attain their

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aims and feel no discontent; (4) Old unworthy ways and customs shall be destroyed and the people shall walk along the highway of heaven and earth; and (5) Knowledge shall be sought among the nations of the world and the Empire shall be led up to the zenith of prosperity. To accomplish this unprecedented reformation, We go before the people, and proclaim the fundamental national principles, even in the presence of the gods of heaven and earth, to establish the way for the public welfare. Ye, Our subjects, shall be united all together, according to these principles." In August of the same year, the formal celebration of the Emperor's ascension to the Throne was held at the central palace, and in September the year-name Meiji was given.

Removal of the Capital The Emperor Meiji paid his first visit to Tokyo in the first year and made the castle of Yédo his permanent palace in the second year of the new era. The Government was subsequently removed to Tokyo.

The Organization In the first year of Meiji, 1868, a new Central Government was established in accordance with the five principles above mentioned. It was called Dajokan, or Great Government, and there were seven departments in it. The council played the part of the future parliament; the five departments of general political, religious, financial, and military and foreign affairs were administrative; and the last penal department took charge of justice. And the mutual independence of the legislature, the executive and the judicature was for the first time established. In a few years several adjustments were made, but by the fourth year all the official machinery of the central government was systematically arranged.

Surrender of Fiefs The Imperial Court had confiscated all the territory belonging to the old Shogunate, and set up prefectural offices and appointed governors, but the feudal lords still owned their lands and their feudal subjects. In the first year of Meiji, Takayoshi (Koin) Kido submitted an opinion on the surrender of all feudal possessions to the Emperor, to complete the purpose of the Restoration, through Sanétomi Sanjo and Tomomi Iwakura; and at the same time he advised Lord Mori, Daimyo of Nagato, to return his territory to the Court, and the latter agreed and was willing to do so. Thereupon Takayoshi Kido worked with Toshimichi Okubo and succeeded in getting the consent of Lord (Daimyo) Shimazu of Satsuma, Lord Nabeshima of Hizen and Lord Yamanouchi of Tosa. These four lords tendered their petition for the territorial surrender in joint signature. Other lords followed them, and their petition was accepted in the second year. The lords gave up all their land and people, asking for nothing in return in a most admirable spirit of patriotism and loyalty. For the time being they were requested to continue as governors of their districts, and the feudal system was completely destroyed.

The country was divided into 8 urban prefectures, 26 prefectures and 262 clan districts. But the governors of clan districts, the former feudal lords, governed their people mostly in the old style, preserving the "chief-and-subject" relation. The orders and ways of administration were greatly distorted and the authority of the Central Government was ineffective. Fortunately, however, Yoshii of Gumma and Sayama of Osaka soon resigned their governorships, realizing the defects of the system, and many others followed their lead. Kido again was

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quick enough to grasp the situation, and taking advantage of the general trend he endeavoured with his powerful friends Toshimichi Okubo and Takamori Saigo to do away with the clan governors and unify the whole nation under the same form of prefectural government. The Emperor called all the clan district governors to Tokyo in 1871, and kindly explained to them about tbe abolition of their office. They were given conveniences to live in Tokyo, and were replaced by the prefectural governors. Through many changes, the country was finally divided as at present into one "Do", three urban prefectures and forty-three prefectures in 1889. (Foreign relations are dealt with in Chapter VI.)

Social Reforms

After the cessation of samurai government the social system could not remain unaltered. In 1869, when the resignation of the lords was accepted, the name of "Kugé" (court noble) and "Daimyo" (feudal lord) were abolished and the nobles and lords were all made "Kazoku" (flowers of the nation) or peers. Clan samurai were given the class-name of Shizoku, and in the following year the common people were allowed to take their own family names, which they had not previously borne. In 1871, intermarriage was permitted between the peers and Heimin or common people, while the peers and "Shizoku" were allowed to engage in the ordinary business of agriculture, industry and commerce. Thus the social castes of the feudal age were entirely broken to pieces. Social institutions and customs changed also. With the official recognition of friendly intercourse with foreign people, international traffic and relations became busier and more intimate. Many a Japanese who went abroad brought back Western customs and introduced new institutions, and the people were quick to adopt them in their social daily life. In the second year of Meiji telegraphic communication was opened between Tokyo and Yokohama; in the fourth year, the regular mail service began between Tokyo, Kyoto and Osaka; and in the fifth year, the first train ran between Tokyo and Yokohama. In the fourth year, men were ordered to cut off their topknots and walk on the street without wearing a sword. In the same year, laws regarding European costumes and uniforms of officials were issued, the old lunar calendar was discarded and the solar calendar was adopted in its place, and national holidays were newly appointed. In 1871, the Department of Education was added to the Government and, in 1872, the national educational system was established and it became compulsory for all children to be sent to public elementary schools. Buildings in European styles began to appear in the cities and people gradually acquired a taste for foreign food.

New Military System

After the appearance of the Samurai class in the middle age they held all the military power in their hands, and the people at large had nothing to do with it. But with the reforms following the Restoration, the military system was also revised and in the fifth year of Meiji the provisional Department of Military Affairs was changed into the two departments of Army and Marine, and in the following year the law of conscription was issued and, in accordance with the old-time ideas of the Japanese and on the pattern of the European powers the people were all ordered to share in universal military service for the protec-

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tion of the country. The military system has made singular progress through many national crises in the Meiji Era.

Cultivation of Hokkaido

At the beginning of the Meiji Era the cultivation of the waste land of the north was proposed, and in the second year the Colonization Bureau was opened. The name Hokkaido, or north-sea-district, was given to the land, formerly known as Yezo. In the third year, Kiyotaka Kuroda was appointed vice-president of the Bureau and he made untiring efforts to civilize the natives, to construct roads, to promote industry and to encourage immigrants from the other islands. In 1875, he invited the Samurai class of the three north-eastern prefectures of the Main Island to form a colonial militia to let them guard and cultivate the land at the same time. The farming and population of Hokkaido have rapidly increased since. A troublesome question in the north was the boundary between Japan and Russia. The Shogunate had had several diplomatic negotiations with the Russian admirals, and at the beginning of the Meiji Era this question again arose with the opening of the Colonization Bureau. Japan's wish was to divide the Island of Saghalien into two with the border line at 50° north latitude. Kuroda wished to abandon Saghalien and concentrate all efforts on the colonization of Hokkaido, and the Government sent Vice-Admiral Buyo Enomoto to Russia and tried to settle the question. In 1875 a compromise was reached and the whole of Saghalien was adjudged to belong to Russia and all the Kurile Islands were given to Japan. This so-called exchange of Saghalien and the Kuriles finally settled the long dispute over Japan's northern boundaries.

Civil Wars

The Cause The political and social reforms of the Meiji Restoration were so vast in scale and so rapid in progress that the mass of the people could hardly understand their need and meaning, being still prone to the old ways and systems. There were some who were offended by various policies of the Government. Those people became a constant cause of political and social unrest, there were repeatedly assassinations of high officials; while in the country districts disturbances broke out one after another. Shimpei Yeto, caused some troubles in Saga prefecture; but he was soon subdued by the Imperial army. In Kumamoto, an adjacent prefecture to Saga, Otaguro and others formed a party which was called the Jimpuren or Divine-wind-party, and made an attack on the Kumamoto garrison in 1876, only to be defeated by the soldiers of the garrison. At Hagi, the north-western end of the Main Island, Maehara arose in accord with the Jimpuren party, but he was also killed and his men dispersed.

The Saigo Rebellion Takamori Saigo could not realize his ideas about the Korean problem, and was deeply grieved at the failure. After his resignation he went back to his native place, Kagoshima, at the southern end of Kyushu Island. Over a hundred officers and soldiers who had been under him in the Tokyo Imperial Guard followed him to the city and it caused a great commotion in the country. His followers, such as ex-major-generals Kirino and Shinowara, elected Saigo to the leadership of their party and the head of their private school. In 1877 Saigo, Kirino and Shinowara gathered an army of over 15,000 soldiers, proclaiming their intention of impeach-

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ing the Government for its social and political failures, and came up to Kumamoto and besieged the Kumamoto castle of the Imperial garrison. But the commander of the garrison, Major-General Tateki Tani, bravely fought against Saigo's army and did not surrender. The Emperor Meiji was then travelling in the districts near Kyoto and Osaka, and stopped in Kyoto to take command of the Imperial army. He appointed the Imperial Prince Arisugawa to be Commander-in-Chief, and Lieutenant-General Aritomo Yamagata and Vice-Admiral Sumiyoshi Kawamura to be the heads of the army and navy respectively. Saigo's troops were compelled to raise the siege under the pressure of the big Imperial armies, and they retreated in disorder back to Kagoshima, and made Shiroyama their final stronghold. Shiroyama was a promontory in the outskirts of the town and there the great Saigo killed himself with his colleagues in the face of the assailing Imperial soldiers. This rebellion was really the last of the civil wars accompanying the Restoration. After this South-Western Civil War, the wounded soldiers, loyalist and rebel alike, were cared for impartially at the Imperial army hospitals, and the Emperor Meiji, the Empress and the Empress-Dowager showed them special kindness. It may be mentioned that the Japan Red Cross Society was founded on this occasion.

Dawn of Constitutional Government

The Constitution In the first year of Meiji, government institutions were reformed in many ways, and representatives of prefectures were made members of the lower council. In the following year the public assembly was opened, and the prefectural representatives became its members. But this assembly consisted of members who were all chosen by the Government, and it gave rise to a demand for the establishment of an assembly of representatives really elected by the people. In 1873 Kido, who had come back from his European tour of investigation, proposed the establishment of the national constitution; while, in 1874, Soyejima, Goto, Itagaki and Yeto presented a petition for the establishment of parliament by popular election. The Government did not adopt either proposal as the time was not yet ripe, but in 1875 they established the Genro-in, a kind of Senate, as the chief seat of legislation, and the Supreme Court of Judicature for the administration of justice, and summoned district governors to Tokyo to learn of the requirements of the people. In 1876, the Emperor ordered the Genro-in to make plans for the formation of the Imperial Constitution and in 1879 prefectural assemblies were opened for deciding on district finances and representative government was first tried in the local districts.

Prefectural Elections The South Western Civil War was ended and the foundation of the Central Government became unshakable. But in a few years Japan lost most of her able statesmen one after another. Saigo died in the battle just mentioned, Kido passed away from illness, and Okubo was assassinated in 1878. These were the three pillars of the Reformation, and Shigénobu Okuma, Hirobumi Ito and the like had to carry on their strenuous task. Public faith in these new statesmen was not yet assured, but they were young and progressive and endeavoured to absorb Western ways and civilization for the benefit of the rising generation. In April, 1878, the second local governors' conference was held and Ito was its

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chairman. The items for discussion were rules on prefectural assemblies, local taxes, and the organization of towns and villages. In July of the same year the rules on prefectural assemblies were issued, and according to the articles public election of representatives and local self-government were for the first time put into practice in the following year. This was a further step toward constitutional government. As a matter of fact, it might be considered a rehearsal of the formation of a national diet. The election was most sincerely carried out, because the people honoured the candidates as those who must in truth represent them not only in wisdom and political ideas but also in personality and social standard. The result was that the prefectural assemblies were composed of the best class of men in the districts. For instance, the chairman of the Tokyo prefectural assembly was Genichiro Fukuchi and the vice-president was Yukichi Fukuzawa, founder of Keio-Gijuku University, while the members were all men of honour. The famous members of the Imperial Diet and great statesmen of later days mostly came out of these primitive local assemblies.

Political Dissensions Political dissensions, which had appeared even under the turmoil of military struggles, came to the fore, and hot discussions on both sides were carried on both in debates and through printed pamphlets. The one who attracted most public attention with his progressive opinions was Taisuké Itagaki of Tosa. In September, 1878, a meeting was held at Osaka under the leadership of Itagaki's society to pass a resolution calling for the realization of the national assembly. It was a meeting of Samurai-class people as yet. But their second meeting, in March, 1879, gathered together 80 members who represented 21 societies in 19 prefectures, and the third meeting in November made resolutions to send a petition to the Emperor, and drafted a letter with a long heading, "Letter of Appeal to the Public for demanding the establishment of the National Assembly," which was printed and distributed among the people.

Petition for Opening Diet In the city of Okayama, a little west of Kobé, hot-blooded young politicians composed a manifesto and distributed it, whose earnest and beautiful sentences moved their youthful contemporaries more strongly than the first had done. When the fourth meeting of the Patriots' Society was held at Osaka in April, 1880, 114 delegates from the 87,000 members of different societies met together, formed the "Volunteers' Association for Demanding the Opening of the National Assembly," and drafted a petition. It is said that over 50 such petitions were presented to the Government during the one year of 1880. In the midst of such movements a new scholar of French politics, Kimmochi Saionji, the only surviving Genro or Elder Statesman at present, came back from Paris and published the "Toyo Jiyu Shimbun" (Eastern Liberal News), and instructed the people in the principles of liberal politics, to the great surprise of the authorities. The acute state of affairs seemed to presage the early appearance of an Imperial Diet when the political events of 1881 occurred.

Imperial Edict Issued In that year the Government was going to sell to the Kansai Trade Society the land, buildings, ships, dock and hunting fields which belonged to the Colonization Bureau. The actual price was estimated at a little over ¥300,000, while the Government invested and spent as much as ¥14,096,800 for

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them. There was a strong suspicion of favouritism for the Kagoshima merchants, for many of the high officials came from that district, and criticisms arose against the abuse. This public criticism was caught up by those who demanded liberty and they bitterly censured the official autocracy. The very evening of his return from a tour of the northeastern districts on the 11th of October, the Emperor Meiji gathered together the members of the Cabinet and the councillors and a meeting was held in his presence at which it was resolved that the government sale should be stopped at once and that the Imperial Diet should be summoned in the twenty-third year of Meiji, (1890). These resolutions were published in the Imperial edict issued on the following day, October 12th, 1881. With the issuing of this edict the boisterous outbursts of discussion and debate among the people gradually died down and political parties began to be organized for carrying out their political principles in readiness for the opening of the parliament ten years later. The principal ones were the Jiyu-to, Liberal party of Taisuké Itagaki and the Kaishin-to, or Progressive Party of Shigenobu Okuma.

Preparation of Constitution In 1882 the Government sent Hirobumi Ito to make thorough investigations regarding Western institutions, to find good models and suggestions for the Japanese parliament. Ito and his attendants mostly stayed in Germany and there studied Western politics and constitutions, and came back in the following year. In 1884 the Government established an Investigation Bureau in a part of the Imperial Palace and appointing Ito the president of the Bureau, ordered him to make out a draft of the Constitution and plans for the new institutions. It was in this year that a law for the peers was enacted and the five ranks of nobility—prince, marquis, count, viscount and baron—were first defined. In 1885, at the instance of Prince Sanjo and to lay the foundation for true constitutional government, the officialism of the Central Government was reformed and a real Cabinet of a modern nature was formed for the first time, the old positions of councillor and minister being abolished. It consisted of the Premier and Ministers for Home Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Finance, Army, Marine, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce, and Communications. The function of these ministers was to take joint responsibility on national politics in place of the Emperor and help him in good government over his faithful subjects. In the Court there were the Naidaijin or Keeper of the Privy Seal and the Minister of the Imperial Household. The first Premier was Ito himself, who held the additional post of the Ministership of the Imperial Household. In 1888 the Privy Council was established, the most excellent and patriotic statesmen were appointed to its membership, and it was made the highest body for the Imperial consultation on important political affairs. Ito again was the first President of the Privy Council. The draft of the Constitution was completed by this year and the Emperor put it before the Privy Council as the first item of discussion. The Emperor Meiji was present in all sessions on the Constitution, earnestly listening to the opinions of the different members, and played a great part himself in the resolutions.

Promulgation of the Constitution On the 11th of February, the 2549th anniversary of the accession of Jimmu Tenno, 1889 in Western reckoning, the Emperor Meiji reverently

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reported the promulgation of the Constitution to the ancestral gods and appeared in person with the Empress before the Imperial Princess, Cabinet ministers, high officials, representative people, and foreign ministers, and solemnly issued the Imperial Constitution. (See Appendix.) He issued an accompanying law relating to the Imperial family which regulated future accessions, and relative positions of the Imperial Princes, that no trouble might ensue on the question of the successor to the Throne. Other laws which were to accompany the Constitution were on the election of the members of the lower house of parliament and the institution of it. They were issued in the same year, and in November, 1890, the first Imperial Diet was convened in Tokyo and the opening ceremony was held in the presence of the Emperor. Local self-government had been established and improvements made in the institutions of cities and towns for the past two years and in this year another improvement in the prefectural and county institutions was made, confirming their self-government, although the county government was abolished later.

Laws Since the downfall of feudalism and return of fiefs to the Emperor, the enacted uniform laws for the proper control of the people became an acute necessity and the Government first took in hand the criminal laws and issued revised ones in the sixth year of Meiji. Other laws were revised or newly compiled according to the need of the progressive society and with due regard to foreign relations. The code of civil procedure, the commercial law and the civil law were enforced by 1899. The criminal law was revised in 1908 and the code of civil procedure in 1924 according to the advanced ideals and needs of the times.

Revision of Treaties
(See Chapter VI)

Sino-Japanese War

The War In August, 1894 Japan declared war against China, and the Emperor located his headquarters at Hiroshima to command his armies more effectively. Lieutenant-General Notsu routed the Chinese soldiers and drove them back from the boundaries of Korea in that month, and Vice-Admiral Yukyo Ito, Commander-in-Chief of the combined fleet, defeated the Chinese North-Sea fleet on the Yellow Sea. In October, Commander Aritomo Yamagata led his First Army through Chosen to Southern Manchuria and advanced victoriously to the west, while Commander Iwao Oyama, head of the Second Army, crossed the Yellow Sea and entered China direct, to act in conjunction with the Imperial fleet on the sea. Port Arthur was captured in November and Weihaiwei in February, 1895, and the Chinese naval power was annihilated. In March, the peninsula of Liaotung was seized by the Japanese armies and Peking was threatened by attack, while Southern China lay at the mercy of the Japanese fleet. The Emperor Meiji appointed Imperial Prince Akihito Arisugawa generalissimo over the whole army and navy to reduce China to submission. China yielded and asked for peace, appointing Li Hung-chang ambassador. Japanese ambassadors Premier Ito and Foreign Minister Mutsu met him at a peace conference at Shimonoseki. According to the peace treaty concluded in April, 1895, China recognized Korean independence, gave Japan the Liaotung Peninsula, Formosa and Boko Islands, paid about ¥300,000,000 to her, and opened four new ports for trade.

Return of Liaotung In alliance with Germany and France Russia inter-

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vened and advised Japan to give back the territory to China, and the Peninsula was returned to China at the end of 1895 for an indemnity of about ₹45,000,000.

The newly acquired territory of Formosa was first governed by Governor-General Kabayama. In 1896, the whole island of Formosa was pacified and the new people began to understand the Japanese rule. In 1898 Gentaro Kodama became the Governor-General and encouraged industry and improved traffic so much that the Island was really transformed into a valuable part of the Empire. After the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese Government and people united their efforts in many enterprises. Military preparations were strengthened, schools improved in number and quality, industry and commerce throve, communications were also greatly improved, and the national power remarkably augumented. In 1897 Japan adopted the gold standard, on the foundation of the gold coin received from China as indemnity.

The Boxer Rebellion In the meanwhile, anti-foreign feeling began to spread over the Chinese people, and, in 1899, the so-called "Boxer Rebellion" suddenly broke out in Shantung. The party hoisted the banners of "protect China, exterminate foreigners", murdered many Christian missionaries, destroyed churches, and, in the following year, advanced to Tientsin and attacked the residences of Europeans there. Later they united with the Government soldiers controlled by the Empress-Dowager and coming up to Peking attacked the foreign legations, some Japanese and German delegates being killed, and Japan headed the combined forces of the Powers which marched on the capital for the relief of the legations. The Chinese yielded, asked for peace, punished the leaders of the anti-foreign movement, and agreed to pay a 450,000,000 tael indemnity, and to send delegates to Japan and Germany to make apology.

Anglo-Japanese Alliance After the experience of the North China incident, England abandoned her historical policy of "splendid isolation" and allied with Japan in 1902 for mutual help in the Far Eastern problems. According to the terms of the Alliance, Japan and England were to be united in maintaining Chinese and Korean territorial integrity and to help each other if any two other nations united to attack either one of the allies in the Far East.

Russo-Japanese War

Russia Reluctant to Go Under pressure of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the American Government, Russia promised China to return Manchuria, but was by no means ready to keep her promise and on the contrary, in 1903, she sent larger armies to Manchuria and was busy constructing permanent strongholds at Port Arthur, dispatched warships to the port, appointed Alexeiev Governor-General with his headquarters at Port Arthur, acted as the sovereign power in diplomatic, civil and military affairs in the Far East, and in August of the same year invaded the northern part of Korea. This unrestrained Russian advance menaced the territorial integrity of Korea, the existence of Japan, and the peace of the Far East, and Japan was compelled to take a firm stand against these designs, proposing a mutual understanding about the limitations of rights of both nations to avoid the impending danger of collision. But during the course of the negotiations, Russia continued to menace Japan, treating her with contempt and preserving her own aggressive attitude. The Japanese

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final proposal, on the problems in Manchuria, of the 12th of January, 1904, was left unanswered by Russia for two weeks, and the Imperial declaration of war against Russia was issued on Feb. 10th, 1904.

War on Sea The combined fleet of Admiral Togo immediately attacked the Russian warships off Port Arthur and Chinnampo and constantly pressed the Russian navy in Port Arthur. The warships in Vladivostok often came out into Japanese waters, harassed the communications of the Japanese army on the continent and hindered the transport of soldiers, but they were also destroyed in August by the second squadron under Rear-Admiral Kamimura.

War on Land On the land, General Kuroki headed the First Army and marched into Manchuria through Korea in May; the Second Army of General Oku was landed at the Liaotung peninsula and devising a united stratagem with the Fourth Army of General Notsu defeated the enemy in every place, and the three armies simultaneously advanced to Liaoyang. In June the Emperor ordered Generalissimo Oyama, Commander-in-Chief of all the armies, and General Kodama, Chief of the General Staff, to go to the front, and they spurred the whole army to victory over the Russian soldiers in the town. In October the Russian reinforced armies came down to retake the town, but the Japanese armies encountered them at Shaho and defeated them.

In the meantime the Third Army under General Nogi turned from Liaotung to the attack of Port Arthur. Nogi began the famous but awful siege warfare, and captured the so-called "203-metre hill" in December. In January, 1905, General Stoessel, head of the Russian garrison, surrendered to General Nogi and sued for peace.

After the unsuccessful Battle of Sha-ho the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army, General Kuropatkin, gathered over 600,000 soldiers at Mukden and awaited his chance. In February, 1905, the Japanese Manchurian armies were reinforced by the Third Army from Port Arthur, and General Kawamura's Yalu River army, and rallying 400,000 soldiers they advanced towards Mukden from three ways. After a fierce battle of 14 days the Japanese armies defeated the immense armies of the enemy, who returned to the north in a complete rout. This momentous event was on the tenth of March, 1905.

The Baltic Fleet Before the downfall of Port Arthur and the defeat at Mukden, Russia had seen the weakness of her naval power in Japanese waters, delaying any possible victory over Japan. She, therefore, had formed the Second and Third Pacific Squadrons out of her Baltic fleet, and had sent them to the Pacific under the leadership of Vice-Admiral Rozdhestvensky. The Russian squadron made a long voyage to the Far East and Togo was able to make full plans to meet them in the most convenient place for the Japanese fleet. Had the Russian warships safely entered the port of Vladivostok the defenceless shores of Japan would have been exposed to their bombardment while the Japanese Manchurian armies might have been starved to death, unable to get supplies from the home Islands. Togo was right when he hoisted high on the main-mast of his flagship the signal, "The fate of Japan will be decided with this battle; every sailor is requested to exert his best for the country," at the moment the outlines of the Russian fleet came into sight. The 38 boats of the two Russian squadrons sailed straight in majestic lines for

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their destination across the East China Sea. Togo kept the utmost secrecy as to his hiding place and chose the narrow Tsushima Straits to encounter the Russian fleet. It took only a few hours from the evening of the 27th of May to the following morning to sink most of the Russian warships or blow them to pieces, and Rozdhestvensky and his staff were taken captive. In July of the same year a part of the Japanese army was landed at Saghalien and subduing the Russian resistance quickly captured the whole Island.

The Peace Mr. Roosevelt, President of the United States, initiated peace-proposals between Japan and Russia, seeing the disastrous condition, financial or otherwise, which threatened both countries after the battles at Mukden and the Japan Sea. He was successful in pursuading the rival parties to open a peace conference in America. Japan sent Jutaro Komura and Kogoro Takahira as her ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary to Portsmouth, to meet with the Russian ambassadors Witte and Rosen. The peace treaty was concluded in September, 1905. Russia recognized the supreme rights of Japan over Korea, surrendered the southern half of Saghalien to Japan, and handed over the special rights of lease which she possessed in Kwantung, the railroad south of Changchun and the mining of coal along it.

After the Russo-Japanese War

Post-war Readjustment The Russo-Japanese war raised Japan's position in world politics, putting her almost on the same level as the European Powers, especially in regard to Oriental affairs. The international relations of Japan with the Western Powers became so intimate and important that all of them exchanged ambassadors with Japan in place of the former ministers. In home affairs, Japan made special efforts in the education of the people to keep abreast with the times. Industry in all lines leaped forward under the leadership of able business men. The state-ownership of railroads was realized to improve the traffic of the Islands. The patriotic contributions of the business men and merchants after the war must not be overlooked. In 1906 Port Arthur was made a naval station for the defence of the Kwantung littoral, and the South Manchuria Railway Company was established to manage the railroad and mining business which had been handed over by Russia. Dairen and a part of Port Arthur were opened for international trade. In 1907 the Saghalien national boundary was fixed at 50° north latitude, and the Government opened an office there and encouraged the emigration of Japanese to the island.

Relation with Korea

(See Chapter VI.)

Treaties with Powers

(See Chapter VI.)

Demise of the Emperor Meiji In July, 1912, the Emperor Meiji passed away after only a few weeks of illness in his Tokyo Palace. His demise caused such profound grief among the people that an English correspondent was said to have telegraphed home "Japan is going into a decline!" with the death of the great Emperor. He died beloved of all, a love which was attested by the splendid Meiji Shrine which was built in his honour, and which draws more worshipers than any other shrine. The Emperor Yoshihito (the late Emperor Taisho), came to the Throne immediately after his father's death, according to the provisions in the Imperial code on the succession.

Blending of East and West Immedi-

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ately after the Restoration the Government had been eager to invite and introduce all things Western, and the people had responded to the policy with alacrity. There followed, as a matter of fact, an age of Europeanization. It was during those days that so many Japanese treasures of Buddhism and fine arts went out of the Islands for very meagre amounts of money, and many beautiful old customs and precedents were carelessly dropped. But then came the victories over China and Russia and they gave confidence and conviction to the Japanese and they turned from a mere imitation of the West to the recognition of their own special abilities and valuable inheritances. Cries for the preservation of national characteristics were raised and the blending of the Occidental and Oriental civilizations, the creation of a new Meiji civilization, was started and the nation began to make a steady and healthy advance in all phases of national life.

The World War

Japan's Contribution In August, 1914, the World War broke out and Japan was compelled according to the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance to take necessary steps to combat German activities in the Orient. She requested Germany to withdraw her war vessels from Japanese and Chinese waters, and to return Shantung by a fixed date to China. Needless to say, Germany did not comply, and Japan declared war in the same month.

Tsingtao Falls Japan lost no time in dispatching her army and navy to Tsingtao. The Second Squadron commanded by Vice-Admiral Sadakichi Kato blockaded the gulf while the First Squadron of Tomosaburo Kato kept watch over the Yellow Sea and other Chinese north-eastern seas. The 18th Divisional Commander Kanwo attacked the fortress from behind, in conjunction with the navy. Some British troops also took part and they all besieged the fortress in October, 1914. The attack was so aggressive that in but ten days all the batteries were captured and in November the German Governor Waldeck and his staff surrendered the port and fortress. In deeper waters, the Japanese Third Squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Tsuchiya kept watch over not only the Chinese seas but also as far as the Philippine waters. A detachment of the First Squadron was sent to the South Seas and acting in concert with the British navy tried to destroy the German Asiatic fleet, the Marshall Islands were occupied in September, and the Mariana and Caroline Islands in October, and possession was taken of all German naval stations in the South Seas. British vessels met the German fleet in the Indian Ocean, and off the coast of South Africa, and destroyed it in December, 1914. With it Germany's strength in the Orient was altogether wiped out.

Japan helped Russia also chiefly by enabling her to attend to the War without any anxiety about Eastern affairs, supplying her with ammunitions as much as she could. Russia was grateful for this friendly attitude of Japan and the relations of the two nations became more intimate, and a new treaty was concluded in 1916 to co-operate for the maintenance of perpetual peace in the Far East, and to negotiate freely with each other for the protection and defence of the special rights and territorial domination already recognized, instead of competing. With the progress of the World War, Japan dispatched a special-service fleet as far as the Mediterranean. The special-service fleet tried their best

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to protect trade and communications in that part by bravely and effectively attacking German submarines in co-operation with the European fleets and in harmony with the orders of the British Mediterranean fleet Commander. In 1917 the Russian Revolution broke out in the midst of the War. The Romanoff dynasty was overthrown and the radical revolutionaries came into power and concluded peace singly with Germany. This resulted in the permeation of the military influence of Germany and Austria into Russia and even to the Far East. A large body of Czechoslovak troops who had escaped into Russia, and were trying to make their way home to Europe by way of Siberia, suffered greatly in consequence. Japan kept a keen watch on these Russian disorders. In 1918 she sent ships to Vladivostok for the protection of the Japanese residents and to maintain order in that district for the international benefit, in co-operation with the warships of other nations. And later, in agreement with America, Japan dispatched an army under General Otani to Vladivostok and helped the Czecho army, in conjunction with the soldiers of other nations.

Japanese Massacred In March 1920 the Japanese garrison and citizens, about 700 in all, were massacred by Russian communists at Nikolaievsk, which caused intense indignation in Japan. She sent armies to Siberia immediately and occupied a part of the coast district and the remainder of Saghalien. Negotiations were opened again between the two nations and in 1925 a new Russo-Japanese treaty was concluded. According to its terms Japan withdrew her soldiers from North Saghalien while Russia gave Japan the mining rights and freedom of cultivating the oilfields in that district.

The Kanto Earthquake On Sept. 1st, 1923, Japan underwent the sad experience of the Kanto earthquake, in which tens of thousands of houses were destroyed or damaged in Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shizuoka, Saitama and Chiba prefectures, and a hundred thousand people were killed or injured, with an estimated loss of several thousand million yen. (See Chapter I.) The great fires caused by the earthquake in Tokyo and Yokohama caused far more deaths than those which were directly attributable to the shocks. But, undaunted by the terrible disaster, the people not only of the metropolis but of all Japan stood up in a splendid spirit of determination to reconstruct all her damaged cities and towns by the help of the sympathetic nations of America and Europe. The wonderful improvement in the streets and buildings of the new cities materially exhibited the strength of Japan's national power, so that the great earthquake rather quickened than retarded the splendid advance of Japan as a whole.

Demise of the Emperor Taisho In December, 1926, the Emperor Taisho passed away at the Hayama Winter Palace and the Regent, Crown Prince Hirohito, succeeded him as Ruler, the year-name of Showa, or Enlightened Peace, being given to his era. Under his rule Japan is continuing her painstaking efforts to keep pace with the world progress and cope with complicated international relations.

The birth of Manchoukuo in 1932 and the trade and industrial expansion in recent years have greatly strengthened Japan's position in the Orient.

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Chronicle of Important Events

Age of Traditions
(660 B.C.–531 A.D.)

1. Beginning of the Empire
   - 660 B.C.—The Emperor Jimmu ascends to the Throne at the Kashiwara Palace, Unebiyama, Yamato province, near the present Nara.
2. Subjugation of Clans and Tribes.
   - 88 B.C. Neighbouring clans subdued by the armies of the Imperial Princes.
   - 11 A.D. The Great Shrine of Isé built by the Emperor Suinin in honour of Amaterasu-Omikami.
   - 97–110 Clans and tribes in Kyushu and the eastern half of the Main Island subdued by the armies of the Emperor Keiko and Prince Yamato-takeru his son.
   - 135 The Emperor Seimu divides his dominion into administrative districts.
3. Intercourse with Korea
   - 200 The Empress Jingo conquers Silla.
   - 285 Confucianism introduced.
   - 313 The Emperor Nintoku establishes the capital at Naniwa (Osaka) for the convenience of intercourse with Korea.
   - 463–512 Troubles with Korea.

Age of Foundation
(532–709)

4. Introduction of Continental civilization
   - 552 Buddhism introduced.
   - 562 Japanese Office in Mimana is destroyed by Silla.
   - 593 Imperial Prince Shotoku becomes Regent, and propagates Buddhism, building Horyuji and other temples.
   - 604 The Regent Shotoku proclaims the Constitution.
   - 607 An Embassy is sent to Sui.
   - 630 An Embassy is sent to Tang.
   - 645 The Sogas punished and extirpated.
   - 592–645 The Asuka or Empress Suiko's Period of Art history.
5. The Taika (Taikwa) Reformation and After.
   - 645 The custom of 'year-names' is introduced, the first one being called Taika (great reformation).
   - 646 The Taika Reformation.
   - 650 Yezo (Hokkaido) is subjugated by the army of Hirafu Abé.
   - 663 Control over the Korean Penisula is abandoned.
   - 701 The Taiho Law is promulgated and the organization of the Imperial Government is fixed.
   - 646–707 The Hakuho Period of Art history.

Nara Age
(710–793)

6. Establishment of the Capital at Nara and Compilation of a History of Japan.
   - 710 The Empress Gemmyo founds Nara as her capital.
   - 620–720 The first books of Japanese history, Nihon Shoki (Japanese Annals and Kojiki (Antiquities) are compiled.
7. Spread of Buddhism and Progress of Religious Fine Art.
   - 747 Building of Todaiji temple and other provincial temples.
   - 756 The Empress Komyo donates the treasures of the late Emperor Shomu to Todaiji temple and they are kept in the Shosoin Museum, built a little later.
   - 769 Dictatorship of Dokyo, Buddhist pope, opposed by the great loyalist Kiyomaro Waké.
   - 710–781 The Tempyo Period of Art history.

Heian Age
(794–1191)

8. Founding of Heian (Kyoto) the Capital, and troubles in the north.
   - 794 The Emperor Kammu founds the new capital Heian and the Government removes there from Nara.
   - 801 Revolts break out in Yezo, finally subduced by the expedition of Tamuramaro Sakanoué.
   - 794–800 Establishment of governmental and private schools.
   - 794–887 The Konin period of Art history.
9. Rising of the Fujiwaras.
   - 858 Yoshifusa Fujiwara assumes the Regency.
   - 887 Mototsuné Fujiwara the Daijo Daijin and Regent becomes Kampaku (Chief Councillor) at the same time.
   - 901 Michizané Sugawara, candidate for Kampaku is reduced to the position of governor of Kyushu by the Fujiwara scandal.
10. Foreign Relations.
    - 894 Official intercourse with Tang is

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broken off by the advice of Michizané Sugawara.

727-900 Bokkai, a maritime monarchy in Manchuria, trades with Japan.

11. Disorder in Rural Districts and Rise of the Samurai.

939 Masakado Taira rebels and proclaims himself Emperor.

941 Sumitomo Fujiwara disturbs the coasts of the Inland Sea but is suppressed.

960 The Samurai families of Minamoto (Genji) and Taira (Heishi or Heiké) gradually rise to power.

12. Fujiwara Despotism.

1015 Michizané Fujiwara assumes the Regency for the next 20 years and his son Yorimichi for 50 years. Climax of the Fujiwara despotism and prosperity.

13. Incessant Wars.

1019 Toi tribe in the north-eastern part of Korea invades the islands of Iki and Tsushima.

1028 Tadatsuné Taira's treason in Shimoosa province.

1039 Armies of Buddhist monks rise in revolt.

1054–1062 The Abés in the Ohu district declare independence.

1086 The ex-Emperor Shirakawa takes part in politics for nearly 40 years and sets a precedent for government by ex-Emperors.

1085–1087 The Ohu district is again disturbed by the Kiyowaras.

1087 For about a century the family of Kiyohira Fujiwara who subdued the Kiyowaras rules over the Ohu district.

1156 Strife between the armies of the Emperor and the ex-Emperor (Hogén war).

1159 The Fujiwaras and Minamotos wage war against another branch of the Fujiwaras and the Tairas (Heiji war).

14. The Gen-pei (Minamoto and Taira) Period.

1167 Kiyomori Taira promoted to Daijo Daijin.

1167–1180 Autocracy of Kiyomori and his family.

1180 Rise of the Minamotos in rivalry to the Tairas. Yoritomo Minamoto establishes headquarters at Kamakura.

1185. The Tairas destroyed by the armies of Yoshitsuné, brother of Yoritomo.

1185 Yoritomo appoints local military police and tax-gatherers for rural districts.

989–1185 The Fujiwara Period of Art history.

Kamakura Age
(1192–1337)

15. Beginning of the Kamakura Shogunate Régime.

1192 Yoritomo Minamoto promoted to Seii-Tai-Shogun (Generalissimo) and the Shogun Government formally sanctioned. For the next 675 years Japan ruled by the 'samurai statesmen'.

1204 Tokimasa Hojo becomes chief executive of the Shogunate régime.

1219 Minamoto Shogunate ends with the third Shogun, Sanétomo. But Masako, widow of Yoritomo, (called the 'Ama' or Nun Shogun) officiates as Shogun for several years.

1221 Trouble between the Kyoto Court and the Hojos (Shokyu affair).

16. Hojo Rule.

1224 Yasutoki Hojo becomes chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate.

The Hojos continue to exercise the Shogun's duties for over a century.

1232 The Joyei Code promulgated for the discipline of the samurai.

1274 Yuan invasion.

1281 Second Yuan invasion and defeat by the armies of Tokimuné Hojo, the chief executive.

1324 An attempt for the restoration of the Imperial Rule.

1331 War between the Imperial and the Hojo armies.

1333 The Hojos destroyed.

17. The Emperor Godaigo and Takauji Ashikaga

1333 Temporary restoration of the Imperial direct rule by the Emperor Godaigo.

1335 Takauji Ashikaga rebels against the Emperor.

1336 Masashigé Kusunoki, famous loyalist, dies in the battle of Minatogawa (Kobé).

1336 The Emperor Godaigo moves to Yoshino mountain.

1336 The Imperial House is divided into two, the South and the North (Yoshino and Kyoto) for 57 years.

1192–1337 The Kamakura period of Art history.

Muromachi Age
(1338–1602)

18. Beginning of the Muromachi Shogunate and the luxurious age of Yoshimitsu.

1338 Takauji Ashikaga proclaims him-

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self Shogun and establishes the Muromachi Shogunate in Kyoto.

1342 Takauji sends the Tenryuji-buné (trade boats) to China.

1368 Yoshimitsu Ashikaga is publicly appointed Shogun and the Muromachi Shogunate officially sanctioned.

1399 The Oei Rebellion.

1401 Yoshimitsu trades with Ming: indulges in luxurious living.

19. Corruption of the Muromachi Shogunate and Political Commotion

1438 The Yeikyo Rebellion. Rising of military lords in Kanto district.

1441 The Kaki Rebellion.

1467-1475 The Ohnin war: Kyoto is reduced to ashes in the street fighting. The Court and the Shogunate both lose power and the whole country becomes a scene of warfare among the military lords.

20. A century of civil wars among the feudal lords.

1491 Soun Hojo captures Odawara Castle and rules over the Kanto district.

1476-1573 Feudal lords struggle for supremacy, the greater lords being as follows: Kanto district; Hojo, Uesugi. Ohu district; Daté, Ashina, Mogami, Tamba, Akita. Central district; Uesugi, Takeda, Imagawa. Kinki (Kyoto-Osaka) district; Saito, Asai, Asakura, Oda, Matsudaira. Chugoku (Western Main Island) district; Ukida, Amako, Ohuchi, Mōri. Shikoku Island; Miyoshi, Kōno, Chōsokabé. Kyushu Island; Otomo, Ryuzoji, Shimazu.

1543 Coming of the Portuguese.

1543 Introduction of fire-arms.

1549 Christianity introduced.

1337-1573 The Muromachi Period of Art history.

21. The Oda and Toyotomi Period.

1568 Nobunaga Oda comes up to Kyoto by Imperial order and repairs the Palace.

1571 Nobunaga destroys Enryakuji temple to suppress the power of the monks.

1573 Downfall of the Muromachi Shogunate.

1576 Building of the Azuchi castle.

1582 Nobunaga assassinated.

1582 Hideyoshi Toyotomi's supremacy.

1588 Hideyoshi is promoted to be Kampaku and Daijo Daijin.

1590 Unity of the Empire is realized by Hideyoshi, all the lords being completely subdued.

1592 Invasion of Korea by armies of Toyotomi.

1597 Second invasion of Korea.

1598 Hideyoshi Toyotomi dies at Fushimi castle (Momoyama Palace).

1574-1598 The Momoyama period of Art history.

Yédo Age
(1602–1867)

22. Beginning of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

1600 Battle of Sekigahara, assuring the supremacy of Iyeyasu Tokugawa (1542–1616)

1603 Iyeyasu is appointed Shogun and founds the Yedo Shogunate.

1609 Begins trade with Hollanders.

1609 The Loochoo Islands subjugated by Lord Shimazu.

1610 Sending of official letters to Nova-Hispania and Spain.

1612 Iyeyasu prohibits the preaching of the Catholic Faith.

1613 The lord Masamuné Daté sends Hasekura to Rome.

1613 Opens trade with the English.

1615 The Toyotomis are destroyed at the Battle of Osaka.

23. Stabilization of the Yedo Shogunate.

1615 Proclamation of the Kugé Hatto (Court Nobles Law) and the Buké Hatto (Samurai Law).

1616 Death of Iyeyasu.

1623 Iyemitsu (1604–1651) becomes the third Tokugawa Shogun. Under his enlightened rule the position of the Yedo Shogunate becomes unshakable.

1630 Introduction of Western literature prohibited.

1636 Japanese forbidden to go abroad.

1637-1638 The Shimabara Rebellion.

1651 Death of Iyemitsu and attempted rebellion by Yuino Shosetsu and his colleagues.

24. The Golden Age of the Yedo Shogunate.

1657 Mitsukuni Tokugawa, lord of Mito begins the compilation of the Dai Nippon Shi (Great Nippon History).

1687 The Shogun Tsunayoshi's Edicts for the protection of animals cause much loss of human life.

1688-1709 The Genroku Era of luxurious living.

1702 Revenge of the '47 Akao Ronin'

1709 Hakuseki (Kunmi) Arai's Reformation.

1716 The 8th Shogun Yoshimuné regulates officialdom and improves the administration, reigning for 30 years.

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1720 Yoshimuné loosens the Prohibition Law against Western books.
1759 Punishment of Takenouchi Shikibu, a loyalist.
1764 Norinaga Motoori commences his commentary on the Kojiki (Antiquities).
1772-1784 Misrule of the Roju Okitsugu Tanuma.
Succession of natural calamities.
1787 Adjustment of the administration by the Roju Sadanobu Matsudaira (Rakuo).

25. Waning of the Shogun Régime.
1792 Punishment of Shihei Rin (Hayashi) who warned the Government of possible invasion by foreign Powers.
1792 Coming of Laxsman to Hokkaido.
1804 Coming of Lesanov to Nagasaki.
1808 Coming of an English boat to Nagasaki.
1825 Shogunate order to shut out all foreign ships by force.
1830 Great famine of the Tempo Era.
1837 Rebellion of Heihachiro Oshio to relieve the starving masses.
1837 Coming of the American ship Morrison.
1841 The Roju Tadakuni Mizuno's attempt at reformation.
1842 The 1825 order is removed. A step towards the 'open door' policy.
1842 Controversies between the anti-foreign party and the liberalists become hotter.
1844 King of Holland gives advice to the Shogunate.
1846 First request of America for the 'open door.'
1853 Arrival of the American fleet under Commodore Perry.
1853 Coming of the Russian delegate Poutiatine to Nagasaki.
1854 Institution of the Sun Flag to symbolize Japan. (Sanctioned by the Meiji Government in 1870.)
1854 Conclusion of Amity Treaties with America, England and Russia.
1855 Conclusion of Amity Treaty with Holland.
1856 Arrival of the American envoy Townsend Harris.
1858 Conclusion of Commercial Treaties with Foreign nations by the Shogunate.
1858 The Ansei Coup d'état by the Tairo Naosuké Ii.
1860 The Japanese envoy Masaoki Niimi sent to America.
1860 The Tairo Ii assassinated at the Sakurada gate of the Shogun Palace.

26. Downfall of the Yedo Shogunate.
1862 Rise of the Anti-Shogunate movement.
1862 The Namamugi Affair.
1863 The Anti-Foreign Law, and attack on foreign ships at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima.
1863 Defeat of the Anti-Foreign party; the seven Court nobles flee to Nagato.
1864 The Anti-Foreign party demands the release of the seven Court nobles by force; battle at the Hamaguri gate of the Kyoto Imperial Palace.
1864 A combined fleet of America, England, France and the Netherlands bombards Shimonoseki.
1865 Imperial Sanction given to the treaties of 1858.
1865-1867 Hostilities between the Shogunate forces and the army of the Choshu (Nagato) Lord who represented the Anti-Shogunate and Anti-Foreign Party.
1866 Demise of the Emperor Kōmei.
1867 Ascension of the Meiji Tenno (1852-1912), the 122nd Emperor.
1867 The Emperor orders armies opposed to the Nagato Lord to withdraw.
1867 Rapid progress of Anti-Shogunate movement and a definite scheme promoted by Sanjo, Iwakura, Saigo, Okubo, and Kido.
1867 The Emperor gives orders to the lords of Nagato and Satsuma to move their armies against the Yedo Shogunate in compliance with the request of Sanjo, Iwakura and their colleagues, October 14.
1867 On the same day (October 14) the Shogun Yoshinobu Tokugawa asks Imperial sanction for the return of all authority of the Government to the Throne. On October 24 the Emperor complies with his request and accepts Yoshinobu's resignation.
1867 Proclamation of the Restoration, December 9.
1868 The rise of the lords and warriors loyal to the Shogunate. Battle of Toba-Fushimi. March of the Imperial armies to Yedo. Surrender of the Yedo Castle without bloodshed. Battles at Uéno, Utsunomiya and Aizu.
1869 Battle at Hakodaté, May, after which all disturbances in the wake of the political change are completely subdued.
1602-1867 The Yedo period of Art history.

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The New Japan
(1868–)

27. The Meiji Era.

1868 Coronation of the Emperor Meiji.

1868 The First year of Meiji, beginning with September.
Proclamation of the Five Imperial Pledges.
Establishment of the Dajokan.

1869 Removal of the Capital to Tokyo.
Surrender of fiefs by the lords.
New organization of the Government.
Telegraphic communications opened.

1870 Ministers sent to foreign countries.
Social castes done away with.

1871 Japan is divided into 1 "Do," 3 urban prefectures and 72 prefectures for administrative purposes. (The number being reduced in 1889 to the present 1 Do, 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures.)
The people are allowed to cut off their cues and the samurai forbidden to wear swords.

1872 Institution of the national school system.
The Loochoo Islands definitely included within Japanese territory.
Opening of railway line between Tokyo and Yokohama.

1873 Adoption of the solar calendar.
Institution of the Conscription system of military service.
Controversy over Korean affairs.

1874 Expedition to Formosa.
Request for opening the House of Representatives.
The Saga Affair.

1875 Karafuto exchanged for the Kuriles.
First Convention of the local governors.

1876 Kumamoto incident, a reactionary movement by the Jimpu-ren band of Kumamoto Samurai. Similar events occur at Akitsuki and Hagi.

1877 The South-Western Civil War, the rebellion of Takamori Saigo and his colleagues.

1879–1890 Rapid influx of things and ideas from Europe, called Rokumei-kan period.

1879 First opening of local assemblies.

1880 Promulgation of new penal code.

1881 Imperial Edict promising the opening of the national assembly.

1882 Hirobumi Ito sent to Europe for the study of Western constitutional governments.

1884 Drafting of the constitution started.

1885 Institution of the cabinet.
The Tientsin Treaty.

1886 Japan becomes a member of the international Red Cross Association.

1888 Institution of city, town and village divisions.

1889 Proclamation of the Dai Nippon Teikoku Kempo (The Constitution of the Great Empire of Japan), Feb. 11.

1890 The First Imperial Diet is convened in November.
Issuance of the Imperial Rescript on Education.
Institution of the system of courts of justice and promulgation of court procedures.

1894 New Anglo-Japanese Treaty.

1894–1895 Sino-Japanese War.

1895 Shimonoseki Peace Treaty, April.
The Three Powers' Intervention and return of the Liaotung Peninsula to China.
Formosa ceded to Japan.

1898 Promulgation of the Civil Law.

1899 Promulgation of the Commercial Law.
Boxer Uprising in China.

1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

1904–1905 Russo-Japanese War.

1905 Capture of Port Arthur, January 1.
Battle of Mukden, March 10.
Battle of the Japan Sea, May 27.
Portsmouth Peace Treaty, September.
Korea becomes Japan's protectorate, November.

1906 Establishment of the Kwantung Government-General.

1907 Opening of the Karafuto Office.
Promulgation of the Revised Penal Code.

1910 Annexation of Korea, August.

1911 Revision of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
Revision of Treaties with Western countries on equal footing.

1912 Demise of the Emperor Meiji, July 30.

28. The Taisho Era.

1912 Ascension of the Emperor Taisho, July 30.

1914–1918 The World War.

1914 Capture of Tsingtao, November.

1915 New Treaty with China. So-called '21 Demands'.

1917 Gold embargo.

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1918	End of the World War, November
1919	Conclusion of the Versailles Treaty.
	The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan.
	Japan becomes a member of the League of Nations.
1921	Crown Prince's tour to Europe.
	Crown prince becomes Regent.
1921–1922	The Washington Conference.
	Termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.
1923	Great Earthquake of Kanto district, September 1.
1925	Conclusion of Treaty with the U. S. S. R.
	Promulgation of the new Election Law (Universal Suffrage).
1926	Demise of the Emperor Taisho, December 25.

29. The Showa Era.

1926	Ascension of the present Emperor, December 25.
1927	Financial Panic.
1930	Removal of gold embargo.
	The London Disarmament Conference.
1931	Outbreak of the 'Manchurian Incident,' September 18.
	Replacement of gold embargo.
1932	The Shanghai Affair.
	Independence of Manchoukuo, March 1.
	The 'May 15 Affair' (assassination of Premier Inuksi).
1933	Withdrawal from the League of Nations, March.
	The World Economic Conference at London.
1934	Manchoukuo becomes an Empire with Kangtê (Mr. Pu Yi) as first Emperor, March 1.

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CHAPTER IV

GOVERNMENT

The Constitution

The fundamental source of all laws and ordinances, and of the administrative system is the Constitution of the Japanese Empire. This document, however, contains simply an outline of the principles involved, and there are many constitutional laws, written and unwritten, which condition the functioning of state organs. There are four fundamental sources of the laws of Japan; (1) the Constitution, (2) the Imperial House Law, (3) certain laws containing constitutional provisions, and (4) the unwritten constitution.

The Constitution of the Japanese Empire was promulgated on Feb. 11, 1889, and is composed of 7 chapters and 76 articles (given in full in Appendix). It was accompanied by an Imperial Declaration, the essence of which has the same legal force as the articles of the Constitution. In the declaration, the Emperor Meiji made four points clear: that the purpose of the establishment of the Constitution is to promote the welfare of his subjects and sustain the progress of the nation; secondly, that the monarchy of Japan is unchanged in form and identical with what it has always been, in the principles of the harmonious rule of sovereign and subjects and of constitutional and responsible government; thirdly, the proper means for revision of the Constitution, and that it limits not only the lawful actions of the subjects, but also the powers of the sovereign; and fourthly, the date of its coming into effect, that of the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet or November 25, 1890.

The Highest Expression of State Will The Constitution was given by order of the Emperor and is the highest expression of the will of the State. All laws must conform to it, while the functions of the highest political organs of the nation are stated in it. But there is no means specified for prevention or correction of a breach of the Constitution by those organs, whether they be constitutionally established or not, except in so far as the interpretative power of the Privy Council, (see section on Privy Council), can be said to constitute such a check. Otherwise, this can only be provided for by the reciprocal restraint exercised by the Executive and the Legislative, the power of public opinion, or other means which are not specified by law. It must be remembered that not all the parts of the Constitution are new creations. Most of them are rather the expression of old laws in a new written form; many of the important political customs had already been incorporated in legal enactments before the Constitution came into being.

The Constitution does not include the whole of constitutional laws. It is one of the simplest constitutions in the world. For instance, such laws as the Imperial House Law or the laws concerning the composition of the Imperial Diet are not included in the Constitution, the reason being that, whereas the revision of these laws in accordance with changes in public thought may be necessary, it is undesirable that the

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Constitution itself should be revised easily and often. Revision of the Constitution must be initiated by the Tenno (Emperor), and the Imperial Diet has the power of deciding only on such revisions as are indicated by the Throne. No revisions have been made or constitutionally suggested since its establishment.

Other Constitutional Provisions The Imperial Household Law (See Appendix) mainly regulates matters concerning the Imperial household and family, but there are many constitutional provisions contained in it. Of special importance are the articles concerning the succession of the Throne and Regency, which determine the form of the highest organ of the State and are therefore clearly of equal importance to the Constitution itself.

Other legal enactments containing constitutional provisions are the following: The Law of the Houses, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Election of Members of the House of Peers, the Imperial Ordinance concerning the Cabinet, the Penal Law concerning the infringement of Ordinances, the Judicial Court Formation Law, the Court of Administrative Litigation Law, and the Board of Audit Law, which were enacted simultaneously with the Constitution; the Imperial Ordinances concerning the Privy Council and the Military Establishments, which were enacted before the promulgation of the Constitution; the Electoral Law and the common law for the formation of departments of the central government, which were promulgated after the Constitution. In addition there are many examples of post-Constitution laws with minor constitutional provisions.

Unwritten Provisions The Constitution of Japan is a written one in principle, but it does not exclude all unwritten provisions. There are still some spheres of government action which are not regulated by any document. Moreover, there are many cases in which the written laws have to be interpreted by unwritten laws or by national political custom or reason. For instance, the relation of the Japanese nation to the Shinto Shrines, the relation of State and religion, the site of the capital, the nature of the National Flag, the Calendar, and the customary procedure of the Imperial Diet are not defined in written laws, but are nevertheless constitutional observances. Other political customary observances of importance are that the Cabinet is formed, as a rule, by the members of the majority party in the House of Representatives, and that the Genro, Elder Statesmen, (at present only one, Prince Saionji) are consulted by the Emperor on the choice of a new Prime Minister.

The Form of Government

The form of the Japanese Government is that of a constitutional monarchy. The Empire is ruled by the Emperor (Tenno) according to the first article of the Constitution, "the Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The representatives of the people in the Imperial Diet participate in the rule of the State, but have no sovereign power. Sovereignty belongs entirely to the Emperor and all power is exercised in his name only. The Japanese Reigning House is the oldest dynasty in the world and, in stability and historical continuity, the Japanese monarchy is unique in history. The actual power of the Emperor at the present time is much greater than that of other constitutional monarchs.

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The actions of all governmental organs are regulated by the Constitution and the collateral laws and usages above mentioned, and all the organs are co-ordinated by the central government. The supreme power is concentrated in the State, and the exercise of sovereignty is all in the hands of the central government which gives orders to all other administrative organs.

The People

All Japanese subjects are registered with the census authorities according to the Law of Nationality, and are recognized as the constituency of the state and protected by the state laws. They are required to submit completely to the control and orders of the state. By the terms of the Constitution they may, subject to qualifications determined by law or ordinance, be appointed to civil or military offices equally and may fill any other public positions. They are liable to service in the army and navy and to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law. The duties they owe to the State are numerous, but these two are specially mentioned in the Constitution.

Japanese subjects are guaranteed liberty of abode and of changing the same. Within the limits of law, they shall not be arrested, detained, tried, or punished unless according to law, shall not be deprived of their right of being tried by the judges determined by law, except in cases provided for by the law, their houses shall not be entered or searched without their consent, the secrecy of their letters shall remain inviolate, and their right of property shall remain inviolate. They enjoy freedom of religious belief, speech, writing, publication, public meeting and association; and they may present petitions to the authorities in the forms provided by law.

The feudal social castes were abolished at the Meiji Restoration, and the class names of Kazoku (Peers), Shizoku (Samurai class), and Heimin (Common people) were given according to family standing and lineage. The two last are purely social and represent no political distinction. Peerage carries with it the privilege of membership of the Upper House of the Legislature (Kizokuin, House of Peers), subject to certain conditions. In 1884 the peerage was divided into the following five ranks: Prince, Marquis, Count, Viscount, and Baron. The class name of "Common people" has fallen into complete disuse, while that of "Samurai class" is being rapidly forgotten.

Tenno, The Emperor

The Japanese Throne is hereditary. The custom was established with the foundation of the State 2,593 years ago, and had been a constitutional unwritten law till it was clearly stated in the Imperial House Law by order of the Emperor Meiji. According to this law, the Japanese Throne "shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors" (Art. 1). In the history of Japan there were some Empresses in their own right, but their cases were always regarded as exceptional. The succession to the Throne as defined by the Imperial House Law is as follows:

(1) Imperial eldest son. (Kotaishi)

(2) Imperial eldest grandson. (Kotaison)

(3) Other male descendants of eldest son.

(4) Imperial son next in age.

(5) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.

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(6) Other Imperial sons in order of age.

(7) Male descendants of same in the same order as above.

(8) Imperial brothers in order of age and their male descendants in the same order as shown in the above.

(9) Imperial uncles and their male descendants in the same order as above.

(10) Next nearest relative of the Emperor.

In all cases precedence is given to descendants of full blood over those of half blood.

The Three Sacred Treasures The Imperial heir ascends the Throne and is invested with the three Sacred Treasures, the Mirror, the Jewel, and the Sword, of the Imperial Ancestors upon the demise of the Emperor, and in no other circumstances. In ancient days, the Throne was succeeded to only for this natural reason, but the good custom was broken in the middle ages. The Imperial House Law aims at the re-establishment of the oldest custom and absolutely prohibits the abdication of the Throne in the Emperor's life time. The Imperial heir ascends to the Throne immediately upon the demise of the Emperor, although the ceremonial ascension comes later. For instance, the present Emperor came to the Throne in a room of the Hayama Winter Palace, where his father died, immediately after the demise was announced by the doctor on December 25, 1926, while the formal ceremony of ascension was held about two years later in accordance with Art. 11 of the Imperial House Law which states that the ceremonies of Enthronement shall be performed and a Grand Enthronement Banquet (Daijo-sai) in honour of the Ancestral Gods held at Kyoto. Upon the ascension, a new era is inaugurated and the name of the era remains unchanged during the whole reign of the Emperor.

The Regency As abdication of the Throne is impossible, Art. 19 of the Law provides for a regency to be instituted, when the Emperor is a minor (the Tenno, Kotaishi and Kotaison attain majority at 18 years of age) or when he is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing. In the second case the advice of the Imperial Family Council and of the Privy Council is required. The Regency shall be assumed by major members of the Imperial Family in the following order:

Family Status	Majority Age
(1) The Imperial Eldest son	18
(2) Imperial Eldest Grandson	"
(3) Imperial Prince	20
(4) Prince	"
(5) The Empress	"
(6) The Empress Dowager	"
(7) The Grand Empress Dowager	"
(8) Imperial Princess or Princess	"

Imperial Prerogative

According to the provisions of the Constitution, the Japanese Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in himself all the rights of sovereignty. According to the provisions of the Imperial House Law, he is the head of the Imperial Family, and he carries out his function as such by the advice of the Minister of the Imperial Household without reference to the Diet. By hereditary custom he assumes the position of the Highest Priest of the national cult of Shinto and conducts august ceremonies in honour of the gods of heaven and earth and of the ancestral gods directly and in person. He is in supreme

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command of the Imperial Army and Navy and exercises this power with the help of special organs established to that end and independently of the advice of State ministers. Lastly, he has power to confer all titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

The Emperor uses these sovereign powers with the assistance of various organs. In exercising legislative power he gets the consent of the Imperial Diet as a rule, although Imperial ordinances are often issued independent of the Diet, (under Article 9 of the Constitution), and for the colonies the exercise of ordinance power is unlimited by the Constitution. In the administration of State affairs he is advised by the Ministers of State, and in certain special cases by the Genro, the Keeper of the Privy Seal, and the Privy Council. In Military administration he is advised by the chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs, while in the exercise of judicial power, he is represented by the Courts of Law.

"The Emperor is sacred and inviolable" (Constitution, Art. 3). He cannot be removed from the Throne for any reason; and he is not to be held responsible for overstepping the limitations of law in the exercise of his sovereignty. All responsibility for the exercise of his sovereignty must be assumed by the Ministers of State and other organs. Thus, no criticism can be directed against the Emperor, but only against the instruments of his sovereignty. Laws are not to be applied to the Emperor as a principle, especially criminal laws, for no court of law can try the Emperor himself and he is not subject to any law.

The Cabinet

The Ministry is composed of 13 State ministers headed by the Prime Minister. The twelve ministers are (1) the Minister of Foreign Affairs, (2) the Minister of Home Affairs, (3) the Minister of Finance, (4) the Minister of War, (5) the Minister of Marine, (6) the Minister of Justice, (7) the Minister of Education, (8) the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, (9) the Minister of Commerce and Industry, (10) the Minister of Communications, (11) the Minister of Railways, and (12) the Minister of Overseas Affairs.

Though all the ministers are separately responsible to the Emperor for all the administrative work under their respective jurisdiction, they are united by the Prime Minister (Naikaku Sori Daijin), one of whose functions is to preserve unity among the State ministers. Through this specific function of the Premier (which, though not mentioned in the Constitution, is prescribed in the Cabinet Organization Ordinance), and the rapid growth of party government, his controlling power over the other state ministers has, of late, been greatly augmented, and as all matters of national importance are decided upon in cabinet meetings, State ministers are now, as a matter of fact, held jointly responsible to the Emperor.

Thus, each departmental minister has a twofold function, first as a state minister and secondly as a departmental executive head. As a State minister he is an adviser to the Emperor in the exercise of his sovereign power over national administration, and for the advice given assumes a joint responsibility with his colleagues. As a departmental head his function is to direct, control and supervise all the administrative affairs within his departmental jurisdiction, for which his responsibility is individual.

The Present Cabinet Prime Minis-

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ter, Admiral Keisuké Okada; born 1868; second Sub-lieutenant 1890; vice-commander of the warship Asahi, 1904; Commander of the 2nd fleet torpedo boats, 1914; Director of the Personel Bureau, Navy Office and soon promoted to the post of Director of the Fleet Administration Department; Vice-Admiral, 1917; Vice-Minister of Marine, 1923; Admiral, and Commander of the 1st and combined Fleets, 1924; Commander of the Yokosuka Admiralty, 1926; Minister of Marine, 1927; member of the Supreme Military Council, 1929; again Minister of Marine, 1932.

Minister of Foreign Affairs, Koki Hirota; born February, 1878; entered the Foreign Office service, 1906; minister to Holland, 1926; ambassador to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, 1930-32.

Minister of Home Affairs, Fumio Goto; born 1884; Chief of the Police Bureau, Home Department, 1922; Secretary-General, Taiwan, 1924-1928; became member of the House of Peers by Imperial appointment, 1930; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1932.

Minister of Finance, Korekiyo Takahashi; born 1865; President of the Yokohama Specie Bank, 1906; Governer of the Bank of Japan, 1911; Minister of Finance, 1913; Minister of Finance, 1918; Premier, 1921; Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, 1924; Minister of Finance, 1928; Minister of Finance, 1931; Minister of Finance, 1932–1934.

Minister of War, Senjuro Hayashi; born 1876; Second Lieutenant, 1897; Major-General, 1921; Army representative to the League of Nations, 1923; commander of the 2nd infantry brigade, 1925; Lieutenant-General, 1926; Commander of the Tokyo Bay Fortress, 1926; President of the Staff College, 1927; Director of the General Affairs Bureau of the Department of Military Training, 1928; Commander of the Imperial Guard Division, 1929; Commander of the Chosen (Korean) Army, 1930; Head of the Department of Military Education, 1932-1934.

Minister of Marine, Mineo Osumi; born in 1878; Second Sub-lieutenant, 1898; Rear-Admiral, 1920; Commander of the Third Fleet, 1923; Vice-Admiral, 1924; Vice-Minister of Marine, 1925; Commander of the Second Fleet, 1928; Commander-in-Chief of the Yokosuka Naval Station, 1929; Admiral, 1931; High Naval Councillor, 1931.

Minister of Justice, Naoshi Ohara; born January, 1877, a judge of the Tokyo Local Court, 1904; successively public procurator of the Chiba Local Court, Counsellor to the Justice Ministry, chief public procurator of the Yokohama Local Court, Tokyo Local Court and Nagasaki Court of Appeal, and public procurator of the Supreme Court; Vice-minister of Justice, 1927; President of the Tokyo Court of Appeal, 1931.

Minister of Education, Genji Matsuda; born 1875; started his career as a lawyer; has been elected 8 times member of the House of Representatives since 1908; once vice-president of the House of Representatives; a counsellor to the Home Ministry, 1918; Minister of Overseas Affairs, 1929.

Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Tatsunosuké Yamazaki; born June, 1880; an official of the Taiwan Government-General, 1906; successively chief of the Budget Section of the Education Ministry, chief of the Bureau of Technical Education, and chief of the Bureau of Common Education; Parliamentary vice-minister, 1927; has been elected 4 times member of House of Representatives since 1924.

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Minister of Commerce and Industry, Chuji Machida ; born 1863 ; began his career as a banker and was in the Bank of Japan and later a director of the Yamaguchi Bank, Osaka ; a counsellor to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, 1915 ; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1925 ; again Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1929 ; once president of the "Hochi" ; has been elected 7 times member of House of Representatives since 1912.

Minister of Communications, Takejiro Tokonami ; born December, 1866 ; successively chief of the Local Bureau, Home Ministry, Governor of Karafuto, Vice-minister of Home Affairs, and President of the Railway Office ; Minister of Home Affairs, 1918 ; organized and became president of the political party Seiyuhonto, 1924 ; Minister of Railways, 1931 ; has been elected 8 times member of House of Representatives since 1914.

Minister of Railways, Sinya Uchida ; born 1880 ; once a successful shipping business man ; Parliamentary vice-minister of Marine, 1927 ; Parliamentary vice-minister of Communications, 1931 ; has been elected 4 times member of House of Representatives since 1924.

Minister of Overseas Affairs, Count Hideo Kodama, born 1876 ; graduated Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1900 ; Head of the General Bureau, Chosen Government-General, 1912. Chief-secretary of the Cabinet, 1916 ; President of the Merit Bureau, 1918–21 ; Governor-General of Kwantung, 1924-27 ; Vice Governor-General of Chosen, 1929-1931 ; has been member of House of Peers since 1918.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order (Meirei) by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders (Kakurei) in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows :

(1) All legislative and budget bills.

(2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.

(3) Ordinances to be issued.

(4) Disputes among the various Departments regarding jurisdiction.

(5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.

(6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.

(7) Appointments and removals of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

PREMIERS SINCE 1885

Date of formation of Cabinet	Premier
Dec. 22, 1885	H. Ito
April 30, 1888	K. Kuroda
Dec. 24, 1889	A. Yamagata
May 6, 1891	M. Matsukata
Aug. 8, 1892	H. Ito
Sept. 18, 1896	M. Matsukata
Jan. 12, 1898	H. Ito
June 30, 1898	S. Okuma
Nov. 8, 1898	A. Yamagata
Oct. 9, 1900	H. Ito
June 2, 1901	T. Katsura
Jan. 7, 1906	K. Saionji
July 14, 1908	T. Katsura
Aug. 30, 1911	K. Saionji
Dec. 21, 1912	T. Katsura
Feb. 20, 1913	G. Yamamoto
April 16, 1914	S. Okuma
Oct. 9, 1916	M. Terauchi

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To take the place of the paragraphs entitled "Minister of War, Senjuro Hayashi," P. 137 and "Minister of Communications, Takéjiro Tokonami," P. 138.

General Senjuro Hayashi, Minister of War, tendered resignation to the Throne on September 4, 1935, taking responsibility in connection with the assassination of Major-General Tetsuzan Nagata (promoted to Lieutenant-General after death) by Lieutenant-Colonel Saburo Aizawa on August 12, 1935. General Yoshiyuki Kawashima was appointed Minister of War on September 5, 1935.

Minister of War, Yoshiyuki Kawashima, born 1878; appointed Second-Lieutenant, 1899; was successively Commander of the 1st Infantry Brigade, Chief of the Bureau of Military Supplies, Chief of the Bureau of Military Affairs, Ministry of War, Commander of the 19th Division, Commander of the 3rd Division, Director of the General Affairs Bureau of the Department of Military Training, Commander of the Chosen Army. Appointed General and Member of the High Military Council, 1934.

Mr. Takéjiro Tokonami, Minister of Communications, died from heart trouble on September 8, 1935, and Mr. Keisuké Mochizuki was appointed to the portfolio on September 12. The Prime Minister served as ad interim Minister of Communications to tide over the gap.

Minister of Communications, Keisuké Mochizuki, was born in 1867; elected 11 times member of the House of Representatives since 1898; was Minister of Communications, 1927-28; Minister for Home Affairs, 1928-29; and appointed Member of the Cabinet Advisory Board, 1935.

ıth Manchuria Railway Zone ough the Kwanto Bureau in the ›anese Embassy in Hsinking.

There are the following commit-s under the direct control of the ›mier:—(a) The Higher Civil ›vice Examination Committee ich is in charge of the higher il service examinations, and of ommendations to certain higher ıts. It consists of 8 members o are chosen from among high cials of the Government and its ıirman is the Chief of the Legisla-ı Bureau. (b) The Central Statis-ı Committee, (c) the Pensions bitration Committee, (d) the Edu-ional Investigation Committee, ich investigates and deliberates on ıcational problems of national portance. It consists of 53 mem-s including the president and two e-presidents. (e) The Resource estigation Committee, (f) the e and Cereals Investigation Com-tee, (g) the Investigation Com-tee for the Correction of Elec-ı Evils, (h) the Temporary In-trial Investigation Committee, l (i) the Temporary Administra-e and Financial Investigation nmittee.

On May 10, 1935, (Imperial Ordi-ıce, No. 118) the Naikaku Shingi-or Cabinet Advisory Board was ablished. The function of the rd is to make investigations and l out conclusions on important ional policies upon the request the Cabinet or may present views such policies to the Cabinet on own initiative. The board con-s of the president, the vice-pres-ıt and 15 members. The chairs the president and the vice-sident are taken by the Premier a member of the Cabinet re-ctively. Fifteen members are sen, by the Imperial order, from ong experienced statesmen or zens.

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Minister of Commerce and Industry, Chuji Machida ; born 1863 ; began his career as a banker and was in the Bank of Japan and later a director of the Yamaguchi Bank, Osaka ; a counsellor to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, 1915 ; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1925 ; again Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1929 ; once president of the "Hochi" ; has been elected 7 times member of House of Representatives since 1912.

Minister of Communications, Takejiro Tokonami ; born December, 1866 ; successively chief of the Local Bureau, Home Ministry, Governor of Karafuto, Vice-minister of Home Affairs, and President of the Railway Office ; Minister of Home Affairs, 1918 ; organized and became president of the political party Seiyuhonto, 1924 ; Minister of Railways, 1931 ; has been elected 8 times member of House of Representatives since 1914.

Minister of Railways, Sinya Uchida ; born 1880 ; once a successful shipping business man ; Parliamentary vice-minister of Marine, 1927 ; Parliamentary vice-minister of Communications, 1931 ; has been elected 4 times member of House of Representatives since 1924.

Minister of Overseas Affairs, Count Hideo Kodama, born 1876 ; graduated Law Department, Tokyo Imperial University, 1900 ; Head of the General Bureau, Chosen Government-General, 1912. Chief-secretary of the Cabinet, 1916 ; President of the Merit Bureau, 1918–21 ; Governor-General of Kwantung, 1924-27 ; Vice Governor-General of Chosen, 1929-1931 ; has been member of House of Peers since 1918.

The Prime Minister

The Prime Minister presents reports on administrative matters of importance to the Emperor as the head of the Cabinet. When necessary he can order the suspension of an administrative operation or of the application of an administrative order (Meirei) by any executive organ, pending the final decision of the Emperor. The Premier issues Cabinet Orders (Kakurei) in virtue of this official function or by special commission. He is empowered within his functional jurisdiction to direct the Metropolitan Chief of Police and the Prefectural Governors. Matters that should be presented to the Cabinet Council are prescribed as follows :

(1) All legislative and budget bills.

(2) Treaties and other international matters of importance.

(3) Ordinances to be issued.

(4) Disputes among the various Departments regarding jurisdiction.

(5) Petitions from the people received from the Emperor or from the Diet.

(6) Outlays not prescribed in the budget.

(7) Appointments and removals of officials of "chokunin" rank and also of prefectural governors.

PREMIERS SINCE 1885

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Sept. 2, 1923	G. Yamamoto
Jan. 7, 1924	K. Kiyoura
June 11, 1924	T. Kato
Aug. 2, 1925	"
Jan. 30, 1926	R. Wakatsuki
April 20, 1927	G. Tanaka
July 2, 1929	O. Hamaguchi
April 14, 1931	R. Wakatsuki
Dec. 13, 1931	T. Inukai
May 26, 1932	M. Saito
July 8, 1934	K. Okada

Cabinet Bureaux

Important offices of the Cabinet are the Secretariat, Pension Bureau, Statistics Bureau, and Printing Bureau. There are three other bureaux which are affiliated to the Cabinet and which are under the Premier's direct control, namely the Legislation Bureau, Merit Bureau and Resources Bureau. All bills to be submitted to the legislature by the Government and all ordinances to be promulgated are drafted at the Legislation Bureau in accordance with the order of the Premier. Proposals of amendment or repeal of laws or ordinances are also submitted to this bureau. In the discharge of his duties the Chief of the Legislation Bureau is at liberty to present his opinion to the Cabinet.

The Merit Bureau handles all business pertaining to the Order of Merit, decoration and the pension affiliated to it, national and international. The Resources Bureau supervises all the matters concerning the planning, utilization, and administration of the national resources, human and material.

On December 26, 1934, the Bureau for Manchurian Affairs was established. The bureau is under the Premier's direct control as the other three bureaux. Its function is to supervise all matters concerning Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone through the Kwanto Bureau in the Japanese Embassy in Hsinking.

There are the following committees under the direct control of the Premier:—(a) The Higher Civil Service Examination Committee which is in charge of the higher civil service examinations, and of recommendations to certain higher posts. It consists of 8 members who are chosen from among high officials of the Government and its chairman is the Chief of the Legislation Bureau. (b) The Central Statistics Committee, (c) the Pensions Arbitration Committee, (d) the Educational Investigation Committee, which investigates and deliberates on educational problems of national importance. It consists of 53 members including the president and two vice-presidents. (e) The Resource Investigation Committee, (f) the Rice and Cereals Investigation Committee, (g) the Investigation Committee for the Correction of Election Evils, (h) the Temporary Industrial Investigation Committee, and (i) the Temporary Administrative and Financial Investigation Committee.

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On the same date (Imperial Ordinance, No. 119) the Cabinet Investigation Bureau was established to make investigations on important national policies and to handle matters in connection with the working of the Cabinet Advisory Board. The bureau is under the direct control of the Prime Minister and consists of 37 officials beside the director.

The Executive Departments

Department of Foreign Affairs The Minister of Foreign Affairs administers all the diplomatic affairs of the Empire; organizes the protection of the Empire's commercial interests and resident Japanese subjects in foreign countries; and directs and supervises Japanese diplomats and consuls. The Department of Foreign Affairs is subdivided into five bureaux, namely, (1) East Asiatic, (2) European and Asiatic, (3) American, (4) Commercial, and (5) Treaties.

The East Asiatic Bureau is divided into three sections; The First Section handles diplomatic matters related to China, HongKong and Macao; the Second Section those concerning Siam and protection and control of Japanese residences in those countries; and the Third Section those concerning Manchoukuo.

The European and Asiatic Bureau is divided into two sections; the First Section handles diplomatic matters related to the U.S.S.R., Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Listhuania, Turkey, Poland, Persia and Afghanistan; the Second Section those of all the European and other countries not coming under the control of any other bureau or section.

The American Bureau is divided into three sections; the First Section handles diplomatic matters concerning Canada, the United States of America and her territories; the Second Section, the Central and South American countries; the Third Section handles matters concerning emigrants and passports.

The Commercial Bureau is divided into three sections; the First Section handles matters concerning institutions and policies of trade and navigation; the Second Section control, promotion and protection of trade and navigation; the Third Section commercial affairs and reports.

The Bureau of Treaties is divided into three sections; the First Section handles matters concerning drafting, interpretation, sanction, publication and revision of treaties with foreign countries; the Second Section international judicial matters; the Third Section the League of Nations.

There are other three offices of importance. The Information Bureau is divided into three sections. The First Section handles matters concerning news in daily papers and broadcasting; the Second Section books, magazines, publication, foreign news agencies, propaganda, international meetings; the Third Section distribution of diplomatic knowledge.

The Investigation Bureau is divided into five sections and their duties are as follows; The First Section general business and study of diplomatic facts; the Second Section keeping of records and materials; the Third Section investigations on diplomatic and commercial situations in Asia and the Near East; the Fourth Section investigations on Europe and Oceania; the Fifth Section political and diplomatic investigations on North and South American countries.

The Cultural Works Bureau handles matters concerning the cultural works for China which mainly consist of promotion and assistance of cultural investigations and enterprises on China.

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Japanese Embassies, etc. Japanese embassies are established in the following places :

Country	Situation of Embassies
China	Peiping
Great Britain	London
The U.S.A.	Washington
France	Paris
Germany	Berlin
Belgium	Brussels
Italy	Rome
The U.S.S.R.	Moscow
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro
Turkey	Stamboul
Manchoukuo	Hsinking

Japanese Legations are established in the following places :

Country	Situation of Legations
Canada	Ottawa
Sweden	Stockholm
Poland	Warsaw
Czechoslovakia	Prague
Rumania	Bucharest
Austria	Vienna
Greece	Athens
Persia	Teheran
Latvia	Riga
Switzerland	Berne
Holland	The Hague
Spain	Madrid
Portugal	Lisbon
Siam	Bangkok
Mexico	Mexico
Argentine	Buenos Aires
Chile	Santiago
Peru	Lima
Cuba	Havana
Colombia	Bogota

(The list of the envoys to and from foreign countries is given in Chapter VI with the full addresses of embassies and legations.)

Department of Home Affairs The Minister of Home Affairs is in charge of national shrines, prefectural administration, national and local political elections, police, public undertakings, public health, town planning, publication and copyrights, etc. It is also his function to supervise the Chief of the Metropolitan Police Board and the prefectural governors. The Ministry of Home Affairs has in recent years become the most important Government office politically, inasmuch as it supervises elections and administers local public works. The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, a vice-minister and a counsellor. The department has five bureaux, respectively in charge of the following affairs :— (1) Shrines, (2) Local Affairs, (3) Public Order, (4) Public Works and (5) Public Hygiene. The Bureau of Social Affairs is affiliated to the Ministry and responsible to the Minister.

The Bureau of Local Affairs has a vast field to supervise. It has to be in close touch with (1) all matters affecting elections, (2) all the work concerning local public associations and other general administration, (3) financial and economic matters of various local public associations, (4) all matters concerning conscription and requisition to be executed by the prefectural governments, (5) all matters concerning forests, reclamation and settlement in Hokkaido and other matters in Hokkaido which do not come within the scope of any other bureaux.

The Bureau of Public Order is the depository of the highest authority over ordinary as well as political police matters, and the publication of books and other printed matter.

The Bureau of Public Works is in charge of all public undertakings, not only those under the direct control of the Home Department but also those of all the prefectural governments. All matters regarding the expenditure for public works of all sorts directly undertaken by the Department of Home Affairs and the subsidies to be granted for prefectural public works are handled by this Bureau.

The Bureau of Public Hygiene is in charge of measures for the prevention of the spread of epidemics. The Bureau is also in charge of quarantine work, and supervises the medical, pharmaceutical and dental

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professions, including the issue of licences to practice, and the sale of medical goods. All matters concerning hygienic associations and local hospitals come also under the supervision of this Bureau.

The Bureau of Social Affairs handles all matters concerning :— (1) labour, (2) enforcement of the factory law, (3) miners, as prescribed in the mining law, (4) application of the minimum-age-for-factory-employment law, (5) arbitration of labour disputes, (6) social insurance, (7) the prevention of unemployment and relief of the unemployed, (8) international labour arrangements, (9) protection of children, (10) military relief work, and (11) other social works.

The Department of Home Affairs has the following other bureaux under its control :— (a) The Reconstruction Bureau, which is still working for the improvement of the streets and buildings of Tokyo and Yokohama as part of the plan of reconstruction of the cities damaged by the Great Earthquake of 1923. (b) The Japanese section of the International Labour Office, which is located at Geneva for the management of international activities of labour organs of Japan. (c) The Labour Exchange Bureau, which handles matters pertaining to the unity and interrelation of the work of labour exchanges throughout the country.

The following institutions also come under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs :— the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers, the National Shrines Building Office, the Police Educational Institute, the National House of Correction for the Improvement of the Juvenile Criminals, the Hygiene Laboratory, the Aliment Investigation Laboratory and the National Leper-House. Twelve special committees advise the Minister on the following matters, respectively :— (1) Investigation of a Proper System of Shinto Shrines, (2) Examination of Medical Practitioners, (3) Examination of Dentists, (4) Examination of Pharmacists, (5) Central Hygiene, (6) Sanitary Investigation, (7) Town Planning, (8) Labour Insurance, (9) Labour Exchanges, (10) Unemployment Prevention, and (11) Opium.

The Department of Finance The Minister of Finance is in charge of accounting, payments and receipts of public money, taxation, government bonds, coins, money in deposit and custody, negotiable instruments owned by or in custody of the Government and all matters concerning banking, trust business, "ko" (an oriental mutual loan association), and sale of negotiable instruments. He also supervises the finances of prefectural governments and other local public bodies.

The Finance Department has the following four bureaux :— (1) The Accounts Bureau, which handles all matters concerning the national budget and settlement of accounts, special accounts, co-ordination of treasury business, control of accounting officials, etc. (2) The Bureau of Taxation, which handles matters pertaining to the levying of national taxes, supervision of taxation business, the land register, and customs and excise tariffs. (3) The Bureau of Fund Employment, which is in charge of matters concerning the employment of national funds, the administration of national treasury money, the coinage, general circulation of money, national loans, accident and relief funds, deposits and negotiable securities, annuities, and public loans floated by public associations. (4) The Banking Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning special, ordinary and savings banks, other matters pertaining to banks, the central chest

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of the industrial unions and credit unions in the cities.

The following other bureaux and institutions are attached to the Department of Finance and under the direct jurisdiction of the Minister :— (1) The Deposits Bureau, which handles a huge amount of deposits from the middle and lower classes of the people, special importance being always attached to the question of how to utilize this money. (2) The National Property Bureau, which is in charge of all national properties, and makes arrangements for their disposal or acquirement. (3) The Mint Bureau, located in Osaka, which is in charge of the minting and melting down of all coins, the casting of national medals or decorations, and laboratory work on metals. (4) The Customs Bureau, which not only handles matters concerning the collection of import duties but also takes charge of the control of ships going in and out of the trade ports, examination of the health of passengers, plants and animals, and registration of epidemics in accordance with the epidemics or tuberculosis prevention laws for men and animals. Custom Houses under this Bureau are located at the six trade ports, namely, Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagasaki, Moji and Hakodaté. (5) The Revenue Superintending Bureau, which handles matters concerning tax collection. (6) The Monopoly Bureau, which administers the three government monopolies, salt, camphor and tobacco.

One laboratory and 7 committees are under the direct control of the Minister of Finance, namely, the Brewing Laboratory and the Committees on Tariff Petition Examination, the National Property Survey, Grants of National land to Buddhist Temples (temporary), Building Central Offices of the Government, Tariff Investigation, Special Accommodation for the examination of the matters pertaining to the grant of special accommodation to the Bank of Japan, and Special Accommodation Loss Examination.

The Department of War The function of the Minister of War is to direct the military administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Army and supervises all branches of the Army. Though the War Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister and a counsellor they have nothing to do officially with military secrets and military orders (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Marine The Minister of Marine is responsible for all naval administration. He controls all the men enlisted in the Navy and supervises all branches of the Navy. The parliamentary vice-minister and counseller have nothing to do with the naval secrets and naval commands (for the organization of the Department and its detailed functions, see Chapter VII).

The Department of Justice The Minister of Justice supervises courts and procurators' offices ; and controls all judicial proceedings. The Department contains three bureaux, dealing respectively with civil affairs, criminal affairs, and prisons.

Judicial procedure is divided into three instances. The courts of first instance are the District and Local Courts. In the District Court are tried civil cases of minor importance and those involving sums not exceeding one thousand yen. The court also deals with criminal cases which are not felonies and those which do not require preliminary examination. The District Court handles cases of bankruptcy and those concerning personal status and arbitration. In rent and commercial disagreements, an arbitration committee, composed

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of one judge and two laymen experienced in the matters involved in the dispute, may be appointed. The jurisdiction of a local court covers an average area of 2,587 square miles and a population of about 218,209.

The Local Court conducts trials of first instance of cases beyond the jurisdiction of the District Court and preliminary examinations of criminal cases of a complicated character.

The Local and Appeal Courts are the courts of second instance. The former handles cases on appeal from the District Courts, and the latter appeals against the first instance decisions of the Local Courts.

The court of third instance is the Supreme Court, which tries all civil and criminal cases which are brought before it, and conducts preliminary trials for (1) serious offences against the Imperial House, (2) high treason, and (3) offences committed by members of the Imperial Family.

There is one Supreme Court, and there are seven Courts of Appeal, 51 Local Courts and 291 District Courts.

Attached to each of these courts is a procurators' office, its functions being to conduct investigations, institute prosecutions, supervise the execution of sentences in criminal cases, and act as representative of the public interest in civil cases (For further details, see Chapter XXVII).

The Department of Education All matters relating to education, art, science, literature, and religion are under the direction and supervision of the Minister of Education. There are six bureaux and one division in the Department, i. e. (1) Bureau of Semmon (College) Education, (2) Bureau of Common Education, (3) Bureau of Technical Education, (4) Bureau of Social Education, (5) Bureau of Books, and (6) Bureau of Religion. There is also a Division of Student Control.

Six imperial universities, 2 commercial colleges, 7 medical colleges, 2 technical colleges, 2 normal colleges, 4 higher normal schools, and 76 colleges and special educational institutions come under the direct administration of the Department (see Chapter XXVIII).

The following institutions are also established and controlled by this Department :—the Epidemic Laboratory ; the Aeronautics Laboratory ; the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory ; the Seismological Observatory ; the Chemical Laboratory ; the Mineral Laboratory ; the Imperial Library ; the Meteorological Observatories ; the Latitude Observatory; the Tokyo Science Museum; the Physical Education Laboratory ; the Navigation Institute ; the Geodesy Committee ; the Examining Committee for Teachers' Licences ; the Physical Sciences Literature Committee, for preparing a national list of books on physical sciences, as a branch of the International Committee for the same purpose ; the Imperial Academy, which is composed of one hundred scholars appointed by the Emperor and is established for the promotion of science and culture ; the Imperial Academy of Arts, which is composed of 30 members under a president, its main work being organization of the annual exhibition for the promotion of fine arts; the Text Book Committee; the Science Council ; the National Language Committee ; the Aeronautics Council ; the School Hygiene Committee ; the Earthquake Disaster Prevention Committee ; the Religious System Investigation Committee ; the National Treasure Preservation Committee ; and the Temporary Committee on Romanization, which investigates the question of

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Roman spelling of the Japanese Language.

The Department of Commerce and Industry The Minister of Commerce and Industry is assisted in administration of the Department by a parliamentary vice-minister, vice-minister and counsellor.

There are four bureaux in this Department, dealing respectively with commerce, industry, mining and foreign trade. All matters concerning insurance are handled in the affiliated Insurance Division. Examination and control of weights and measures is under the Central Weights and Measures Office. Other affiliated offices of importance are the Patent Bureau, the Mine Supervision Bureau and the Temporary Rationalization of the Industry Bureau.

In May, 1932, an ordinance was issued empowering the Minister of Commerce and Industry to establish two industrial laboratories, in Tokyo and Osaka respectively. These laboratories are open for the examination, analysis, and appraising of industrial commodities for the benefit of interested parties. Other institutions under the Department are as follows: the Fancy Mat Conditioning Houses, the Silk Experimental Stations, the Earthenware and Porcelain Experimental House, the Silk Goods Export Conditioning House, the Industrial Advice and Information Office, the Fuel Laboratory, the Industrial Art Examination Committee, the Unreasonable Low Price Investigation Committee, the Gas Business Committee, and the National Products Promotion Committee.

The Department of Agriculture and Forestry The Minister of Agriculture and Forestry controls all matters concerning agriculture, forestry, marine industry, stock-breeding and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. The Department is divided into the following five bureaux:—(1) The Agriculture Bureau, which takes charge of matters concerning agriculture, tea production, subsidiary industry among farmers, industrial unions, the central chest of the industrial unions, and the enforcement of the Rice and Cereals Law. (2) The Forestry Bureau, which deals with all matters concerning forests and meadows. (3) The Fisheries Bureau. (4) The Stock Breeding Bureau, which deals with the improvement and breeding of domestic animals, their hygiene, insurance and hunting. The Silk Bureau handles matters concerning sericulture and the silk industry.

The following institutions are under the direct control of the Minister:—the Agricultural, Horticultural, and Forestry Experimental Stations, the Fisheries Institute and Fisheries Experimental Stations, the National Stock-sheep Pastures, the Animal Disease Examination Institute, the National Bull Pastures, National Poultry Station, the Sericultural Laboratory, the Raw Silk Conditioning Houses, the Tea Experimental Houses, the Rice and Cereals Committee, the Silk Price Committee, the Committee on Subsidies for the maintenance of a proper silk price.

The Department of Communications The Minister of Communications administers the State post, telegraph, telephone and beacon services, and is in charge of all matters relating to electricity, hydraulic power and aviation. All business enterprises of electricity, ship-building, and water transportation together with navigation routes, ships and seamen are under his supervision. He also directs the operations of the Nippon Wireless Telegraph Company.

The Minister is assisted by a parliamentary vice-minister, and a

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counsellor. The Secretariat, beside the ordinary secretarial work, supervises the training of clerks who are expected to enter the communications service and all matters concerning communications exhibitions. There are seven main bureaux in the Department, i. e., Postal Service Bureau, Telegraph and Telephone Service Bureau, Bureau of Engineering, Bureau of Electricity, Bureau of Mercantile Ships, Aviation Bureau, and Bureau of Accounts and Supplies.

There are in addition the following affiliated offices :— Bureau of Savings, Bureau of Post Office Life Insurance, Lighthouse Bureau, and Communications Bureau. The Savings Bureau handles matters concerning the Post Office savings, and their transfer to the national deposit. The Post Office Insurance Bureau handles matters pertaining to insurance and pensions for the working classes.

The following institutions are under the direct supervision of the Minister :— the Electro-Technical Laboratory, the Marine Court of Inquiry, the Marine Labour Exchange Committee, the Post-Office Life Insurance Investigation Committee, and the Post-Office Life Insurance Reserve Fund Utilization Committee.

The Department of Railways The Minister of Railways administers all the affairs relating to the railways operated by the Government and supervises the operations on land of all private railway companies. The Department is divided into seven bureaux, namely, Bureau of Local Railway Administration, Bureau of Traffic and Operation, Bureau of Construction, Bureau of Mechanical Engineering, Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement, Bureau of Electricity, and Bureau of Finance and Purchasing. Recently, there was operated a special Tourist Industry Bureau for attracting foreign tourists, which is subdivided into the Controlling and Investigating Section and the Promoting Section. The administrative work of the state railways is apportioned to six local regions : Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is in charge of a director who has full powers to conduct all but the most important affairs within his jurisdiction.

The Department of Overseas Affairs The Minister of Overseas Affairs supervises the administrative work of the Chosen Government-General, the Taiwan Government-General, the Kwantung Government, the Karafuto Government, and the Government of the South Sea Islands. He also supervises the business operations of the South Manchuria Railway Company and the Oriental Development Company. He directs all matters concerning emigration excepting those of a diplomatic nature. For the performance of these duties, the Minister is empowered to direct and supervise consuls stationed in foreign countries in consultation with the Foreign Minister. There are, beside the Secretariat, the following four offices in the Department ; the Chosen Office, (having a special status and being always under the direction of the vice-minister), Industry Development Bureau, the Supervision Bureau, and the Exploitation Bureau.

The Privy Council

The Privy Council is a consultative body to advise the Emperor on questions of grave importance. The Council is composed of one President, one Vice-President (non-voting) and 24 Councillors. All the Councillors are officials of shinnin (highest) rank. All these members are appointed by the Emperor on

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the advice of the Prime Minister. Cabinet Ministers are entitled by virtue of their office to sit in the Privy Council as councillors and have the right to vote. Princes of the Blood who have attained their majority and are resident in Tokyo can sit in the Council under the same conditions.

The questions that are to be submitted to the Privy Council for deliberation cover:

(1) All matters that fall within its jurisdiction according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

(2) All matters concerning interpretation of the provisions of the Constitution and laws and ordinances supplementary thereto.

(3) Proclamation of Martial Law under Article 14 of the Constitution, Imperial ordinances under Article 8 and Article 70, and any other Imperial ordinance which has a disciplinary clause.

(4) Treaties and all other international pledges.

(5) All matters involving an amendment in the organization and procedure regulations of the Privy Council.

(6) Other matters submitted to the Council by the Emperor.

Though the Privy Council is thus the highest consultative organ of the Emperor in important matters of state, it has nothing to do with the actual government administration.

Ministers Outside the Cabinet

There are two important offices of a quasi-administrative character of which the holders are styled "Daijin" (Minister). These "Ministers" are not members of the Cabinet and do not change with the Government.

The Office of Keeper of the Privy Seal is generally regarded as the senior of these offices. Its holder has the duty of keeping the Imperial Seal and the Seal of State, and of supervising secretarial work in connection with Imperial Edicts and Rescripts and other documents of the Imperial Court. The other office is that of Minister of the Imperial Household Department. The Minister is in charge of all business concerning the Imperial Household. (Consult the chapter on Imperial Court for fuller information as to their duties.)

The Board of Audit

The Board of Audit is provided for by Article 72 of the Constitution and is on an equal footing with the ministers of state. It is composed of a president, three divisional chiefs and 12 inspectors, who are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister, but cannot be dismissed, transferred or placed on the retired list except by effect of either a criminal or a disciplinary trial.

The function of the Board is to audit accounts of the central government and other corporate bodies, public or private, receiving government subsidies or guarantees.

The Court of Administrative Litigation

The law of 1890 which established this Court is envisaged in Article 61 of the Constitution. The Court is entirely distinct from ordinary judicial courts and its function is to decide on the validity of administrative acts. The Court is not interfered by the Government. According to the law the Court of Administrative Litigation is to be located in Tokyo and no local court established. It is composed of a President and 11 Counsellors. Its members are appointed by the Emperor on the advice of the Prime Minister and are not to be removed, suspended from office or

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deprived of position, without their consent. This is exactly the same as with ordinary judges (see Chapter XXVII), but the differences are that the former's position is not for life, while the latter's is and that there is no institution of the retiring age for the former. The present head of the Court is Dr. Hyoji Futakami.

The Court passes on cases relating to (1) the levying of taxes and fees except the customs tariff; (2) the disposition for the recovery of taxes in arrears, (3) the prohibition or suspension of business, (4) waterways and public works, and (5) fixing the boundary between the Government and private owned lands.

An appeal is immediately taken by the Court and the decision on it is given by a majority vote of the council of more than 5. The decision is the first, and at the same time, final.

Government Officials

Civil officials are divided into four ranks according to their grade of merits, education and ability, and their salaries differ accordingly. The four ranks are: (1) Shinnin rank, appointed by His Majesty directly, (2) Chokunin rank, appointed by His Majesty's order indirectly, (3) Sonin rank, appointed by His Majesty's approval, and (4) Hannin rank of minor officials appointed by the heads of different offices.

At the end of 1933, civil officials who received salaries from the State Treasury numbered 132,987 in total, their salaries amounting to ¥159,579,259, of which officials of shinnin and chokunin rank numbered 1,535 with an aggregate salary of ¥7,883,000 a year, officials of sonin rank 14,447 with ¥37,581,000, and officials of hannin rank 117,005 with ¥114,115,000. The average salary of officials of chokunin rank was ¥5,135, a year, that of officials of sonin rank ¥2,601 and that of officials of hannin rank ¥975.

As to the number of officials of chokunin, sonin, and hannin ranks classified according to departments, the Department of Communications had the largest with 27,847, which was followed by 27,441 of the Department of Railways, 13,489 of the Government-General of Chosen and 12,094 of the Department of Finance. Departments other than those given above had less than 10,000 each, viz. the Department of Justice had 8,577, the Department of Education 7,808, the Government-General of Formosa 6,003, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry 3,897, the Home Department 2,429, Department of War 2,153, Government of Kwantung Province 1,831, the Department of Commerce and Industry 1,796, the Department of Marine 1,366, the Government of Saghalien Island 1,117 and the Department of Foreign Affairs 1,107. Other Departments had less than 1,000 each. Among prefectural offices, Hokkaido Office had 2,315, Tokyo Metropolitan Police Office had 1,327 and all other prefectures together 9,220. Each prefectural government office had 200 on the average.

Number and total amount of salaries paid to civil officials of the Government in the past 10 years follow:

Year	Number	Salary
1924	137,566	¥147,130,579
1925	144,925	153,939,715
1926	148,014	161,150,445
1927	124,116	147,096,570
1928	128,792	156,572,037
1929	134,831	163,745,391
1930	126,995	160,265,485
1931	134,537	160,644,249
1932	130,988	157,688,618
1933	132,987	159,579,259

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The Imperial Diet

The parliamentary system could not develop in Japan before the Meiji Restoration, because politics were controlled by the Samurai class for hundreds of years. Thus, the Imperial Diet was established solely according to the pattern of Western countries. In accordance with the promise contained in the Charter Oath of the Emperor Meiji, councils or assemblies of various kinds were established at the beginning of the Meiji Era, but their members were not elected by the people and consequently they were of a different nature from the parliaments of the West. In 1881 it was promised to convoke a National Assembly within 10 years, and the Imperial Diet on Western lines was first opened in 1890.

The Diet is much limited in its power and the duration of its sessions, but in its fundamental nature it has much in common with the national assemblies of Western countries. According to Art. 5 of the Constitution, the legislative power belongs to the Emperor and the Diet's function is only to give (or presumably withhold) consent to legislation proposed by the Throne. But this is a formality, and the Diet has almost the same power of legislation, including that of initiative as the parliaments of other civilized nations. At the same time, the Diet, in virtue of its being an assembly of representatives, has been invested with the power of supervising the administrative organs, as represented by the state ministers. It is a bicameral legislature, consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives, and the decisions which are harmoniously made by both Houses are the decisions of the Imperial Diet.

The House of Peers The House of Peers is composed of the Imperial Princes, Peers, and Imperial nominees, according to the provisions of the House of Peers Ordinance. This Ordinance was promulgated at the same time as the Constitution and has been revised several times since. In 1925, important revisions were made to the effect that the number of the peerage members was lessened and that of the representatives of the wealthy people was increased, together with an addition of representatives of the Imperial Academy. Thus the former majority of peerage members was brought to an end and their number became equal to that of members chosen by Imperial order.

According to the present House of Peers Ordinance, the House is composed of the following members:

(a) all the Imperial Princes above 20 years of age, and the Kōtaishi and Kōtaison if above 18.

(b) all Princes and Marquises above 30 years of age, with the term of office for life.

(c) 18 Counts, 66 Viscounts and 66 Barons elected by the Peers of their respective ranks. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is 7 years.

(d) Imperial nominees from among statesmen and scholars who have made valuable contributions to politics or science. They must be above 30 years of age and their term of office is for life. Their number must not exceed 125.

(e) 4 members of the Imperial Academy, elected by the members thereof and nominated by the Emperor. Their term of office is 7 years.

(f) Members elected by and from among the highest tax-payers, in any prefecture, in direct national taxation on land, income and business profits. Each member represents 100 such high tax-payers, his age

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must be above 30, and his term of service is 7 years. The number of this class of members must not exceed 66.

The House of Peers, therefore, consists of 150 Counts, Viscounts, and Barons, 195 representatives of statesmen, scholars and wealthy business men, and a certain number of Imperial Princes, Princes and Marquises, the number of the last named not being fixed for obvious reasons. The present (November, 1934) total of the members of the House of Peers is 409, vacancy 3.

The House of Representatives The House of Representatives is composed of members elected by the people in accordance with the provisions of the Electoral Law. This Law was first promulgated simultaneously with the enactment of the Constitution in 1886, and has undergone many minor revisions since. Important revisions were made in 1900, 1919 and 1925. The Law of 1889 required yearly payment of direct national tax of ¥15 as a qualification for both candidates and voters, and prescribed the system of small constituencies and the open ballot. In 1900, the requirement of tax payment was removed in the case of candidates and lowered to 10 yen for voters. Constituencies were divided into two classes municipal and rural, making each city an independent district and each prefecture one district; and the secret ballot was adopted. In 1919, the tax requirement was again lowered to 3 yen and the old small constituency system revived. In 1925, the male universal suffrage system was finally adopted, the division of municipal and rural districts was abolished, and a system of constituencies electing from 3 to 5 representatives each was established.

The universal suffrage of Japan is restricted as yet in comparison with that of Western countries, as to sex, age, residence and the conditions of eligibility. Women are totally ineligible and the age qualification for male voters is 25. The Electoral Law itself says nothing of the restriction on residence, but the list of voters must be made by Sept. 15 of the year previous to that of the general election and only persons who have lived a minimum period of one year in the same city, town or commune are eligible for inclusion. The Law also contains provisions for withholding the right to vote from criminals, legally disabled persons, such as bankrupts etc., actual holders of peerages, persons engaged in active combative service.

Candidates must be 30 years of age; otherwise their qualifications are the same as those for voters, except that of residence. The present number of the members of the House of Representatives is 440, vacancy 26.

According to the relevant articles of the Constitution, the Diet has power over all affairs of state which belong to the responsibility of the State Ministers. There is, however, a working but not complete separation of the legislative and executive powers between the Diet and the Ministers. There are certain statutory limitations of the Diet's power to control the executive. The Imperial Diet must not interfere with matters pertaining to the Imperial House. Except in regard to matters within the Diet itself, it can neither use the power of administration directly upon the people nor represent the State vis-à-vis of foreign nations.

Fixed Number of Lower House Representatives and Number of Votes at Recent General Elections

Date of election	Representatives	Voters
March, 1904	379	757,788
May, 1908	379	1,582,676
May, 1912	381	1,503,650

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Date of election	Representatives	Voters
March, 1915	381	1,546,841
April, 1917	381	1,422,118
May, 1920	464	3,069,787
May, 1924	464	3,288,368
Feb., 1928	466	12,409,078
Feb., 1930	466	12,813,192
Feb., 1932	466	13,095,621

Function of the Diet The Diet has five kinds of function, namely, constituent, legislative, financial, general supervision of the administration, and executive on matters in the Diet itself.

(1) The constituent power of the Diet is confined to deliberation on constitutional amendment initiated by the Throne. Action can only be taken by a two-thirds majority of a quorum of two-thirds of the membership of both Houses, as provided for in Article 73 of the Constitution.

(2) The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet and all laws and legislative ordinances must obtain that consent. Bills may be presented by the Diet itself as well as by the Government. The right of consent of course contains the rights of amendment and rejection. This right is subject only to the condition that the Diet's action does not contravene the Constitution, the Imperial House Law, and international law. Thus the power of legislative "consent" contains within it that of initiative. Legislative ordinances promulgated by the Emperor must be submitted to the Diet at the next session for approval or rejection but not amendment.

The legislative authority of the two Houses is equal in theory, and projects of law may be initiated in either. Naturally, therefore, no legislative enactment is complete without the consent of both Houses to all its provisions.

(3) The national budget must get the consent of the Diet. The budget is presented by the Government first to the House of Representatives, but consent to it must be accorded by both Houses. Article 70 of the Constitution, however, empowers the Government to take all necessary financial measures by Imperial Ordinance, and Article 71 empowers it, if the Diet has not voted in the budget or if the budget "has not been brought into actual existence" to carry out the budget of the previous year. National loans must obtain the consent of the Diet. All contracts outside the budget which involve state financial liability must also be approved by the Diet. Any disbursement of public money by the Government made without the Diet's consent between sessions must be submitted for approval at the earliest opportunity. The restrictions of the Diet's financial power, other than those mentioned above, are clearly stipulated in Article 67 of the Constitution. It is to be noted that the Budget as a project of administrative action is confined to expenditure. Revenue is determined by law, so that the Diet's control thereof comes within its general legislative competence.

(4) The responsibility of Ministers, collective or individual, to the Diet is not clearly established either in law or custom, but so far as the responsibilities of Ministers are concerned, the Diet clearly has a certain supervisory power. The Government can do what it wishes without the consent of the Diet in its administrative function, but the Houses can express independently of each other their judgement on what the Government had done. They may present written appeals to the Emperor against the actions of State Ministers. They can make proposals by resolution to the Government concerning administration. They may receive petitions from the people

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(the only function of the Diet to keep a direct contact with the people), and if these concern administrative matters, they are handed to the Government with the opinion thereon of the House to which they were addressed. The Houses may also pass resolutions on important state matters which are not addressed to the Government directly, but which, being made public as they are, naturally have an effect on the Government's popularity if they contain adverse criticisms. In these ways the Diet subjects the Government to a limited measure of control.

The Diet has the right of investigating the conduct of the administration, although this is very narrowly limited and rarely used. The Diet has the right of making inquiries on the responsibilities of the Ministers, the right of receiving reports from the Government on the income and disbursements of the National Treasury, on the handling of petitions sent in by the people through the Houses, and on serious diplomatic questions, unless they are such as require absolute secrecy.

(5) The Houses of the Diet have the right of self-government as to the regulations of their own Houses, on the procedures of session, on the police system in the Houses. The House of Peers has also the right to be consulted by the Emperor as to the privileges of peers.

The Diet is convoked annually by the Emperor (under Article 41 of the Constitution) for a period of ordinary session of 90 days. This period may be prolonged if necessary by Imperial order. Extraordinary sessions can be convened in the same way. The annual session is usually called at the end of year, although there is no regulation to this effect in the Constitution, and continued to the end of the following March, so that the budget can be voted before the new fiscal year begins. The Emperor may give orders to open or close the Diet; or suspend the session for a certain number of days for negotiations between the Diet and the Government or the two Houses; or dissolve the House of Representatives. All these actions are taken on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Officials of the Houses Each House has a President and Vice-President. The President not only presides and keeps order during the sessions but also directs the business of the House between sessions. The manner of appointment of the officers differs in the two Houses. In the House of Peers, they are appointed by the Emperor from among its members for a term of 7 years, the House itself having nothing to do with the appointment. In the House of Representatives, the House chooses three candidates for each of these positions and the Emperor makes the appointments from among the candidates. Their term of office is that of the life of the House.

There is an Official Bureau attached to each of the Houses, and officials such as the Chief Secretary, secretaries, stenographers, and the chief sergeant are appointed by the Government although they act under the orders of the respective House Presidents. Several things in the Japanese parliamentary system have been copied from the British and this official bureau is one of them.

The House of Peers has five and the House of Representatives four standing committees, and special committees are appointed when the need arises. Each House may sit as a committee of the whole for which chairmen are elected at the beginning of the session. The procedure of discussions and resolutions is similar to that customary in the English-speaking countries.

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Local Government

The units of local government are four: the prefecture, the city, the town, and the commune.

The Prefecture Japan proper, except Hokkaido, is administratively divided into 3 urban prefectures and 43 prefectures which are administered by governors. The function of the governor is to be the highest local administrative organ of state, and, at the same time, the head of the prefecture as a unit of local self-government. He is directly controlled by the Ministers of State and takes charge of the general national administration within his prefecture. In a prefecture all administrative business is unified under the control of the governor who supervises every kind of administrative work in the district according to the orders of the Premier and Ministers of the central government. Thus, the scope of his function is quite large and complicated. The appointment and dismissal of governors are made by the Minister of Home Affairs.

The system of prefectural government has undergone several changes and the nature of the work done is not necessarily the same in all the prefectures, but it is common, at present, to divide the duties into three divisions, namely, the Home Affairs Division, the Educational Division and the Police Division. Some prefectures have an Engineering Division.

As a unit of local self-government, the prefecture stands between the state and the municipalities. It has a prefectural assembly and a prefectural council as organs for decision, but the right of decision of these organs is much narrower than that of the city assembly and council, while the chief executive is the governor who is officially appointed by the Central Government.

The Prefectural Assembly is elected by universal suffrage, and the number of the members is fixed by the law. Membership of the assembly is honorary and the term of service is four years.

The Prefectural Council is composed of 10 members elected by and from among the assemblymen. The Governor is ex-officio chairman of the council, which is in fact a standing committee of the assembly, although entrusted with certain functions of arbitration which are not specifically devolved from the larger body.

Hokkaido is not divided into prefectural districts, but is itself an administrative unit as a whole, under one procurator, although it covers an area of 88,775.04 square kilometres and is thus many times as large as most of the prefectures. The procurator or chief is controlled by the Minister of Home Affairs directly and his function and duties are mostly the same as those of a prefectural governor. The special features of his function are that he undertakes colonization work, that as there is no national forestry law applied to the district the administration of forestry is left altogether in his power, and that he has to take care of the native Ainu according to the Protection Law for the Hokkaido Natives. The Hokkaido Office is divided into five divisions, namely, Divisions of Home Affairs, Education, Civil Engineering, Colonization and Police. The organization and rights of the Hokkaido Assembly and Council are almost the same as those of similar bodies in the prefectures. (On the governmental system of the Colonies see Chapters XL–XLIII.)

The Municipality (City, Town, Village) In 1932 there were 112 cities, 1,716 towns and 9,946 villages in Japan proper. (A village here means an

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administrative unit composed of a village or villages.)

There was some measure of local self-government in old Japan. The heads of villagers were chosen from among the villagers and were asked to rule over them. For some time after the Meiji Restoration, these customs were continued, although the official names of the heads of villages were changed. Moreover, towns and villages were allowed to exercise the right of managing public affairs with their own money as financial units. But it was with the formation of prefectural assemblies according to the new laws issued in July, 1878, that the local self-government of Japan began to assume a modern form. The self-government system of cities, towns and communes has been several times revised, the last revision being that of 1929.

There were formerly several restrictions on citizenship of the local communities, but according to the laws now in force every man is entitled to it in virtue of the male universal suffrage principle. The requirements of citizenship are about the same as those for the right to vote in parliamentary elections. Every male inhabitant of and above 25 years of age who has resided for a minimum period of two years in the same municipality is a citizen of the same and has the right to vote or to be elected and at the same time owes the duty of accepting any honorary post of service to which he may be elected.

The organs of local self-government are the assemblies of the representatives and the chiefs of the municipalities. The fixed minimum number of representatives in these assemblies is 30 in the cities and 12 in the towns and communes. The cities have also councils of ten members elected by and from among the assemblymen.

The Mayor of a city is a salaried official while the corresponding posts in a town or commune are honorary in principle. Mayors are elected by their respective assemblies for a term of four years. Their function and responsibilities are diverse, for they not only administer the affairs of the municipalities but also handle matters delegated to them by the central and prefectural governments and are entrusted with the supervision of some public bodies. As servants of the central government they take charge of the census register and all the business related to it, the election of the members of the Lower House, several kinds of national investigation, public engineering, public hygiene, relief work, educational supervision and encouragement, and certain work under the Conscription Law. This work is done without consulting the local assemblies, but simply as entrusted by the respective national officials.

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CHAPTER V

PARTIES AND POLITICS

Pre-party Cabinet Period

Japan's modern political life fairly started with the promulgation of the Constitution and opening of the Diet. The Imperial Edict for opening the national assembly within ten years was issued (see Chapter III) on October 12, 1881.

Party Formation Upon the issuance of the Imperial Edict parties began to be formed with a view to be prepared for the opening of the Diet. On October 18, 1881, the colleagues and comrades of Taisuké Itagaki drafted the rules of the new Jiyu-to Party and elected Itagaki President and N. Nakajima Vice-President at a preparatory meeting which was held at Asakusa, Tokyo. The governing principle of this party was that of Rousseau's social contract.

The next great party to be organized was the Kaishin-to. It came into being in March, 1882, with Shigenobu Okuma as President. The leading thought of this party was English liberalism, and it aimed at a healthy, mild policy with the educated class of people as its central constituency. It was, therefore, natural that the Kaishin-to won the sympathy of the intelligentsia of the cities, while the Jiyu-to got a hold on the people in the country districts, where the inhabitants were peasants who sympathized with more radical political thought because of their long sufferings under the feudal governments. Nowadays it can no longer be considered that the strength of the Minsei-to lies mainly in urban, and that of the Seiyukai in the rural constituencies, but until a few years ago this clear difference in spheres of influence was very marked. Many parties were born contemporaneously. It is said that there were formed 40 parties, besides these two, mostly local.

The first Ito Cabinet, which was organized in 1885 was not, of course, connected with any political party.[1]

The First Election The Jiyu-to was once dissolved into smaller groups, and the first general election was carried out amid a general confusion of political parties. Its result was as follows so far as the political parties were concerned:

Daido Club 55, Kaishin-to 46, Patriotic Public Party 35, Conservative Party 22, Kyushu Association 21, Jiyu-to 17, Jichi-to 17, Officials 18, neutrals 69, independents 2.

This result presented a grave problem to the political parties, for none had a clear majority in the House of Representatives, so various amalgamations were effected before the opening of the first session of the Imperial Diet, and when it opened the classification of the members became as follows:

The Rikken-Jiyu-to (or Constitutional Liberal Party) 130, the Rikken-Kaishin-to (or Constitutional Progressive Party) 41, Taisei-kai 79, National Liberal Party 5, and outsiders 45. The first two were anti-government parties, while the second two were pro-government. The remaining 45 were neutral.

The first platform of the Constitu-

1 For the political movement before the issuance of the Imperial Edict see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

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tional Liberal Party was: (1) To maintain the sacredness of the Imperial House and to extend the rights of the people, (2) To oppose such policies as might interfere with the free individual life of the people in home affairs, and to conclude treaties on equal terms in foreign affairs, (3) To realize parliamentary government and organize a party cabinet. And with these ideals the party men waged a fight for the establishment of a real parliamentary government. The number of anti-government members in the Lower House far exceeded that of the pro-government, and the bureaucratic Yamagata Cabinet feared for its very existence. Hostilities between the two started with the choice of the President of the House of Representatives and continued over the first budget subjected to the discussion of the House. The budget amounting to ¥83,075,000 was cut down to ¥75,194,300, or about 9% reduction. But the first session of the Imperial Diet was closed in March, 1891, without dissolution.

Itagaki's Party Suffers The party which suffered most from the poison of secret governmental control was the Constitutional Liberal Party, and they held a general meeting at Osaka immediately after the first session of the Diet. At the meeting, Itagaki, who had retired when the party had been once dissolved, was again chosen President, its name was made simpler by cutting away the first word "Constitutional," and the unity of its members was strengthened. The Matsukata Cabinet was formed in May of the same year; its head was as strong a foe to political parties as Yamagata, if not more so. Then there occurred the attack of a murderous fanatic on the Crown Prince of Russia at Otsu near Lake Biwa and a great earthquake wrought fearful destruction in Mino and Owari provinces; the Government was unable to cope with these emergencies while it was discredited in its policy against the parties.

Matsukata Cabinet Falls The second session of the Imperial Diet was convoked on Nov. 21, 1891, in a menacing atmosphere from the outset, and was finally dissolved on Dec. 25. The general election of Feb. 15, 1892, was carried out under extreme interference of the Government. Shinagawa, Minister of Home Affairs, ruled the local governors with an iron hand and used every effort for obtaining as many pro-governmental members as possible, the freedom of the vote being completely trodden underfoot. It was reported that 25 persons were killed and 388 were injured in this savage struggle. The result was, however, the victory of the anti-governmental party men, who numbered 163 against 137 of the pro-governmental, and they passed a vote of non-confidence in the third session, although the stubborn Matsukata Cabinet clung to its position in defiance of it.

But the Cabinet fell to pieces from within, and the second Ito Cabinet was formed in August, 1892. It was Ito who drafted the Constitution and stood aloof from the political parties in those days, although he later became the President of the Jiyu-to or the Liberal Party himself. And the Ito Cabinet cleverly managed the fourth session of the Diet. But the Cabinet was taken to task by the Diet over the misbehaviour of some Ministers and the fifth session was dissolved without any reason given on Jan. 30, 1894. At the third general election the Ito Cabinet took a very fair attitude, because Ito was always anxious to be or at least to seem constitutional. Its outcome was again disadvantageous to the Government, and the sixth session,

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which was convoked on May 12, 1894, was dissolved on June 2 because of the non-confidence resolution on the last dissolution and the diplomatic inability of the Government. It may be remarked here that Tsuyoshi Inukai, the late Premier, appeared on the surface of the political world for the first time at this session. He was a member of the Lower House from the beginning and had organized a progressive party of his own a little before this, but his motion of wholesale non-confidence was the first occasion that his earnestness and sincerity for the maintenance of parliamentary authority began to show itself.

The Sino-Japanese War The interval between the sixth and seventh sessions was but half a year, yet it was marked by many important political and diplomatic affairs. The Sino-Japanese War, 1894-1895, broke out in July, 1894. The general election was carried out on September 1 of the same year. The seventh session had been expected to witness a repeated collision of the Diet and the Government, but the first international war drew all the attention of the people and the session closed peacefully after lasting but four days instead of a week as fixed, on the 22nd of October, 1894, at Hiroshima, where the Emperor was staying during the war to command the Imperial Army and Navy. All parties were united for the national cause and supported the Government with one accord, and the military emergency budget amounting to ¥150,000,000 was immediately passed without any reduction. All the political conflicts at home were stilled in the face of the international war and the eighth session convoked on Dec. 22, 1894, was quietly carried out. The peace treaty with China was sanctioned on March 20, 1895. But the interference of the Three Powers on the lease of the Liaotung Peninsula aroused indignation throughout Japan, and this feeling soon centred in an attack on the Government.

A Political Bloc The Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to, People's Association, Chugoku Progressive Party, Financial Kakushin-to and Ohté Club were united in criticizing the Government's weak diplomacy, and formed a great union called the Central Representative Club. The Liberal Party did not join the Club, because it had come to some understanding with the Government, and had a special connection with Ito, who gradually had drawn nearer to this political party. The tacticians in both the Government and the Liberal Party had succeeded in bringing Ito and the party nearer, and just before the 9th session the Liberal Party took off its mask and openly declared its coalition with the Ito Cabinet. This was the first instance of a political party being publicly united with the Government.

The Progressive Party Ito's policy was a success and the 9th session ended in the victory of the Government by the faithful support of the Liberal Party. The defeated parties recognized the need of a stronger union and on March 1, 1896, the Kaishin-to, Kakushin-to and three other bodies dissolved themselves and organized the Shimpo-to or Progressive Party under Okuma. The platform of the new party was to exalt the sacredness of the Imperial House and to advance the rights and welfare of the people, (1) by establishing a responsible cabinet with the removal of political evils, (2) by enlarging the national power with the renovation of diplomacy, and (3) by developing private enterprises with the readjustment of financial policy.

From now onwards the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party be-

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came rivals as the greatest political parties in the country. The members of the Lower House, by party grouping, were as follows at the end of March: the Liberal Party 110, the Progressive Party 100, Peoples' Association 32, Yamaguchi Group 5, Kishu Group 4, unaffiliated 49.

Itagaki Joins Ito After the 9th session, Itagaki of the Liberal Party entered the Ito Cabinet and took the post of Home Minister. The Ito Cabinet was in power three full years and managed numerous political matters of importance, but it collapsed in August, 1896. The Matsukata Cabinet which came next was a coalition of Matsukata's Satsuma clan and Okuma's Progressive Party. This cabinet took a very progressive policy in removing long political evils and financial defects and its activity was welcomed with much expectation. But the Liberal Party, now in opposition, was ready to make attacks against the Cabinet which contained Okuma, their political enemy. The tenth session which was convoked on Dec. 25, 1896, passed off with little trouble for the Government, although the Liberal Party attacked it on the score of its foreign diplomacy. It is to the credit of the Matsukata Cabinet that it established the gold standard of national currency.

Exit Okuma Okuma, Home Minister, resigned in November, 1897, and the relation between the Cabinet and his party was severed. Matsukata now endeavoured to get the support of the Liberal Party, but in vain, and the Cabinet faced the 11th session of the Diet without any assistance from political parties. A non-confidence resolution was proposed by 38 members in the session and seconded by 150. On Dec. 25, 1897, the Lower House was suddenly dissolved, and the Cabinet itself resigned in miserable defeat. Ito was ordered to form a cabinet for the third time, and it was again a transcendental one. The 12th session was begun on May 14, 1898. The Government proposed an increase of taxes on land, saké, and incomes, but was defeated by an absolute majority of 247, and the House was dissolved in revenge. This action of the Government, however, greatly stimulated the development of anti-governmental parties and brought about an extraordinary political phenomenon. It was but a faint herald of the dawn of party government, but it gave a real shock for the first time to the foundations of the clan and bureaucratic forces in Japanese politics. Both the Liberals and the Progressives had had a very hard time in the past to wage war against clan statesmen and bureaucracy, but in most cases they had been treated by the latter like mere instruments for accomplishing their own purposes. Now they came to their senses and saw that their real foes were these same clansmen and bureaucrats who monopolized the government, and that their first aim must be the destruction of them. On June 21, 1898, both parties held final meetings simultaneously and dissolved themselves, and on the 22nd they all met at the Shintomi Theatre, Tsukiji, and amalgamated themselves into a new party, the Kenseikai, or Constitutional Party, to put an end to bureaucratic government and to establish that of a party.

The Kenseikai and Ito All the elder statesmen, clan and bureaucratic bodies were alarmed in the extreme by this organization of the Constitutional Party. A meeting was called before the Emperor on the 24th and a hot discussion on counter measures against the power of the party was continued for several

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hours. Ito asserted that there were but three ways for him to meet the situation: either to form a governmental party himself to carry on the government, or to resign first and form a party to support the Government from outside, or lastly to surrender altogether before the Constitutional Party and let them organize a cabinet with Okuma and Itagaki at their head. Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan was firmly opposed to this proposal and declared, "It is against the Japanese Constitution to establish a cabinet upon a party foundation; let us quit the Constitution for the time being if necessary to meet the critical moment!" On June 27, 1898, however, Okuma and Itagaki were finally called to the Imperial Court and ordered to form a cabinet. A coalition cabinet was thus formed on the 30th of that month, all the posts except those of Naval and Military Ministers being filled by party men. Its composition was as follows:

Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Okuma (Progressive); Home Minister, Itagaki (Liberal); Minister of Finance, Matsuda (Liberal); Minister of Justice, Daito (Progressive); Minister of Education, Ozaki (Progressive); Minister of Communications, Hayashi (Liberal); Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Oishi (Progressive); Minister of War, Katsura (Choshu clan); and Minister of the Navy, Saigo (Satsuma clan).

It was, however, a combination of antagonistic forces for convenience' sake, and the partisans soon began to quarrel among themselves, so that the Constitutional Party, which tried to advance too quickly, soon split up again into the former Liberal and Progressive Parties, largely by the tactics of Toru Hoshi, who played an influential part in politics as a member of the Liberal Party, and was assassinated later in a room of the Tokyo City Hall. So the first party cabinet was compelled to dissolve without meeting a session of the Diet on Oct. 31, 1898, within four months of its formation.

Yamagata Returns Now came the turn of bureaucracy again, under Yamagata of the Nagato or Choshu clan (these two Japanese words indicate the same Nagato province at the south-western end of the Main Island), in November, 1898. Yamagata had had bitter experience with political parties and this time he succeeded in getting the support of the Liberal Party (which called itself Kenseito as yet) and handled the 13th session of the Diet as he wished, many important revisions of the national laws being made, and the military preparations being enlarged by raising the taxes on many important items.

It was during the life of this cabinet that the new treaties which had been concluded with foreign nations at the time of the former Ito Cabinet were put into force, and Japan came to stand on an equal footing with the other civilized countries of the world politically and diplomatically. This was on July 17, 1899. The Yamagata Cabinet accomplished great feats in the administration of complicated and extensive political affairs after the Sino-Japanese War, and laid the foundations for the future development of Japan. But as a representative of the old bureaucracy, a survivor of the discarded clan officials, he left many bureaucratic traces in the law and the governmental system by establishing the rule that the posts of War and Naval Ministers can be held only by officers on the active list, and by enlarging the power of the Privy Council, which hindered the healthy

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development of political parties in later days.

Satisfied with his own performance in the enlargement of military preparations, completion of laws and institutions in general, revision of the election law, improvement of local governments, and advancement in the educational system and institutions, Yamagata tendered his resignation to the Throne in September, 1900.

Ito Forms the Seiyukai A little before that, Ito came back from his tour to China and wanted to organize a powerful political party himself, and the Liberal Party was anxious to get him to revive its power after its separation from the Yamagata Cabinet. The party wished to put Ito at its head, while Ito wanted to organize a party purely of his own without the help of any existing party. But the general trend of political affairs at this time finally compelled these two to become united into one, and the Liberal Party was renewed by Ito, assuming a new name, the Constitutional Liberal Party, or Rikken Seiyukai, on Sept. 15, 1900. On Oct. 9, 1900, Ito formed a cabinet for the fourth time, and it was welcomed by the party men and the people at large, but the reactionary movement of the House of Peers shortened its life, and Ito never again had an opportunity for organizing a cabinet, although he had much to do yet for national politics, especially in the field of Korean affairs.

The Katsura Cabinet On June 2, 1901, General Katsura formed his cabinet upon the basis of bureaucracy again. Katsura and the members of his Cabinet were rather young compared with those of the preceding cabinets, and the Elder Statesmen were anxious about their ability, but Katsura was quick to see the unrest in the Seiyukai and immediately took steps to control it for the convenience of the Government. In this he succeeded fairly well, and the 16th session of the Diet passed off in peace, at the beginning of the year 1902, winning, at the same time, the general applause of the people on the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance on Feb. 12, 1902. The 7th general election was held on Aug. 10, 1902, in which the number of the Lower House members was enlarged from 300 to 376, and as the result the Seiyukai gained 189 seats, the Kensei-honto 104, the Empire Party 18, the San-shi Club 7, and Independents 58. As is always the case with a bureaucratic cabinet, even this clever and skilled tactician met with strong opposition from the Elder Statesmen and the two great parties over the problem of raising funds for naval expansion by increasing the land tax, and the 17th session was dissolved because of a direct collision between the Lower House and the Katsura Cabinet. It did not end in the victory of the Government, but Katsura again made a painstaking effort to utilize parties, and found a way out in the 18th session by changing his policy from raising the land tax to floating a public loan to obtain the necessary means for the proposed navy extension.

Saionji Succeeds Ito The Katsura Cabinet had been in power over two years already and the general atmosphere suggested a change when the threatening state of affairs in Manchuria was further complicated by the aggressive policy of the Russian Government. Katsura was ordered to stay at his post although he tendered his resignation, largely because of the pressure of Ito, who was a Genro (see the article in Chapter IV, Government, for the meaning of "Genro") and the head of the Seiyukai at the same time. Ac-

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cording to the advice of Yamagata and Matsukata, who were also Genro, Ito and Saionji exchanged positions and President Ito of the Seiyukai was appointed President of the Privy Council; while Saionji, President of the Council, succeeded Ito as that of the Seiyukai.

Saionji is the only remaining Genro at present. He was a progressive statesman, and it was his earnest desire to see a pure party cabinet come into existence sooner or later. He had been many times suggested as Premier but had always refused, as he considered it unreasonable and bureaucratic to form a cabinet with no backing in the House of Representatives, so he gladly accepted this proposal of the Seiyukai and made great efforts for the revival of the party, which had shrunk to 120 from its absolute majority of 193 at the beginning of the 18th session largely because of long inner disturbances.

At the same time, the rival party Kensei-honto was also experiencing the same kind of internal troubles because of Katsura's despotic policy for reducing the power of all parties, and it was natural that the two parties should unite to impeach the Katsura Cabinet. The 19th session was convoked at the end of 1903, with Kono, President of the House of Representatives, and Iyesato Tokugawa, that of the House of Peers. But this session was dissolved immediately after its opening meeting because of the resolution impeaching the Government.

War with Russia War was declared against Russia on Feb. 10, 1904. The emergency session of the Diet was convoked on March 18 and the regular one on Dec. 28 of the same year, and in the latter the Diet unanimously passed a budget of ordinary expenses ₹110,000,000 and war disbursement ₹780,000,000. The famous victories at Port Arthur, Mukden and the Japan Sea finally brought peace, and by the mediation of President Roosevelt the peace treaty was concluded between Japan and Russia on Sept. 5, 1905. On the same day riots broke out in Tokyo and other big cities because of the general dissatisfaction with the terms of the peace treaty, and Tokyo was put under martial law. Ito, President of the Privy Council, went to Korea by Imperial Order in November and that country was made a protectorate of Japan, Ito becoming the first Resident-General, while Komura, who returned from Portsmouth, immediately went to Peking and concluded treaties with China on Japanese rights and privileges to settle the problems arising from the peace treaty.

The Saionji Cabinet The Katsura Cabinet remained in power as long as 4 years and 7 months and accomplished several important enterprises, but taking the responsibility for the riots and for a disturbance in the Tokyo Imperial University, which also occurred in connection with the conclusion of the Peace Treaty, resigned in January, 1906, and Saionji was ordered to form a cabinet; but he failed to organize one of pure party-government because of the great power of bureaucracy behind the national politics. The most important measure in the 22nd session of the Diet was that for the State ownership of all railways. With great difficulty it was passed with an amendment by the House of Peers. The peace-loving Saionji strove for the civilization of Manchuria, transforming the military rule into civil administration. It was an expression of this policy that the South Manchuria Railway Company was established in this year.

While the Seiyukai became prosperous as the government party,

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the Kensei-honto had a hard time and Okuma finally left it on Jan. 20, 1907.

The Saionji Cabinet continued for two-and-half years fighting against the forces of bureaucracy, and the Seiyukai obtained an absolute majority of 190 at the 10th election, May, 1908. But Saionji left his position a little after the election partly because of his illness and partly owing to the stubborn pressure of the bureaucrats, who were specially critical of his liberal policy toward the socialists, who had gradually increased in numbers since the Sino-Japanese War.

The Second Katsura Cabinet The second Katsura Cabinet which was formed on July 14, 1908, was of course bureaucratic. One notable phenomenon of the 10th election was the appearance of representatives of business men in the Lower House, prophetic of the rise of the business class who now rode on the universal tide of capitalism. Katsura saw the change of the times and allied himself with business men to realize his policy for a readjustment of the taxation system and consolidation of the public loan. But the Seiyukai having so large a number of seats as 193 in the Lower House at the 25th session, Katsura could do nothing without their agreement. With his usual tactics he came to a full understanding with them and the 25th and 26th sessions passed off very quietly.

The Kensei-honto kept only 65 seats in the Lower House and internal discord caused it to dwindle further. But stimulated by the increase of the Seiyukai, it united with other forces on March 13, 1910, and merged itself into a new party named the Rikken Kokuminto or Constitutional Nationalist Party. This new party had 92 members in the Lower House and was led by Inukai and Oishi.

During the three years' régime of the second Katsura Cabinet the outstanding events were the first general arrest of socialists and the annexation of Korea. The latter was hastened by the assassination of Ito by a Korean at Harbin station on Oct. 26, 1909. Terauchi, Minister of War, was appointed to the additional post of Resident-General of Korea in May, 1910, and on Aug. 29 of the same year Korea was at last annexed to Japan.

Army Division Increase Question Saionji became Premier for the second time on Aug. 30, 1911. His Cabinet was supported by 214 Seiyukai members in the House of Representatives and this time he could form it without much regard for bureaucracy, although he could not yet wholly get rid of its interference, both public and secret. While he was in power, the Emperor Meiji passed away amid the sorrow and lamentation of the people on July 30, 1912, and the Emperor Taisho came to the Throne. After this national event, bureaucratic forces began to work again and caused through General Uyehara, Minister of War, an increase of two Army divisions proposed. Uyehara resigned his position independently because of the rejection of his proposal by the Cabinet. Saionji asked Yamagata to recommend his successor, but this Elder Statesman, who had himself established the military minister system for military and naval departments, and was the leader of the bureaucratic and military forces, rejected Saionji's request, and the Cabinet collapsed at once.

But this plot of the dark forces stirred up the party men to the extreme, and loud cries arose for the destruction of bureaucracy and pro-

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tection of constitutional government, when Katsura appeared for the third time to form his bureaucratic government. Katsura tried every means to still the general antagonism, but in vain. Inukai, Ozaki, Ohoka and other influential party men led the national movement with the backing of public opinion for putting an end to bureaucracy, and the situation became so critical that to push Katsura's policy further meant something like the outbreak of a civil war, consequently he was compelled to resign after but 53 days. This was an epoch-making event in the political history of Japan and real party-government was now at hand, although Katsura was succeeded by Yamamoto, who was one of the foremost navy men at that time.

Yamamoto to Okuma The defeated Katsura sadly realized the power of parties and organized the Rikken Doshikai or Constitutional Comrades Party after his resignation, and the 31st session of the Diet was held at the beginning of 1914, with the classification of members of the Lower House as follows:

Seiyukai	208	Chuseikai	37
Doshikai	93	Independents	7
Kokuminto	40		

The Yamamoto Cabinet was supported by the Seiyukai and had no doubt about passing the Navy Increase Bill. But the unexpected exposure of bribery in high naval circles, the so-called "Commission Scandal", caused the overthrow of the Government at the end of March, 1914. The council of Genro had a hard time in the choice of the person to be recommended for the Premiership, and after considering several candidates Okuma was finally ordered to form a cabinet.

About 15 years had passed since Okuma left his party the Kenseito, and when he once more took the position of Premier the public welcomed him with sympathy and he answered to the public goodwill by reducing the power of navy men in politics with the support of the Doshikai which contained many former members of the old Kenseito. It was during his Premiership that Japan entered the World War on Aug. 23, 1914.

It was the Seiyukai's turn to tread the thorny path of opposition. President Saionji had left it in 1913, and Hara had been its practical leader since then, and the number of members was declining when the question of election of the President arose. Opinions were divided and many a member wanted to call Saionji back, but he was too unselfish to accept the proposal and earnestly recommended Hara to be the new President of the Seiyukai.

The new President Hara was a plain untitled man, but a man of rare ability, and the Seiyukai renewed its strength under his leadership.

Okuma's Sweep The 35th session was dissolved because of the rejection of the Army Division Increase Bill by the Seiyukai and the Nationalist party. The general election of March, 1914, ended in victory for the pro-governmental parties, largely because of the aggressive interference of Oura, the Home Minister, the backing of a business clan and the sympathetic campaign conducted by the faculty and students of Waseda University, which had been founded by Okuma. The Doshikai gained 150 seats in the House of Representatives against 104 of the Seiyukai, which was reduced to half its former number. But the latter stubbornly attacked the Government on Oura's interference with the election and other matters, and compelled Oura to leave the Cabinet by bringing a public suit against him.

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Okuma once tendered his resignation to the Throne in relation to this matter, but was asked to stay at his post and reorganize the Cabinet on July 30, 1915, thereby prolonging its existence for three months.

The Rice Riots At this time the Kenseikai was organized under Takaaki (Komei) Kato by the combination of the Doshikai Party, the Koyu Club, and the Chuseikai on Oct. 10, 1915, in the expectation of organizing the next cabinet. But Masataké (Seiki) Terauchi was recommended instead, and he again formed a transcendental government, a sort of off-shoot of the old Choshu clan; he soon met with a vote of non-confidence by the Lower House, and the 38th session was instantly dissolved. After the general election the Terauchi Cabinet got the support of the Seiyukai and the Nationalist Party and managed to get through the 39th and 40th sessions without damage to the Government. But the general cost of living shot up to unreasonable heights owing to the vast increase of capitalistic business during the World War, and the artificial rise in the price of rice caused nation-wide rice riots in August, 1918, and the riots shook the foundation of the Cabinet, so that Terauchi was forced to resign on Sept. 21.

Formation of Party Government

Among the five Genro, Inouyé and Oyama, who had been the commander of armies at the time of the Russo-Japanese War, had died, and Yamagata, Matsukata and Saionji were the only ones left now, and they chose Saionji, the youngest, to be the next Premier. The Emperor requested Saionji to form a cabinet, but he was clever enough to see the progress of democracy among the people and courteously declined the Imperial appointment and recommended Hara instead. Yamagata finally yielded and gave his consent to this decision, but asked Hara to form a coalition cabinet of the Seiyukai and the bureaucrats.

The First Party Cabinet Hara rejected his suggestion and for the first time in Japanese party history a cabinet was organized by party men only, except for two or three ministers who were mostly pro-Seiyukai.

As was mentioned above, the political parties of Japan were originated by the statesmen of the samurai class and had much of the bureaucratic element in themselves, and the clan statesmen had the confidence of the Imperial Court and wielded real power in general politics as a matter of fact, regardless of the public opinion represented and expressed by the political parties or through the press. Up to the first half of the Taisho Era the political parties could not make much progress as independent bodies, and were almost always made use of by the clan statesmen or military leaders, not having enough power of their own to form a party cabinet, but allowing themselves to become tools of bureaucracy even when the head of the party himself organized a cabinet. But the remarkable development of capitalism and rapid progress of democratic thought among the people at the time of the World War and afterwards caused a decline in the power of the bureaucrats. The coming of Hara, President of the Seiyukai, who was a commoner, into power gave almost the last blow to the old bureaucracy, which gradually faded away by the beginning of the Showa Era.

Hara's Policy The policy of the Hara Cabinet was, in outline, the completion of national defence, the improvement of the educational sys-

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tem, the promotion of all business and the adjustment of traffic organs. The establishment of the jury system, the improvement and enlargement of the higher educational organs, and the revision of the Election Law must be counted to the credit of this Cabinet. Hara showed his democratic spirit in revising the military governmental system of Taiwan and Chosen so that a civil official might become the Governor-General of a colony. The 41st session passed without much disturbance. But the Seiyukai had not yet an absolute majority and when the anti-cabinet parties proposed the bill of universal suffrage at the following session, Hara took advantage of it and dissolved the Lower House to get his much-wanted majority. The result of the general election held on May 10, 1920, was as follows:

Seiyukai	279	Kokuminto	29
Kenseikai	108	Neutrals	48

Hara was able to do as he pleased, for he again had the support of the great Seiyukai, and pushing aside all opposition from his political foes he was advancing brilliantly toward the completion of the said policies when he fell a victim to the dagger of a young assassin at Tokyo Station on Nov. 4, 1921. He was succeeded as President of the Seiyukai by Korekiyo Takahashi, who organized his Cabinet after the incident, but it was short-lived and was compelled to resign within 6 months. The Seiyukai had troubles among themselves, while the other great party, the Kenseikai, was rather weak so that bureaucratic cabinets were organized one after another for about three years. When Count Kiyoura formed his bureaucratic Cabinet in Jan., 1824, the Seiyukai was divided into two on the question of supporting or not supporting the new cabinet, and the majority of its members who were pro-cabinet seceded from the Seiyukai and organized the Seiyu-honto under the leadership of Yamamoto, Motoda, Nakahashi and Tokonami.

The General Election of 1924 The Kiyoura Cabinet dissolved the 48th session of the Imperial Diet and at the general election which was held in May, 1924, the opposition parties, namely, the Kenseikai, and the Kakushin Club stood up against the Government rallying their forces in defence of parliamentarism, and under Premier Kato who was the head of the then largest party, the Kenseikai, a coalition cabinet of the three parties was realized. This was the death-blow to the bureaucracy of Japan; the clan chieftains and bureaucrats entirely lost their power as a political class and the bourgeois parties completely took their place, the final blow being the passing of the Universal Suffrage Law at the 50th session of the Diet.

Universal Suffrage

The 50th session of the Diet was convoked on Dec. 25, 1924, and it became a memorable one by passing the Universal Suffrage Bill. The demand for universal suffrage had a long history, but it seemed impossible to realize it as long as bureaucracy had its iron grip on all such questions. But the time had come for the mass of the people to voice their convictions on politics with freedom. This time the Government itself drafted the bill and it was first subjected to the examination of the Privy Council. The conservative Council advised revisions and the Government sent it to the House of Representatives which passed the original bill of the Government and sent it to the House of Peers. The latter House could not directly oppose it, but passed it with amendments on weighty points pretty nearly to the same degree as

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those of the Privy Council. The consultations between the two Houses were repeated, and the Universal Suffrage Bill was passed, to come into force on May 5 of the same year. The antagonistic attitude of the House of Peers toward universal suffrage resulted in a revision of the House of Peers Law to the effect that the number of Kazoku or noblemen among its members was decreased.

Side by side with the accession of the bourgeois parties to power, there broke out many political movements of radicals and proletarians in the form of political parties (see the following articles on these parties). Radicals among the existing parties organized their own party, the Kakushin Club, mentioned above, in Nov., 1922, by the combination of the group of Ozaki, Shimada and their comrades who had left the Kenseikai, with the Nationalists' Party which was led by Inukai, and one other group. But in May, 1925, it broke up, and Inukai and his colleagues joined the Seiyukai. Later the Kakushin Club dwindled into a very small party, although it played an important part in the doings of the Imperial Diet.

There was another movement organized by business men under the leadership of Sanji Muto in April, 1923, but this party was unable to get much sympathy from the general public.

Tanaka to Hamaguchi Viscount Takahashi resigned the Presidency of the Seiyukai and General Baron Tanaka was called from outside to succeed him in April, 1925. This change broke up the unity of the Coalition Cabinet of the three parties mentioned above, and it was forced to give up office. It was followed by a Kenseikai Cabinet under Premier Kato in August of the same year. The Premier fell ill and died, and Wakatsuki, the new President of the Kenseikai was ordered to form a cabinet in January, 1926. Tokonami, who led the Seiyu-honto, took a very ambiguous attitude toward the other parties, but finally joined Wakatsuki and the two parties became one on June 1, 1927, assuming the new name of Minseito. Of this new party Hamaguchi became President while Wakatsuki and Tokonami were made advisers.

On the other hand, the Seiyukai began to rally its power gradually under the leadership of Tanaka, inviting Inukai and his comrades and a part of the Seiyu-honto to join them and after the collapse of the Wakatsuki Cabinet in April, 1927, the Tanaka Cabinet came into being. But unsatisfied with the result of the first general election by universal suffrage in 1928, they tried hard to collect as many members as possible from among the neutrals and the Minseito. At the same time, Tokonami, who had lost hope of becoming the head of the new Minseito Party, seceded from it in August of the same year, and afterward, when the Hamaguchi Cabinet was formed in July, 1929, he went back to his old home, the Seiyukai.

In July, 1929, Hamaguchi organized the Minseito Cabinet and his party won an absolute majority in the House of Representatives as the result of the second universal suffrage election in the following year. But on Nov. 14, 1930, Hamaguchi was shot at Tokyo Station, and although he lived another year his wound finally proved fatal and hard times again visited the Minseito. Wakatsuki became its President again and formed a Cabinet in April, 1931.

With retrenchment as its war-cry, the Wakatsuki Cabinet carried out a general reduction of the salaries of officials and tried to make

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readjustments in the administrative, financial and tax systems, but without success. The Manchurian Incident of Sept. 18, 1931, occurred near Mukden. The Manchurian problem and the relations between Japan and China had been becoming more acute year by year and the Manchurian railway affair called the attention of the world to the impending collision of the two nations. The incident proved a turning-point in the drift of national politics which now headed in a very different direction not only in diplomacy, but also in many home affairs. The Army and Navy took the lead over the Manchurian problem, no doubt, but they could do so only because the people at large sympathized with and supported them. The budget for the fiscal year 1931-1932 could not be made out without floating a national loan or increasing the taxes, which would of course be most unwelcome to the people at large. Rowdiness and riotous struggles in the House of Representatives at the 59th session which was held at the beginning of 1931, greatly lowered the standing of the House in the eyes of the people and the inability of the Imperial Diet to take any decided course of action after the Manchurian Incident brought parliamentary government into discredit with the nation, and this state of affairs much affected the stability of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. In October, 1931, Wakatsuki expressed his wish to resign, and there arose discussions on the wisdom of forming a new cabinet which might combine the forces of the Minseito and Seiyukai. But opinion was divided, and in the end the Wakatsuki Cabinet was forced to resign on December 11.

Inukai and the Embargo Inukai, who became President of the Seiyukai in 1929 after the death of Tanaka, publicly announced his idea of re-imposing the gold embargo at the general meeting of his party on November 10, and the resignation of the Wakatsuki Cabinet, which came immediately after it, therefore, suggested the possibility of something serious taking place in case the choice of the succeeding government was not well made. Saionji, the Genro, laid the nomination of Inukai to the Premiership before the Throne, and on December 13, 1931, the single Seiyukai Cabinet came into power.

The Inukai Cabinet proclaimed the re-imposition of the gold ban on the day following its installation, as had been expected. This Cabinet had a minority in the Lower House, so they intended to dissolve the Diet at the coming session when suitable occasion arose, to seek for an expression of national confidence at the general election, and hastened to make preparations for it. Hardly had a week passed before it changed most of the local governors to those who were favourable to the Seiyukai, because these officials had direct influence over the general election. The new Cabinet had assumed the post but two weeks before the 60th session of the Diet and had no time for planning a budget of its own, it had, therefore, to borrow that of the Wakatsuki Cabinet. It was, nevertheless, presented to the Diet with some changes or revisions, but it failed to be passed because of the dissolution on January 21, 1932.

Previous to this, an unexpected event endangered the life of the Cabinet. It was nothing less than a bomb thrown at the Emperor's procession near the Sakurada Gate of the Palace Grounds and before the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police. The Emperor and an Imperial Prince narrowly escaped injury. This act of "lése majesté" compelled the cabinet to resign, but

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the Emperor did not ask them to assume responsibility, and encouraged them to continue in office, and Inukai and other members of the Cabinet pledged their patriotism and loyalty to the Throne, in spite of public opinion which was rather against their holding on to the reins of power.

The Seiyukai's Victory The general election of Feb. 20th was carried out amidst the apparent apathy of the people at large because their attention was absorbed by the Manchurian problem and the events in Shanghai which seemed to be impelling the nation towards international discord, with war as a final outcome. But the result was that the Seiyukai, the government party, piled up the grand majority of 304 while the Minseito dwindled to 146.

The Seiyukai Cabinet, which had gained the absolute majority in the House of Representatives, was to call an extraordinary session of the Diet in March to decide upon the emergency military expenses.

The May 15 Affair In the meantime, the new State of Manchoukuo was born, and the activities of international diplomacy helped to solve the complications in Shanghai, warfare there being terminated by mutual agreement. But Japan's international relations became strained and the world's attitude toward Japan, due to her persistence in military actions, became, reasonably or not, increasingly unfavourable, which reacted badly on the Inukai Government. The financial condition held out little hope for the business world, and the Government was unable to make any positive plans for the present and future of the public welfare. On the other hand, the general social and political unrest, and the discredit brought on parliamentary government helped the rapid growth of national socialistic thought in the minds of the people, and the organization of various Fascist associations among the hot-heads, both young and old. The repeated assassinations disturbed the public mind to the last extreme, and alarming rumours spread from the metropolis to the remotest parts of the Empire. The veteran statesman Inukai, the Premier, was eager to protect parliamentarism by making a thorough improvement of the political parties and realizing an even distribution of political benefits among the people in general instead of a partial accumulation of it in the hands of privileged classes. But the younger elements of the nation were too hasty-tempered to place reliance in his words and idealism, and on the evening of May 15, 1932, a dozen young cadets and officers of the Imperial Army and Navy armed with pistols broke into his official residence at Nagata-cho, Tokyo, and finding him in his Japanese sitting room pointed their weapons at him. "Wait a moment," said Inukai quietly. "Let us talk things over and you will understand my ideas." But without answering a word they fired, and the Premier fell. At the same time another band of young farmers attacked the transformer stations in the suburbs with intent to throw the city into darkness, but they were caught before they could carry it out. (See page 170.)

The Saito Cabinet Consequently the Cabinet, having lost its head, immediately tendered its resignation to the Throne. Saionji recommended Viscount Saito to the Throne after a thorough consultation with such experienced statesmen as might well be called vice-Genro. The Saito Cabinet was composed of five bureaucrats, three representatives of the House of Peers, three Seiyukai members, and two Minseito members,

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so that it was called a "National Cabinet."

At its second extraordinary session in 1932, the Imperial Diet passed the most important resolutions on the relief of the financial hardship of farmers and the recognition of the new state Manchoukuo. The latter was carried out in spite of obstacles, visible or otherwise, and to carry out the former decision a vast amount of money was needed in order to give substantial aid to the hard-stricken farmers, with their debt of ¥6,000,000,000.

Strength of Political Parties The present strength of each political party may be roughly shown in the following table, which gives the results of the 18th general election in February 1932, the third since universal manhood suffrage was adopted.

Parties	Candidates	Elected	Before Dissolution	Increase or Decrease
Bourgeois Parties				
1. Seiyukai	342	304	171	+ 133
2. Pro-Seiyu	10	—	—	—
3. Minseito	278	146	249	− 103
4. Pro-Minsei	5	1	—	+ 1
5. Kakushinto	4	2	3	− 1
6. Business Men's Party	—	—	6	− 6
7. Japan Seisanto	1	—	—	—
Proletariat Parties				
1. Social Democrats	15	3	2	+ 1
2. Pro-Social Demo.	1	—	—	—
3. National Labour-Farmer Mass Party	13	2	3	− 1
4. Other Parties	4	—	—	—
Neutral				
1. Adachi Party	12	5	10	− 5
2. Others	23	3	6	− 3
Total	708	466	450	

VOTES OBTAINED

		Votes for the Elected	Votes for the Defeated	Total
Bourgeois	1.	5,340,159	334,472	5,674,631
	2.	—	29,579	29,579
	3.	2,077,718	1,305,543	3,383,261
	4.	10,443	9,902	20,345
	5.	29,826	9,562	339,88
	6.	—	—	—
	7.	—	1,445	1,445
Neut. Prolet.	1.	49,774	72,488	122,262
	2.	—	3,496	3,496
	3.	37,829	96,535	134,364
	4.	—	18,669	18,669
	1.	83,404	62,263	145,667
	2.	43,679	91,533	140,212
Total		7,677,332	2,035,487	9,712,819

The Kokumin Domei was organized on Dec. 22, 1932, under President Adachi, and announced itself as a non-governmental party.

The 64th Session of the Diet The 64th session of the Imperial Diet was convened on Dec. 24, 1932, with the following line-up in the Houses:

House of Peers:	
(Number of members, 402, vacancies 4)	
Imperial Princes	18
Kenkyukai	148
Koseikai	69
Dowakai	41
Koyu Club	40
Kayokai	34
Doscikai	15
Independents	37
House of Representatives:	
(Number of members, 459, vacancies 7)	
Seiyukai	298
Minseito	116
Kokumin-Domei	32
Proletarian Parties, etc.	13

This session closed on March 25, 1933. It was a peaceful or rather monotonous one, and passed the

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budget of over ₹2,300,000,000 without a single cut, and 51 of the 53 bills proposed by the Government and 7 of the 97 bills proposed by the members of the Diet. Among those passed, there were such important laws as the Farmer-Village Debt Readjustment Law, a law for the relief of the people of Tohoku district who had suffered from the recent earthquake and tidal waves, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, and the revision of the Iron-manufacture Promotion Law which meant the union of all the largest iron-manufacturing works.

Political Movement of the Proletariat

There were frequent outbreaks of rice riots in the days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. But the samurai class was above the farmers and artisans, who had neither political power nor military force.

Labour Movement Takes Shape When modern commerce and industry were introduced to Japan in the Meiji Era and capitalism began to have sway over the working people, labour movements became active as a matter of course.

On the 1st of December, 1897, the Iron Workers' Union was organized in Tokyo with over one thousand members, and this was the first trade union in Japan.

Public Peace Police Law In 1900 the Imperial Diet passed a bill and enacted it into a law. The law was entitled the Public Peace Police Law. It proved to be the death knell to all phases of the labour movement, preventing the working classes from organizing themselves into unions. The law practically prohibited the industrial working classes as well as the tenant farmers from agitating in their own interests and against the employers and land-owners. And later the law was interpreted to mean that all labour movements were a crime.

In 1901, a socialist party was organized which was called the Social Democratic Party, the original members being S. Kotoku, I. Abé, N. Kinoshita, K. Kawakami, K. Nishikawa, and S. Katayama. It was soon suppressed by the authorities and transformed into a non-political organization, namely, the Socialist Association.

Marxism Introduced It was in 1903 that the socialist theory of Marxism was first introduced to the Japanese radicals, and the theory soon attracted large numbers of students. In 1906, the Socialist Party was organized for the second time, and on Feb. 17th, 1907, the first anniversary meeting of the party was held in Tokyo. The resolution at the meeting announced the aims of the party as follows : a radical and fundamental change of the existing society, universal suffrage, anti-militarism and anti-religion. Later the socialists began conflicts and were divided over the question of socialist tactics into two groups, i. e. Marxists and direct actionists. Secret activities of radical socialists and stern suppression of the same by the Government developed more and more desperate tactics on both sides, and the Government finally came by a chance to destroy the entire socialist movement in the bud. They instituted the famous anarchist trial in 1911, in which Kotoku and twenty-three others were condemned as traitors, and he with eleven others suffered the death penalty.

Marxist propaganda and leadership of strikes and even anarchists' movement did not cease with the trial and execution of Kotoku and his comrades. One of the most conspicuous events in the annals of their movement was the death of S.

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Osugi and his colleagues in the midst of the Great Earthquake commotion in Tokyo at the hands of the reactionaries.

But it must be said that Japanese social movement entered into a new era by the stimulus from the Russian Revolution in 1917 and its later development.

The Labour-Farmer Party The suppression of the Nippon Socialist Party in 1907 and the stern policy of the Government against socialist movements made the Japanese proletariat suffer and grope in the dark for the next decade.

In June, 1924, a society was established for the study of politics to prepare for the organization of a proletarian party. And by the proposal of the Japan Farmers' Union the first national proletarian party was organized on Oct. 1st, 1925, and it was called the Farmer-Labour Party. But this party met the Government's order of suppression on the very day of its organization because of its communistic elements. Thereupon, the left-wing elements were expelled and right-wing elements in the shape of the Japan Federation of Labour, were added, and in March, 1926, the Labour-Farmer Party was formed, with Mr. Motojiro Sugiyama as its president.

Schism in Proletarian Parties The Labour-Farmer Party soon became a nest of quarrelling cliques, and the question of opening the door to communistic elements gave a motive for the secession of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right leaders Iso-o Abé, Toyohiko Kagawa, etc., who established the Social Democratic Party with the Federation as its main element and Abé as its President on December 5, 1926. The new party rejected communism and insisted upon parliamentarism as a pure social-democratic party.

Contemporaneous with the formation of the Social Democrats, the left-wing elements of the Japan Federation of Labour and the right-wing elements of the Japan Farmers' Union organized the Japan Labour-Farmer Party under the leadership of Hisashi Aso-o on December 9, 1926, insisting upon the establishment of a right road for the proletarian movement.

The Labour-Farmer Party, which was stripped of half its force by the continuous secession of the right-wing elements, made Ikuo Ohyama its head and opened its doors to the communistic societies. The result was that it was practically led by the Japan Communists and played the part of a legitimate communistic party; and it was compelled to dissolve on the 10th of April, 1928, being suppressed by the Tanaka Cabinet after the wholesale arrest of the Japan Communists on the 15th of March of the same year.

The old leaders of the dissolved Labour-Farmer Party organized a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party and endeavoured to realize their plan, but always met with the pressure of the authorities, and finally organized the Proletarian People's Party under the theoretical leadership of Hitoshi Yamakawa.

Their Union In the meantime, the right-wing elements of the Japan Union of Farmers organized the Japan Farmer Party with the idea of establishing a representative Japanese party of farmers under the slogan, "Farmers come to the Party of Farmers", on October 17, 1926, and there arose many small local proletarian societies or parties in different districts.

Such rivalry and disunion among proletarian parties naturally called forth a demand for the unification of fighting lines, and the parties, which kept to the middle way, like

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the Japan Labour-Farmer Party, the Japan Farmer-Labour Party and the General Proletarian Party, which were the three national proletarian parties, and the Proletarian Constitutional Party, the People's Party in the central district and two other local parties were all united into one and organized the Japan Mass Party.

The General Proletarian Party organized an anti-separation union and protested against the leaders of the Japan Mass Party, but they themselves were soon dissolved into the Tokyo Proletarian Party for the Masses and other local proletarian parties.

The leaders of the former Labour-Farmer Party, who had formed a preparatory society for the establishment of a new party just after the dissolution of their party, continued their movement for its reconstruction, but their project was prohibited half-way, and the preparatory society itself was ordered to close. They were thus compelled to organize a labour-farmer union, an illegitimate body, for obtaining political freedom and did not cease to follow a communistic policy. But they were involved in the wholesale raids on the Japan Communists on March 15, 1928, and April 16, 1929, in which the ablest radical leaders were accused of being members of the Communistic Party and were mostly arrested so that their movement came to an end. The leaders who escaped the raid such as Ikuo Ohyama and Hajimé Kawakami organized a Labour-Farmer Party on November 1, 1929. The purpose of their new movement was to proclaim the need of obtaining the right of public activity as a lawful left-wing party by establishing a standing political organization.

While the left and midway parties had been continually combining and re-dissolving, the right-wing party of the proletariat or the Social Democratic Party alone developed without a hitch for some time, but in Sept., 1929, the Osaka Union of the Japan Federation of Labour, the main element of the party, separated from the federation and consequently withdrew from the party and established the National Democratic Party on January 15, 1930. But this party was united with the Japan Mass Party on the 20th of July of the same year and formed the National Mass Party.

The N. L. F. Mass Party The movement for the greater union of the proletarian parties was continued and the Society for the Realization of Unity of Proletarian Parties, which was a bloc of those who insisted on the unconditional union among the members of the National Mass Party, the Labour-Farmer Party and the Social Democratic Party, organized the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party on the 5th of July, 1931. In this new party there was no head of the central executive committee, but Hisashi Aso-o, President of the former National Mass Party, was appointed to the chair of the chief secretary, who also served as Acting President. Ikuo Ohyama, President of the former Labour-Farmer Party, retired from all official positions and went abroad. This National Labour-Farmer Mass Party stood between the extreme left and right, but the inner control gradually became loose and Hajimé Kawakami and Kanemitsu Hososeko were expelled along with some other members. These two were arrested as strong sympathizers with the Japan Communists.

Social Mass Party In 1931, the National-Socialist movement suddenly appeared on the surface of the sea of social unrest, and the tide of Fascism began to permeate the

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proletarian fighting lines ; the right-wing of the legitimate proletarian parties turned toward National Socialism. On the other hand, the left-wing was influenced by the Japan Communists, who never ceased their secret movements in spite of the constant interference of the authorities, and the power of the proletarian parties was greatly reduced. This state of affairs induced another union, and on the 24th of July, 1931, the Social Mass Party was organized by the union of the Social Democratic Party and the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party. This new party elected Iso-o Abé, Chairman of the Central Executive Committee ; and Hisashi Aso-o, Chief Secretary. The platform of the party was as follows :

(1) We will fight for the protection of the lives of the labour, farmer, and general working masses.

(2) We aim at the destruction of capitalism and the emancipation of the proletariat.

And this new party is acting as a social democratic party, rejecting both Communism and Fascism.

Universal Suffrage and Proletariats Since the birth of proletarian political parties with the purpose of sending representatives to the Diet, there have been three general elections. The latest campaign was at the third general election which was held on February 20, 1932, under the Inukai Cabinet in consequence of the dissolution of the Diet at the 60th session in the previous month. In this election, the proletarian parties made plans for fighting against capitalistic parties, from their past experiences and on the basis of their characteristic principles and policies, and sending out 36 candidates, fought bravely with public speeches as their only weapon. The result was 5 members elected, with the gain of 290,979 votes. To make a comparison with the former elections, the number of successful candidates on the first occasion was 8 or 3 more, and on the second one it was 5 or the same number as at the last, while in the number of votes they lost at the third election 201,242, compared with the first one, and 207,242, compared with the second one. But the number of the candidates was much smaller than the previous ones, so that the number of votes per capita increased to 8,083 from 5,593 of the first and 5,475 of the second election, or every proletarian candidate at the latest election gained about 3,000 more votes than at the previous two general elections.

Decrease in Candidates The reason of the decrease in the number of candidates at the third general election may be sought in the long financial depression the country over, and especially in the extreme poverty of the farming villages which caused difficulty in raising funds for the campaign. And the reasons of defeat may be counted as follows :

(1) The rivalry among the proletarian parties themselves in the same field of campaign.

(2) The defects in the system of the proletarian parties and the weakness of their influence on their constituencies.

(3) The lack of appeal of the proletarian parties for the unorganized mass of people.

(4) The inconveniences of the existing election laws for the proletarian parties.

The following table shows a comparison of the results of the three campaigns conducted by the proletarian parties :

Feb., 1928	Candidates	Elected	Votes Cast
Social Democratic	19	4	128,756
Japan Labour-Farmer	13	1	86,975
Labour-Farmer	40	2	193,028
Japan Farmer	13	0	46,180

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	Candidates	Elected	Votes Cast
Local Proletariat	3	1	37,282
Total	88	8	492,221
Feb., 1930			
Social Democrats	33	2	170,968
Japan Mass	22	2	161,342
Labour-Farmer	13	1	79,729
National Democrats	4	0	19,695
Local Proletariat, etc.	19	0	66,487
Total	91	5	498,221
Feb., 1932			
Social Democrats	15	3	122,262
National Labour-Farmer Mass	13	2	134,364
Japan National Socialist	3	0	15,477
Labour Union, Farmer Union, etc.	5	0	18,876
Total	36	5	290,979

The National Socialists

Orientation to National Socialism In 1931 the Labour Union established the Japan Labour Club with the purpose of realizing a great union of the right wing. Stimulated by the supremacy of Fascism in Italy and the Fascisti movement of the Nazis in Germany, there appeared a movement for National Socialism among the members of the Social Democratic Party. Besides, after the Manchurian Incident the atmosphere among the Japanese people was very suitable for the growth of nationalism and patriotism, and the national socialistic section of the Party increased their power under the leadership of K. Akamatsu, chief secretary, and R. Hirano.

Their Platform At the same time, National Socialism began to make its mark among the members of the National Labour-Farmer Mass Party, which kept to the middle way, and especially it gained power among the members who belonged to the National Labour Union, the strongest supporter of the party. Some powerful leaders of the National Labour Union moved for the establishment of a National Socialistic Party, but their motion was rejected by the party and they seceded from it in one body. The seceders met with those from the Social Democrats, and, on the 29th of May, they established the Japan National Socialist Party with K. Akamatsu at its head.

Activities of the Old Nationalists

The rise of the nationalistic tide, which coaxed the proletariat partisans away, correlatively gave inspiration to the activities of the old nationalists, and their leading principles began to take national socialistic colour in compliance with the change of the social state of affairs.

The Production Party The Great Nippon Production Party, an extreme right-wing party, which had hailed Japanese nationalism but vaguely, showed a sudden activity and absorbed the Nippon Nationalists, the Radical Patriots and other parties of similar nature at the end of 1931. Their aims are the reconstruction of anti-nationalistic institutions, according to the fundamental national spirit of Japan.

The Jimmu-kai On February 11, 1932, the anniversary of the Foundation of the Empire, the Jimmu-kai, a strong nationalists' society, was organized. The central element of the society was the Ko-chi Sha of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, who had intimate connections with military men, and the new party was also helped by Hiroichiro Ishihara, a business man, Daisaku Komoto, a colonel, and the like. At the general election of 1932, rallying the young members of the Ko-chi Sha, the Great Nippon Production Party and other Nationalistic bodies, they sent out bands on a canvassing tour over the whole country for the propaganda of Nipponism, and put advertisements denouncing the existing political parties in all the leading newspapers. It is said that they gained over 50,000 new members in

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a month or so of the campaign.

Super-legal Movements of the Rights In addition to the national commotion arising from the Manchurian Incident, the failure of the crops in the north-eastern districts dealt a heavy blow to the poor villagers groaning under financial depression, and the problem of finding some means of relieving the people in the emergency became so acute that no time was to be lost. This nation-wide suffering and anxiety urged the right-wing movement to proceed to extremities, and they passed far beyond the limits of lawful action. In the midst of the election campaign, on February 9, 1932, Junnosuké Inouyé, ex-Minister of Finance, was shot to death by a young man, Konuma, of the Blood Brotherhood League headed by Nissho Inouyé, a priest of the Nichiren sect. On March 5, Takuma Dan, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Mitsui Company and one of the ablest contemporary business men, was assassinated by Hishinuma, a member of the same secret association. At 5:30 in the afternoon of the 15th of May, Premier Inukai, was killed. This was the so-called "5:15 Affair" as it occurred on the fifteenth of the fifth month, 1932. The after-claps of the event appeared in the secret plots of Dr. Imamaki, adviser to the Jimmu-Kai, in the middle of August, and of the Tenko-Kai and the Independent Young Men's Association in November, and finally at the arrest of Dr. Shumei Ohkawa, head of the Jimmu-Kai and the Far Eastern Economic Research Bureau. With the May 15 Affair, Japanese Fascism reached its climax.

Later investigations showed that those directly connected with the affair were 10 young Navy officers, 11 students of the Military Academy and 21 farmers and scholars. After the arrest of members of the Blood Brotherhood League formed by Nisho Inouyé, who entertained a plan to kill representative men one by one, his comrades undertook the continuation of the work. Lieutenant Hitoshi Fujii a leader, had died in the battle at Shanghai on February 5, 1932, but had left a strong influence among his friends. Second lieutenants Kiyoshi Koga and Yoshio Nakamura, who belonged to the Kasumigaura airship corps, began to form bands with a view to bringing about a new government with the military as the central force, in plunging Tokyo into a state of siege by their sudden attack upon the capital. In the plot they were soon united by Kozaburo Tachibana, head of the Aikyo Juku (Village Loving School) of Ibaraki prefecture, and a leader of agricultural movement. Dr. Shumei Okawa, Hidezo Toyama, head of the Tenko-kai, and Kenichiro Homma also came to their help and, moreover, supplied them with necessary funds and arms. At 5:30 p. m. May 15, 1932, four bands composed of military officers and cadets armed with pistols, attacked several points of the capital and killed Inukai and others as mentioned above, while another band of farmers attempted to break into the transformer stations to throw the capital into darkness. Most of them were arrested on the day and the sentences for all of them (except one farmer who died in the meantime) were passed by February, 1934, the heaviest penalty given being imprisonment for life for Kozaburo Tachibana, but none of them were sentenced to death.

The Farmer-Central Movement As a result of the May 15 Affair the Saito Cabinet was organized. The new Government called the second Emergency Session of the Diet in June and the third one in August, and the Diet passed the "Resolution

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for the Relief of the Economical Depression", for the purpose of relieving the impoverished villages of the farmers. The motive power of this action of the Imperial Diet was the Farmer-Central Movement of the Self-governing Farmers' Council and its sympathizers which became an incentive to the petition movement for the rescue of the peasant villages from the ruin which threatened them.

The Self-governing Farmers' Council is led by the farmer-central idea of Mr. N. Gondo, and rejecting both the strikes of farmers and national socialism, it endeavours to realize a farmer-central government with the harmonious co-operation of the ruling class and the people, putting the landowners, the landed farmers and the tenant farmers into one. The Council was organized by the association of the Nagano-Prefecture Japan Farmers' Association, the Emancipation Society, Mr. K. Tachibana, the head of the Aikyo Juku, (Village Loving School) and Mr. R. Nagano of the Japan Village Government Union, which was established in 1931, with him as its moving spirit.

Communist Movements

The fundamental idea of the socialistic movement in Japan is Marxism.

The Nippon Communist Society was apparently broken up by the wholesale raids of 1914 and 1915, and the members who then escaped arrest hid themselves deep in the bottom of society, and secretly continued their endeavours to reconstruct it. But the leaders of the new society, which they organized in 1927, were all arrested on the 16th April, 1928, and the remaining members had a hard time to accomplish the work under the constant oppression of the authorities, and the society showed its activity before the public at the general election of 1931. It was for the third time scattered by the iron hand of the Government after February, 1931, but it continued its secret activities by the order of the International Headquarters with the side or sub-divisions of the communists.

The Japan Communist Society Its activities are carried on secretly and the Government prohibits its propaganda whether by speeches or the press, so it is difficult to know of its real nature. But it is understood that its power and influence are on the increase in spite of the constant arrest of its members. Its slogan of 1932 was "the reconstruction and enlargement of the Society and its popularization." It aims at and works for the abolition of parliamentary government, the destruction or revision of capitalistic control of industry and reactionary labour laws, the relief of international unemployment, the improvement of all labour managements, the betterment of the conditions and privileges of women, the abolition or lightening of the penalties imposed upon communists, and its propaganda among the factory workers and the people at large.

The Kopf[1] This federation of proletarian artists was organized in November, 1932, and it works for the education of labourers, farmers and other workers in politics and economy, the improvement of the labourer's living, the establishment of proletarian civilization on Lenin-Marxism, the freedom of speech, publication, exhibition, drama, movies, and broadcasting, the creation of cultural institutions for labourers and all workers.

1 Federacio de Proletaj Kultur Organizoj Japanaj.

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Political Affairs in 1933-34

On January 8th Admiral Okada, Minister of Marine, resigned and the portfolio was given to Admiral Minéo Osumi.

The 64th session of the Diet came to an end on March 25, after passing the 1933-34 budget, of over ¥2,300,000,000, and 58 bills. Among the latter there were such important laws as the Farmer-Village Debt Readjustment Law, the Relief Law for Tohoku district, the Child Ill-treatment Prevention Law, the Juvenile Protection Law, the Rice Control Law and the Iron-Manufacture Promotion Law.

In the meantime, Shibata, Chief Secretary of the Cabinet, resigned and was succeeded by Zenjiro Horikiri. Ikki, Minister of the Imperial Household, also resigned and was succeeded by Kurahei Yuasa.

On March 27 Japan served notice to withdraw from the League of Nations to which she had made valuable contributions for over 12 years (see Chapter VI).

Immediately after the close of the Diet the Saito Cabinet was confronted with the question of "red" judges in the Court, and a committee on thought problems was organized in the Government.

Another difficulty arose in connection with the expressed desire of Takahashi to resign from his post as Finance Minister. The difficulty was increased by the manœuvres of the Seiyukai to come into power. But the disquieting rumour about the probable appearance of a Fascisti government, was put in order by Saito's success in keeping Takahashi to his Cabinet.

The year also witnessed a decided decline of the left wing socialistic parties, especially the communists, many of the leaders leaving the camp and dropping their activities.

In September Uchida, Minister of Foreign Affairs, retired and Koki Hirota was called to fill the position.

The Government met unusual difficulties in making out the Budget for 1934-35, because of military expenses and the farmer relief funds, and was compelled to face the 65th session of the Diet, with a very unsatisfactory Budget of over ¥2,120,000,000.

The happiest event of the year was the birth of the Crown Prince Akihito on December 23. (For international events of the year consult the last pages of Chapter VI.)

65th Session On December 23, 1933, the 65th Session of the Imperial Diet was convened and after the customary recess for the New Year's holiday, resumed its work on January 23, 1934.

Foreign Policy Foreign Minister Hirota enlarged upon a firm policy to be followed for the strengthening of the world peace, referring in this to Japan's withdrawal from the League of Nations and the Imperial Rescript issued on that occasion. He dwelt on the intimate relations between Japan and Manchoukuo, expressed the great necessity for China to work out her own salvation and hopes for the quick rectification of the relations between Japan and China. On the relation with the U.S.S.R. he regretted that its unwarranted criticism was directed against Japan, but maintained hope that the Soviet Union would soon come to appreciate the true intentions of Japan and the North Manchuria Railway negotiations would be resumed. On the relation with the United States of America he said that there was no question existing between the two nations which was intrinsically difficult of solution, and earnestly desired that they would continue in cultivating their historical friendship and good understanding, which

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is too tenacious to be broken even by such a question as the Manchurian Incident. Concerning England and Japan, Hirota stated that the traditional amity between them remained unshaken and that the Japanese Government were seeking to readjust whatever conflict of interests there might arise between the two countries relating to questions of trade. He did not deny the fact that Japan's foreign relations were beset with serious problems, but expressed his firm conviction that things would amend in time. Finally he stated that Japan's national defence was solely for defensive and self-protective purposes.

The Budget Finance Minister Takahashi presented the 1934-35 budget, which amounted to ¥2,112,000,000 (¥8,000,000 less than the previous year), of which ¥1,248,000,000 was to be met with by the ordinary income, ¥19,000,000 to be covered by the balance of the previous year, and ¥785,000,000 to be obtained from loans. Of the ¥785,000,000 loan, ¥606,000,000 was for covering the deficit. (See Chapter VIII.)

Then the following four days were spent for interpellations. Contrary to the general expectation that the political parties would be quiet as they had been in the last session, their attitude toward the Government and the Military Ministers was rather aggressive. Takejiro Tokonami of the Seiyukai and Chuji Machida of the Minseito emphasized the importance of the constitutional and parliamentary political system and criticized the Fascisti treason reported to exist in certain quarters. Open attacks against the tendency of military men to meddle with politics drew out earnest explanations from military authorities. It was patent, however, that neither the enquirers nor the explainers had no ulterior motives, but they were actuated by a spirit of patriotism.

Discussions on the 1934-35 Budget continued from January 26 to February 4, and on February 13 the House of Representatives passed it by unanimous vote without amendments. The discussion mainly turned upon the issuance of Government loans, the military expenses, the need of establishing a definite financial plan for the future, and the increase of taxes. As to the last point, Takahashi disclosed his decision to increase taxes at a most convenient time.

The problems of farmers, smaller merchants and industrials were discussed by many members, who urged the Government to take more definite and positive measures for the control of rice (last year's crop reaching the excessive amount of 78,000,000 koku), and silk business.

Dissatisfaction with the outcome of the Simla Conference was expressed and acquiesced in by the Foreign Minister, but, as a whole, his answers gained confidence in the Government's policy.

On March 14 the Budget passed the House of Peers without amendment. (See Chapter VIII.) But the amount of the expenses voted for the relief of the farmers was meager and by the request of the Diet, the Government presented an additional budget for the purpose amounting to ¥20,990,000 for Japan proper and ¥8,200,000 for Korea, which passed the Diet as a matter of course.

Difficulties arose on the Revision of the Election Law because of the amendments made by the House of Representatives, and after a joint session of the two Houses, it was finally passed with important amendments on March 25.

On March 26 the 65th Session of the Diet adjourned, passing the bud-

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get for the fiscal year 1934-35 and 50 laws.

Political Affairs in 1934-35

The Privy Council President Changes On May 2, 1934, Prince Saionji, the Genro, entered his Tokyo residence at Surugadai and the political world grew tense with expectancy and the general public expected something important to take place. Seiyukai and Minseito were reconciled as preparation for regaining their long-lost power in anticipation of the resignation of the Saito Cabinet.

But the irony was that the nomination of Baron Kitokuro Ikki to the Presidency of the Privy Council took place on the following day, which re-inforced the Cabinet rather than weakened it. The prevailing custom was to promote the vice-president at the resignation of the President of the Privy Council and thus Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma was naturally expected to succeed Kuratomi, who tendered his resignation on April 25. But fact belied the expectation and Ikki, an outsider, was nominated to the post.

The first reason of Ikki's choice was evidently the fact that Hiranuma was connected with Kokuhonsha, a nationalistic group. Another reason has evidently to do with the function of Genro. Prince Saionji, the only Genro living, nearly 90 years old and a break in the office of the Genro must not be allowed to take place. The Lord Keeper of the Imperial Seals, the Minister of the Imperial Household and the President of Privy Council, who are most intimately related to the Throne are most likely persons to be in position to advise the Throne in the matter of forming a cabinet and the choice of Ikki was evidently made by keeping this point in mind.

The Saito Cabinet Resigns The detention on May 19 of Hideo Kuroda, the Vice-minister of Finance, on charges connected with the Teikoku Rayon scandal was sufficient reason for the resignation of the Saito Cabinet. This was a matter of political common sense. But on the other hand, the charge partook somewhat of a political nature and it was considered unwise to tender resignation hurriedly. So the resignation was delayed, but the development of the case and outburst of other cases to the disadvantage of the Cabinet finally compelled Premier Saito to tender resignation to the Emperor on July 3, 1934. The new cabinet with Admiral Keisuké Okada as Premier came to power on the 8th of the same month.

The Okada Cabinet The Okada Cabinet is virtually the continuation of the Saito Cabinet. It is a non-party cabinet, as was the Saito Cabinet, and has likewise the tiding-over of the crisis years as its objective. The first plan of the cabinet making was to exclude party men, but later it was changed, due to difficulties which such cabinet would probably meet. Thus it was finally composed of seven men out of officialdom and five party men (2 from the Minseito and 3 from the Seiyukai). The Seiyukai had turned down Okada's invitation to join his cabinet and three of its members became ministers in the new Cabinet, it forthwith announced their expulsion from the Seiyukai.

Farm-village Problem By the end of October, 1934, the National Treasury disbursed approximately ¥300,000,000 for the relief of farm-villages. This means that the yearly disbursement is approximately ¥100,000,000, and, when left alone, it will necessitate increased taxation. The relief of farm-villages has thus assumed the position of an important factor in national finance.

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The impending questions which have to be solved are how to dispose of the stock of rice and how to restrict the over production so as to increase farmers' income by higher prices. The solution of the questions is complicated by the fact that over a half of the farmers can hardly afford to consume rice which they themselves raised because of the high price. A famine of rice, therefore, takes place.

In order to cope with the situation, though partially, it was decided at the 65th session of the Diet to increase the fund for purchasing surplus rice, and also the Government promised to find out more effective means to meet the situation. Under the Okada Cabinet a committee was appointed for the study of the problem from among the members of both Houses and also private persons. The Seiyukai and Minseito were also united in organizing a committee for drafting a more effective law dealing with the problems.

Three possible ways of solving the question are in view: the governmental control, self-control and monopoly by the Government. Each plan, however, has its own obstacle and in order to carry any one of them out is no easy matter.

Extraordinary Session and After The Okada Cabinet at first took a lukewarm attitude towards convening an extraordinary session of the Diet in spite of the resolution passed at the last session under the Saito administration and the strong demand on the part of the Seiyukai, which is essentially a farm party. But an unexpected event compelled the Government to give heed to the above demand. A damage greatest since 1923 was sustained in the Kansai district and central Japan by the typhoon of September 21, 1934. The year 1934 was also a very unfavourable one for farmers. An untimely cold weather checked the growth of rice plants in the northeastern districts and Hokkaido, precipitation was scanty in Shikoku and Kyushu islands, and the southwestern half of the country was visited by the typhoon just mentioned. An immediate relief of farmers thus became a national necessity, and on September 28 the Government decided to convene an extraordinary session by December.

The 66th Session An extraordinary session of the Diet was, therefore, convened on November 27 and closed on December 10. The main objective of the session was the relief of the sufferers in a variety of natural calamities in the year. The budget for the relief was as follows:

Year of disbursement	Amount (in ¥1,000)
1934–5	70,664
1935–6	68,318
1936–and after	74,957
Total	213,940

The budget passed both Houses without amendment, though it was attacked as being too small to meet the need, specially by the Seiyukai. Among other things which gave rise to hot discussions were the War Ministry's pamphlet, entitled "On the True National Defence and its Reenforcement," the disturbance among the Kwantung Government officials in connection with the organization of Japanese military and civil organs in Manchoukuo, and the charge on maltreatment of the suspected persons in relation to the Teikoku Rayon scandal.

The session, however, closed without giving any material harm to the Government, except the so-called "Bakudan Dōgi", or "bomb" motion, thrown on December 5 by T. Azuma of the Seiyukai demanding an increase of ¥180,000,000 in the relief appropriation.

The "bomb" took the Government

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and the people by surprise and the dissolution of the Diet was seriously talked about. But Okada's vague promise to give consideration to the increase when the Government thought it necessary, settled the matter for the time being, leaving the final solution to the regular session of the Diet.

Naturally the interval between the 66th and 67th sessions was a period of much political speculation and gossip was rather rampant in regard to the relations between the Government and the Seiyukai, and also to the possibility of dissolution. The two Houses were composed of the following :

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES
(November 25, 1934)

Seiyukai	264
Minseito	118
Kokumin Domei	31
Tokonami and followers, Proletariats and others	27
Vacant seats	26
Total	466

THE HOUSE OF PEERS
(November 25, 1934)

Princes of the Blood	18
Kayōkai	41
Kenkyukai	155
Doseikai	23
Dowakai	32
Koseikai	66
Kōyū Club	38
Unaffiliated	36
Vacant seats	3
Total	412

The 67th Session The regular session of the Diet was convened on December 24, 1934, and closed on March 26, 1935. Notwithstanding the expectation generally entertained of a collision between the Government and the Seiyukai on the various questions pending, both sides were, in the final analysis, willing to come down the wall half way and the session was carried on in peace. The peace was, however, an armed peace and the Seiyukai took care that a number of important government bills were killed. The promise which the Government made at the last session in regard to the relief appropriation was made good to the amount of ¥15,000,000, instead of ¥180,000,000, as was originally demanded by the Seiyukai.

The Government, beside the Budget for 1935-1936 (given in full in the chapter on Public Finance and passed without amendment) proposed over 50 bills to the Diet. Of the over 50 bills only 5 passed the Diet and among those shelved there were important bills as Rice Control Law, Cocoon Distribution Law, Manure Control Law, Iron and Steel Tariff Law, and the Regulations of Fishing in the Northern Seas.

The session was enlivened unexpectedly with a discussion in regard to the interpretation of the Constitution. It was in February that a criticism on the exposition of the Constitution by Dr. Tatsukichi Minobé, Emeritus Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University and Professor at the Commercial University, was raised. Dr. Minobé's theory is that the Tennō, the Emperor, is the highest institution of the Empire and against this the assailants stated that the Tennō is the absolute Sovereignty and origin of all laws. The discussion was ended, at least so far as the Houses and the session were concerned, by the promise given by the Government at the initiative of the House of Peers that it would do all to clarify the specific nature of the Japanese State.

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CHAPTER VI

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Earlier Contacts with Foreign Countries

China and Korea China and Korea were the first foreign nations to come into contact with Japan. To these two countries the ancient Japanese were indebted in a large measure for various institutions of civilization. It was, however, not until about the middle of the fourth century A. D., when the Empress Jingo sent an expedition to South Korea and established a resident Japanese government in Silla, one of the three Korean kingdoms, that the Japanese began systematically introducing Chinese culture and learning through Korea. After this, Chinese civilization continued to influence the Japanese to an increasing extent, and in 593 the Prince Regent Shotoku began the construction of an imposing Buddhist temple and pagoda at Tennoji (now a section of Osaka). This was intended to help propagate Buddhism among the Japanese as well as to impress the Chinese envoys and traders who, in those days, were in the habit of coming to this country by small sailing craft and landing at what is now known as Osaka.

Other contacts with China and Korea occurred on the occasion of the Korean resistance against the encroachment of the Chinese under the Tang dynasty in the seventh century, when the Emperor Tenchi sent assistance to Korea, and at the time of the invasion of the northern shores of the island of Kyushu by an expeditionary force under Kublai Khan in the thirteenth century, which was the first and last instance of the security of Japan being menaced by foreign invasion. The Mongolian expedition was finally repulsed by the Japanese with the help of a hurricane which wrecked practically all the Mongolian fleet.

Another major event in Japan's earlier foreign relations was the expedition sent to Korea by Hideyoshi Toyotomi in 1592. This expedition was recalled without any decisive results shortly after the death of Toyotomi. It is regarded as probable that the failure of this military action was partly due to the assistance given to Korea by China, which claimed sovereignty over the Korean peninsula.

Chinese civilization was also brought to Japan by the Chinese refugees who emigrated when the Manchus invaded and subjugated China proper in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Spain and Portugal Japan's first contact with Western countries occurred in the middle of the sixteenth century, when Portuguese and Spanish traders first visited the shores of this country. These traders were instrumental in introducing Christianity.

Britain and the Netherlands Shortly afterwards, Dutch and English traders arrived in Japan and were granted every facility for the conduct of business. In the meantime, the Jesuit and Franciscan missionaries had erected churches in various parts of the country, and their activities came to be regarded with grave apprehension as it was believed that they had political motives. Con-

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sequently, the Shogunate Government ordered all missionaries to leave Japan and strictly prohibited Christianity in 1597. The Shogunate Government later went so far as to close the country entirely against communications with foreign countries, issuing a decree to this effect in May, 1636. After this, only a limited number of Chinese and Dutch traders were allowed to reside at Deshima in Nagasaki, and all contact with foreigners was made through them.

Russia Over one and a half centuries of complete seclusion followed until 1792, when Russia sought the opening of the Japanese ports to trade through her representative. In 1806, two Russian ships attacked the coast of Saghalien, plundering a Japanese town and carrying off a number of its inhabitants.

Great Britain during the Napoleonic wars attempted to supplant the Dutch merchants at Deshima by British nationals. These British ventures were followed by the arrival of Americans in Japan. Arriving in the Bay of Yedo in 1837, aboard a ship called the Morrison, these Americans tried to convince the leaders of the Tokugawa Shogunate of the inevitability of Japan entering into relations with the Western powers. A similar attempt was made by King William II of the Netherlands who, in February, 1844, sent a friendly communication to the Shogunate Government urging Japan to enter into treaty-relations with Western countries. It was not, however, until 1853, when the American fleet commanded by Commodore Perry arrived at Uraga, that the leaders of the Tokugawa régime came to consider seriously the question of regular foreign contacts.

The United States As a result of Commodore Perry's visit, Japan concluded her first treaty of amity with the United States on March 1, 1854, providing for the opening of the ports of Shimoda and Hakodaté to American citizens and for the extension of reciprocal aid to vessels in distress. Russia, Great Britain, France and other Western countries soon concluded treaties of a similar nature.

The conclusion of these treaties, for which no Imperial sanction was sought immediately, gave rise to a strong anti-foreign sentiment and several resident foreigners were murdered. A British squadron avenged these outrages by bombarding the city of Kagoshima at the southern tip of the Island of Kyushu in 1863. A similar attack was made on Shimonoseki the following year by a combined fleet of British, American, French and Dutch warships.

The international engagements entered into by the Shogunate Government were sanctioned in 1865 by the Throne, which reassumed its civil and military powers from the Shogunate Government in 1868 after having left *de facto* power in other hands for nearly seven centuries.

The Meiji Era

The "Maria Luz" Incident The first noteworthy incident in Japan's foreign relations in the Meiji Era was what is known as the Maria Luz incident which took place in 1872, when the Japanese Government successfully helped in releasing 200 Chinese slaves from the Peruvian ship Maria Luz at Yokohama. This action was upheld by an international tribunal presided over by Emperor Alexander II of Russia and was instrumental in strengthening the position of Japan as an independent nation in international politics.

Saghalien and the Loochoo In 1872, the Japanese Government proposed to buy the Island of Saghalien for

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¥2,000,000, but the negotiations for this purchase were broken off on the advice of Count Kuroda, who contended that the island was worthless. Three years later Japan gave up all claim to Saghalien in exchange for Russia's recognition of Japan's sovereignty over the Kurile Islands.

The Loochoo Islands, a group lying between Kyushu and Taiwan, were formally incorporated in the Japanese Empire in 1871, when, inviting the King of Loochoo to Tokyo and creating him a peer, the Japanese Government organized the archipelago into a prefecture called "Okinawa-ken."

The Bonin Island Dispute The Bonin Islands, called in Japanese "Ogasawara-jima," were officially recognized as a territory of Japan in 1875 by the United States following a dispute as to sovereignty therein between the two nations.

Expedition to Formosa When a group of shipwrecked Loochooan sailors were massacred by the savages of Formosa (now known as Taiwan) in 1872, the Japanese Government sent a punitive expedition to the island, and a strong protest was received from China. The situation threatened to become very tense, but through the intervention of the British Minister at Peking, the trouble was settled, Japan evacuating the island and China consenting to pay an indemnity to the families of the victims of the outrage.

Treaty Revision Revision of Japan's unequal treaties with the foreign Powers was accomplished in 1894, after a series of unsuccessful attempts, which had led to the collapse of several of the most powerful Cabinets. The treaties of commerce and navigation concluded by the Shogunate Government with the Western Powers provided for the opening of the ports of Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagasaki, Niigata and Hakodaté, together with Tokyo, to commerce and residence, with extraterritorial privileges for foreign residents. These treaties also required Japan to maintain a very low scale of import duties.

It was for the purpose of seeking revision of the treaties, on the basis of a provision therein that revisions could be made after 1871, that Prince Tomomi Iwakura's mission was sent to America and Europe in 1871. The great difficulty standing in the way of the proposed revision was the agreement among the eighteen nations concerned to the effect that they would act conjointly in their negotiations with Japan. The United States alone consented to conclude a separate treaty, but a proviso in it that it should not be put into force until after the conclusion of similar treaties with the other nations deprived the document of its practical effect.

In 1882, Count Kaoru Inouyé made overtures to the British Government and a preliminary conference followed to discuss the basis of negotiations, at which elaborate preparations were made for a great conference, in which every treaty Power should be represented. Great Britain and Germany showed their willingness to make liberal concessions and for a time it looked as if Count Inouyé's efforts would be crowned with success. However, the conditions of the proposed new treaties leaked out and, feeling indignant over what they described as a humiliation to Japan, the vernacular newspapers started vigorous campaign against the proposed revision. This coincided with the sinking of a British steamer in which all the Japanese passengers perished, and this incident poured oil on the fire of the anti-foreign agitation then prevailing throughout the

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country. The situation was so threatening that the Japanese Government found it advisable to postpone the negotiations for revision.

The next foreign minister to take up this onerous task was Count Shigenobu Okuma, who started fresh negotiations in 1888. Before officially starting negotiations, however, he adopted a high-handed policy towards the foreign residents in this country with a view to convincing them of the advisability of revising the treaties. In approaching the foreign Powers concerned, Count Okuma preferred to negotiate with them individually instead of collectively and first of all made overtures to Mexico, offering to allow the presence of foreign legal assessors in the Japanese Supreme Court in cases involving foreigners during a space of at least three years after the enactment of the new legal codes on Western lines. This offer was accepted. After the signing of this treaty, the United States, Germany and Russia soon expressed willingness to make agreement on similar lines, it having been agreed that the new treaties should take effect in 1890. Before the signing of similar treaties by the other Powers, however, a vehement agitation broke out in Japan against the appointment of foreign assessors, and an attempt was made on the life of Count Okuma, in which he was seriously injured.

The treaty revision negotiations, which were thus interrupted, were resumed by Viscount Shuzo Aoki, who succeeded Count Okuma as Foreign Minister. Viscount Aoki's seven proposals did not provide for the presence of foreign assessors on Japanese tribunals, and there seemed to be a good chance of these proposals being accepted by Great Britain, when, owing to an attempt made on the life of the Crown Prince of Russia then visiting Japan, Count Aoki had to resign and was succeeded by Viscount Buyo Enomoto.

Viscount Enomoto continued efforts to complete the desired revision of the treaties, but soon had to resign when the Government was defeated on the budget. In 1892, Count Munemitsu Mutsu assumed the foreign portfolio and immediately reopened negotiations with Britain. A new difficulty was added in 1893 when the House of Representatives submitted a petition to the Throne urging the abolition of consular jurisdiction, restoration of tariff autonomy and prohibition of coastal trade. To make the situation worse still, the people agitated against foreigners being allowed unrestricted right of residence and against foreign ownership of property in Japan. The Government, however, dissolved the Diet and concluded a new treaty with Great Britain on July 16, 1894, at London, signed by Lord Kimberley and Viscount Aoki, thereby finally settling the long pending question. Similar treaties were concluded with Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and the United States in 1897.

The Sino-Japanese War The war with China, which arose from a complicated dispute over the independence of Korea, resulted in enhancing the prestige of Japan in the eyes of the entire world. The question whether or not Korea was an independent nation was of long standing and an open clash of interests between Japan and China led to the inevitable war.

In 1880 Japan opened a legation in Seoul, but peaceful relations between Japan and Korea were often disturbed as the result of intrigues, if not active interference, by the Chinese. In 1882, a Korean mob attacked and burned the Japanese Legation, and the legation officials

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had to flee to a British gunboat then lying at anchor off Chemulpo. This incident, though settled by Count Inouyé, then Foreign Minister, who visited Seoul and succeeded in inducing the Korean Government to offer an official apology and pay an indemnity, pointed to the inevitability of war between Japan and China.

Another incident, though not directly connected with the affair just referred to, proved a more direct cause of the Sino-Japanese War. This incident took place on December 4, 1884, when, during the celebration of the opening of the Postal Bureau of Korea at Seoul, at which were present all the foreign diplomats and high officials of the Korean Government, the leader of the reactionaries was murdered and the progressives sought the assistance of Japanese troops in carrying out an anti-reactionary coup d'état. However, the Chinese troops in Seoul, who outnumbered the Japanese by twenty to one, sided with the reactionaries and the Japanese troops were forced to retreat to the Japanese Legation, which was then attacked and burned by the Chinese. In settlement of the dispute arising from this incident what is known as the Treaty of Tientsin was signed on April 18, 1885, between Count (later Prince) Hirobumi Ito and Viceroy Li Hung-chang, under the provisions of which China and Japan agreed not to send troops to Korea without previously notifying each other.

Actual warfare between China and Japan started when a party called the "Tong-haks" rebelled against the corrupt officialdom of Korea. Seeing the régime which she favoured seriously menaced by this uprising, China dispatched troops to Korea and Japan also sent an expedition in accordance with the Treaty of Tientsin. After minor clashes both on land and sea, Japan and China declared war on August 1, 1894, after which the Japanese carried out a short and entirely successful campaign. The result of the Sino-Japanese War was the Treaty of Shimonoseki, concluded on April 14, 1895, by which China recognized the full and complete independence of Korea and ceded the Liaotung Peninsula and the adjacent waters, as well as Formosa and the Pescadores, to Japan. In addition, China promised to pay an indemnity of 200,000,000 taels to Japan and open up Shashi, Chungking, Soochow and Hangchow to trade and the Yangtse-kiang river to navigation. The acquisition of the Liaotung Peninsula by Japan, however, was objected to by Russia, with the apparent support of Germany and France, and Japan had to return the territory to China, receiving, as compensation, a sum of 30,000,000 taels.

The Boxer Uprising The rendition of the Liaotung Peninsula by Japan was followed by the acquisition of territorial interests in China by various Powers. First of all, Russia obtained the right to extend the Siberian Railway through Manchuria as far as Dairen. Then Germany was granted a 99 years' lease of Kiaochow, while Russia forced China to grant her a lease of the Liaotung Peninsula for a period of 25 years. Great Britain and France subsequently obtained similar leases of Weihaiwei and Kuangchow Bay respectively.

This foreign penetration infuriated a group of Chinese patriots calling themselves Boxers who rose in arms in South Chihli in May, 1900 and besieged Peking, where the foreign envoys and their families faced imminent massacre. The legations were relieved by an allied force furnished by Japan, Russia, Great Britain, the United States, France and

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Germany. In this expedition, the Japanese played the most important part, sending some 10,000 troops and 54 field guns.

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance Sharing common interests in the Far East, Japan and Great Britain concluded a treaty of alliance on January 30, 1902, in order to maintain the status quo and general peace in the Far East, simultaneously making it clear that the two countries were specially interested in maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of China and Korea. Against this, France and Russia took the precautionary measure of making the Franco-Russian Alliance applicable to the Far East.

The Russo-Japanese War After her penetration into Manchuria, Russia was forced to agree on April 2, 1902, to withdraw her troops from that region, largely through the intervention of Japan, Great Britain and the United States. According to this agreement, Russia was to complete her evacuation of Manchuria within 18 months. Shortly afterwards, however, she made new demands on China, in exchange for her agreement to withdraw troops, apparently with a view to securing a position of political and economic predominance in Manchuria. This was followed by the sending of Russian soldiers in the guise of civilians to Korea.

Thus menaced, Japan made proposals to Russia for the conclusion of an agreement aimed at guaranteeing Korean independence and reciprocal recognition of Japan's preponderant interests in Korea and Russia's special interests in Manchuria. These proposals were virtually rejected by Russia, with the result that Japan declared war on February 10, 1904. This conflict ended in the victory of Japan and a treaty was signed at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, U.S.A., between the two countries through the good offices of President Roosevelt, on September 5, 1905.

By this treaty Russia recognized the preponderant interest, political, military and economic, of Japan in Korea, and the two signatories agreed to evacuate Manchuria simultaneously. Russia also turned over its lease of Port Arthur and Dalny (Dairen) and their adjacent lands and waters to Japan, while provision was made for joint Russo-Japanese operation of the Manchurian railway. The treaty also stipulated the cession to Japan of the southern part of Saghalien Island as far north as the 50th degree of north latitude, together with the adjacent islands.

After the Russo-Japanese War Japan concluded a convention with China, on December 2, 1905, known as the Treaty of Peking, embodying the relevant terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth. This was followed by the signing of the Franco-Japanese Convention, on June 10, 1907, the exchange of what are known as the Takahira-Root notes on November 30, 1908, and the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese agreement, on July 30, 1907, all these pacts being designed to preserve peace in the Far East.

Annexation of Korea As a result of the Russo-Japanese War, Korea was made a virtual protectorate of Japan, but to make Japan's protection over Korea complete, Prince Hirobumi Ito, as Japanese ambassador, concluded a convention with the Korean Government on November 17, 1905, providing for the transfer of the control of Korean foreign relations to Japan and establishment of a Japanese Residency-General in Seoul.

Later developments in Korea, however, led to the abdication of the Korean King on July 17, 1907, and a week later a new agreement

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was signed according to Japan practical control of the administration of the country. The formal Treaty of Annexation of Korea to Japan was signed on August 22, 1910.

The Taisho (1911-1926) and Showa Era (1926-)

The World War Less than two months after the outbreak of the European War, Japan participated on the side of the Allies, sending an ultimatum to Germany on August 16, 1914, followed by declarations of war on Germany and Austria on August 23 and 27 respectively. Refusing to send troops to Europe, her activities were confined to her attack on the German fort at Tsingtao and rendering naval assistance for the protection of Allied shipping in the southern Pacific and other waters.

At Tsingtao, the Japanese military and naval forces occupied the German base on November 7, 1914, after operations lasting only a week. In the meantime, the Japanese Navy occupied between October 3 and 19 all islands in the southern Pacific north of the equator with the exception of the island of Yap, which a British squadron had taken before the arrival of the Japanese. From the beginning Japan insisted on occupying these islands permanently despite repeated refusals on the part of Great Britain officially to support the Japanese claim. Moreover, in March, 1917, a secret agreement between the two countries provided for the permanent occupation of these islands by Japan in return for her dispatch of destroyers to the Mediterranean Sea. At the Peace Conference, however, her claim to permanent sovereignty was rejected and she was given only a mandate over the islands.

The Washington Disarmament Conference Japan first participated in international efforts to limit armaments in 1921 at the Washington Conference which opened on November 11. After strongly insisting on a 7-10-10 ratio against the navies of Great Britain and the United States, she accepted a 3-5-5 ratio with regard to capital ships.

At this conference, Secretary Hughes of the United States proposed with regard to capital ships that the United States, Great Britain and Japan scrap respectively 30 ships totaling 845,740 tons, 23 ships totaling 583,375 tons and 17 ships totaling 448,928 tons, including those in course of building, and that the three countries be allowed to retain 506,050 tons in 18 ships, 604,450 tons in 22 ships and 299,700 tons in 10 ships, respectively. After negotiations on the basis of the Hughes proposal, an agreement was reached, with some changes made in the ships to be scrapped. By this agreement Japan was allowed to retain the "Mutsu" instead of the "Settsu" and the United States the "Washington" and the "Colorado" instead of the "North Dakota" and the "Delaware," while Great Britain agreed to scrap four King George V class ships, building two new ships of not more than 35,000 tons each instead. Consequently, the capital ship tonnage which the three Powers were allowed to retain was 525,000 tons in 18 ships for the United States, 581,200 tons in 20 ships for Great Britain and 313,000 tons in 10 ships for Japan.

As regards the replacement of obsolete ships, it was agreed that capital ships might be replaced after 20 years in service, providing that the new ships do not exceed 35,000 tons each in displacement. On completion of the replacement stipulated above, the United States and Great Britain were to have 15 capital ships totaling 525,000 tons each against

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9 ships aggregating 315,000 tons for Japan, while France and Italy accepted a total capital ship tonnage of 175,000 tons each.

With regard to auxiliary ships, no agreement was reached on the total tonnage for each country, France claiming 350,000 tons in auxiliary ships and 90,000 tons in submarines, to which Great Britain and the United States were vigorously opposed. The proposal made by Great Britain favouring the total abolition of submarines added to the difficulties of making a total tonnage agreement regarding auxiliary ships. It was finally decided that an auxiliary ship must not exceed 10,000 tons in displacement and must not carry guns of more than 8 inches in calibre. A summary of the Washington provisions is given in the following table:

CAPITAL SHIPS

	Japan	G. Britain	U.S.A.	France	Italy
Total tonnage for each signatory	315,000	525,000	525,000	175,000	175,000
Tonnage limit for a single ship	35,000	—	—	—	—
Limit of gun calibre	16 inches	—	—	—	—

AIRCRAFT CARRIERS

	Japan	G. Britain	U.S.A.	France	Italy
Total tonnage for each signatory	81,000	135,000	135,000	60,000	60,000
Tonnage limit for a single ship	27,000	—	—	—	—
Limit of gun calibre	8 inches	—	—	—	—

AUXILIARY SHIPS

Total tonnage	Not agreed on
Tonnage limit for a single ship	10,000 tons
Limit of gun calibre	8 inches

As to fortifications and naval bases in the Pacific, it was agreed that the status quo should be maintained.

In addition to the general disarmament treaty the five Powers also concluded an agreement limiting the use of submarines and poison-gas in warfare.

At this conference, Japan was represented by Admiral Baron Tomosaburo Kato, then Minister of Marine.

Tri-partite Conference This conference opened on June 20, 1927, and was participated in by Japan, Great Britain and the United States, with a view to settling certain questions left over from the Washington Conference. Japan was represented by Admiral Viscount Makoto Saito, then Governor-General of Chosen. At the outset the three countries presented their respective proposals, when it became evident that there was an almost unsurmountable difference between the claims of Great Britain and the United States.

The Japanese delegate did his best to reconcile the British and American theses, while making it clear that Japan was in no position to accept the 3-5-5 ratio in regard to auxiliary ships. In this latter connection, Japan succeeded in reaching a compromise with Great Britain but failed to induce the United States to agree to it. Thus all efforts ended in failure and the three Powers concerned closed the conference after publishing a joint declaration.

The London Conference At the naval disarmament conference called in London on January 21, 1930, in which the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France and Italy participated, the Japanese delegation

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headed by Mr. (later Baron) Reijiro Wakatsuki, upheld what they called "the three great principles" of Japan. These were (1) a total tonnage of 8-inch gun cruisers for Japan equal to 70 per cent. of that possessed by the United States, (2) no abolition or material reduction of submarines and maintenance of the then existing submarine strength of Japan, i. e. 78,500 tons, and (3) a ratio of 7-10 against the United States in the global tonnage of auxiliary vessels on the basis of the two foregoing conditions.

The conference was fraught with numerous difficulties. In the first place, opinion was divided as to whether global tonnage or different categories of vessels should be taken as the basis for proposed reduction, but this difficulty was overcome by a compromise allowing these two bases of reduction to be discussed simultaneously. By far the greatest difficulty was the difference between the Japanese and American theses, Japan claiming the ratio of 7-10 and the United States insisting on that of 5-3. To make the situation still worse, France claimed a global tonnage of 721,400 tons. The American-Japanese entanglement, however, was in a large measure smoothed out through informal conversations between Mr. Tsuneo Matsudaira, Japanese Ambassador in London, and Mr. David A. Reed, of the American delegation.

To summarize the Japanese-American compromise, Japan was accorded a global tonnage of auxiliary vessels equal to 70 per cent. of that held by the United States, and in regard to submarines, Japan reduced her claim of 78,500 tons to 52,700 tons on the condition that parity was to be maintained between Japan and the United States in this respect. As for the ratio of 10,000 ton cruisers, Japan was allowed to retain a number of such ships equal to 70 per cent. of those possessed by the United States until 1936, while the United States was allowed to lay down the keels of three more ships of this category on condition that they should not be completed during the stated period.

Besides extending the naval holiday for a period of another six years, the London Naval Treaty, which was signed on April 22, 1930, affects Japan in the following respects:

(1) Japan was required to remove from active service the capital ship "Hiyéi", although she was allowed to retain it for training purposes.

(2) Japan was allowed to replace the minelayers "Aso" and "Tokiwa", provided that the two new ships should not exceed 5,000 tons in displacement.

(3) Japan was required to dispose of the "Asama", "Yakumo", "Izumo", "Iwaté" and "Kasuga" when the first three vessels of the Kuma class were replaced by new ships.

The following table gives the tonnage limits in the cruiser, destroyer and submarine categories which, under the London Treaty, the ships of the three greatest naval Powers, as completed by the end of 1936, are not allowed to exceed:

Categories	United States	Great Britain	Japan
Cruisers:			
(a) with guns of more than 6.1 inch calibre	180,000 tons	146,800 tons	108,400 tons
(b) with guns of 6.1-9 inch or less	143,500 „	192,200 „	100,450 „
Destroyers:	150,000 „	150,000 „	105,500 „
Submarines:	52,700 „	52,700 „	52,700 „

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The League Disarmament Conference

Late in 1932, when the general disarmament conference was called at Geneva after years of preparation by the disarmament commission of the League of Nations, Japan also submitted a plan of her own with regard to naval limitation and reduction. This proposal, which was published on December 11, 1932, made it known that Japan was desirous of making it the guiding principle of the conference that offensive power should be reduced and that the geographical and other special circumstances of each country should be fully taken into consideration in making any settlement.

As regards the formula of the projected agreement, Japan proposed to divide it into general and special agreements. In the general agreement, it was proposed to arrange for the qualitative reduction of all vessels, and also the quantitative reduction of "offensive" vessels, belonging to Japan, Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy.

With regard to the special agreement, all the countries of the world should be divided into four groups, under (1) the Pacific group, (2) the Atlantic group, (3) European group and (4) the South America group; and each group should arrange for limitation and reduction of the armament of each of its members. Any country interested in more than one group should participate in the disarmament discussions of all groups in which it is interested.

As a concrete plan in line with these principles, Japan proposed to limit the sizes of vessels of the various categories and their gun calibres as follows:

Capital ships	25,000 tons	14-inch guns
A class cruisers	8,000 ,,	8- ,, ,,
B class cruisers	6,000 ,,	6.1- ,, ,,
Destroyers	1,500 ,,	5.1- ,, ,,
Submarines	1,800 ,,	5.1- ,, ,,

It was further proposed that aircraft carriers should be totally abolished and no vessel of war should be equipped with a landing platform or deck for aeroplanes.

Further, the capital ships of the three greatest naval Powers should be reduced to 200,000 tons in 8 vessels for Japan, and 275,000 tons in 11 vessels each for the United States and Great Britain. France and Italy should be allowed to retain any number of vessels within a total limit of 150,000 tons.

In respect of the A class cruisers, Japan proposed to limit them as follows:

Japan	10 ships	80,000 tons
Great Britain	12 ships	96,000 ,,
United States	12 ships	96,000 ,,

France and Italy should be allowed to fix the ratio between their strengths in this class of vessel by mutual negotiations within a limit of 7 ships with a total tonnage of 56,000 tons each.

Finally, the Japanese plan proposed that Japan, Great Britain, the United States, France and Italy should each be allowed the maximum limit of 150,000 tons in B class cruisers, 150,000 tons in destroyers and 75,000 tons in submarines.

Relations with the League of Nations

Japan's connection with the League of Nations began with the inception of the international organization in April, 1919, when the Covenant was officially adopted at Paris, and came to a virtual end on March 27, 1933, when Japan gave notice of her withdrawal from membership on grounds of dissatisfaction with the dealings of the Geneva body with the Sino-Japanese dispute, particularly with the report adopted by the League Assembly on February 24 and the recommendations for the settlement of

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the problem as contained therein. Her membership will not, of course, be officially withdrawn for two years after the notice, in accordance with the provisions of the League Covenant.

Contribution to League's Work During the period of her participation in the activities of the League Japan made a material contribution to its work. In the Secretariat of the League, too, Japanese co-operation was by no means negligible, Dr. Inazo Nitobé and Dr. Yotaro Sugimura having served as Assistant Secretary-General in succession until early March, 1933, shortly before Japan's virtual withdrawal. What follows is a cursory review of Japan's relations with the League.

From the inauguration of the League until the present, Japan has served as one of the five permanent members of the Council. Moreover, she has contributed a considerable sum to the revenue of the body, her annual subscriptions between 1926-1932 having amounted to 16.5 per cent. of the total expenditure.

The problem of general disarmament was taken up by the disarmament preparatory commission of the League in 1925. After meeting in session several times the commission submitted its draft formula for general disarmament to the Council in January, 1931 and the General Disarmament Conference was convened to meet at Geneva to discuss limitation of the military, naval and aerial armaments of all countries late in 1932, when Japan's delegates submitted their proposal regarding naval disarmament as outlined on page 185.

Relations with the Permanent Court As regards the Permanent Court of International Justice at the Hague, Japan has rendered due assistance to the League of Nations' efforts for arbitration at this court by sending jurists to sit on its benches, but she has not yet participated in the general provisions for peaceable disposal of international disputes, which were adopted at the Assembly in 1928. Nor has she decided yet on the adherence to the "optional clause" of the Hague court, which has been signed or accepted by Great Britain, France, Italy and about forty other countries, thereby expressing their willingness to accept compulsory arbitration in international disputes.

Relations with the International Labour Office Among the various conventions drafted by the International Labour Office of the League of Nations, Japan has ratified the following on the dates given in parenthesis:

(1) Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (November 2, 1922).

(2) Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment (June 3, 1926).

(3) Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea (June 4, 1924).

(4) Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen (November 23, 1922).

(5) Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture (December 9, 1923).

(6) Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (June 7, 1924).

(7) Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (October 8, 1928). Note: this convention does not apply to such overseas dependencies of Japan as Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, the Kwantung Leased Territory and the mandated islands in the Southern Pacific.

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(8) Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (October 8, 1928). Note: this convention also does not apply to the overseas dependencies of Japan mentioned above.

(9) Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship (October 8, 1928). Note: this also does not apply to the above mentioned territories.

The League commission on international communication and transit has drafted several conventions, of which Japan ratified the one concerning freedom of communication in 1922, and two others concerning seaports and railway systems in 1926.

World Economic Conference

This conference was preceded by informal inter-governmental pourparlers held in Washington in May, 1933, through the good offices of President Roosevelt of the United States, with the object of coming to some general understandings in preparation for the more formal negotiations. At these pourparlers Japan was represented by Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, veteran diplomat and privy councillor, who headed the Japanese delegation to the London Conference. The Japanese delegation also included Mr. Tsunéo Matsudaira, Ambassador in London, and Mr. Eigo Fukai, Vice-Governor of the Bank of Japan. Mr. Sotomatsu Kato, counsellor of the Japanese Embassy in London, acted as secretary-general to the delegation.

The London Conference opened on June 12, and on the second day of the plenary session Viscount Ishii delivered an address on behalf of the Japanese Government, expressing Japan's willingness to co-operate and emphasizing the urgent need of "a free interchange of world commodities on a basis of equality", adding that it was "highly desirable that there should be an unrestricted application of the most favoured nation clause" and that the conference had "a great rôle to play" in that connection.

During the following sessions of the conference, however, a series of unforeseen difficulties arose and finally the exchange problem proved an unsurmountable stumbling block, wrecking the parley officially on July 27, when the plenary session was declared adjourned indefinitely. Efforts were made by some delegates to avert failure. In this connection, it may be remembered that during a meeting of the conference bureau Viscount Ishii suggested that discussion should be continued on questions other than the exchange problem instead of adjourning the conference altogether.

Relations with Great Britain

Abrogation of 1905 Convention The trade relations between Japan and India received a serious setback in 1933 when notice was served Japan in April through the British Government of the abrogation on October 10, 1933, of the Indo-Japanese Trade Convention of 1905.

This step was followed by an increase of the import duty of the Indian Government on Japanese cotton fabrics from 50 per cent. to 75 per cent. ad valorem on June 6, 1933. The duty on British cotton fabrics remained at 25 per cent. This drastic action on the part of the Indian Government caused the Japanese cotton spinners to boycott Indian cotton, and the situation was such that the British Government suggested the opening of negotiations between the industrial and trade in-

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terests of Japan, India and Great Britain in the hope of finding a solution.

Simla Conference Opinion was divided among industrialists in Japan with regard to acceptance of the British proposal, but it was finally decided to send representatives both to London and Simla to confer with representatives of the British and Indian interests. For the Simla conference, which was scheduled to be held on September 22, with the British and Indian delegates present, Mr. Setsuzo Sawada, former chief of the Japanese Bureau of the League of Nations, Mr. Susumu Terao, chief of the Trade Bureau of the Commerce and Industry Ministry, and Mr. Tetsuichiro Miyaké, Consul-General at Calcutta, were appointed to represent the Japanese Government, although they were not given full powers because the British Government had made it known that any agreement to be reached at Simla was subject to the approval of the British Government, while no official assurance was obtainable as to whether such an agreement would be adopted by the British Government without modification.

The Agreement Negotiations were not easy due to conflicts of interests of the two countries and more than 3 months was spent before it came to the final agreement of January 5, 1934, at New Delhi. Agreement was reached on various important problems relative to the commerce between Japan and India, including: (1) most-favoured-nation treatment; (2) a provision to open negotiations with a view to modifying customs tariff; (3) measures to be taken to adjust the effects of the exchange fluctuations; (4) customs duties applicable to Japanese cotton piecegoods imported into India; (5) a quota to be applied to the same; and (6) enforcement of the agreement entered into. The gist of the agreement follows:[1]

(1) Customs duties to be imposed on Japanese cotton piecegoods should not exceed following rates.

Duty on plain greys	50 per cent. ad valorem or 5.25 annas per pound
Duty on others	50 per cent. ad valorem

It is understood that the Government of India shall not impose on Japanese cotton piece-goods other than plain greys a specific duty exceeding 5.25 annas per pound subject to agreement concerning most-favoured-nation treatment.

(2) Basic quota of Japanese cotton piecegoods to be exported to India in a piece-goods year shall be 325,000,000 yards, and it shall be linked with 1,000,000 bales of India raw cotton exported to Japan in corresponding cotton year.

(3) Treaty shall come into force immediately after exchange of ratifications and shall remain in force until March 31, 1937.

Specific Duties The conference however could not come to happy ending because of specific duties imposed by the Government of India on December 23, 1933, which are applicable to large part of Japanese miscellaneous goods exported to India. The increase in duties are so heavy as to deal a serious blow to the export of miscellaneous goods from Japan, notably hosiery, earthenwares and potteries, enamelled ironwares and pencils the new duties are prohibitive, although Sir Joseph Bhore told Mr. Sawada that the new tariffs were meant to protect domestic industry and in no way unreasonable.

On January 22 Mr. Sawada met Sir Joseph Bhore, member of the Executive Council, Railways and Commerce, to call attention of the Indian Government concerning the new duties imposed upon the Japanese miscellaneous goods presenting Japanese views in a written form. On January 26 in answer to the inquiry of Sawada on the intention of

1 For particulars of the agreement see "Commercial Treaty between Japan and India" (Appendix).

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the Government of India to increase in duties on Japanese rayon goods, Bhore admitted the fact, and it caused another apprehension among the Japanese manufacturers and traders concerned.

The Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement was signed in London on July 12, 1934.

Anglo-Japanese Trade Issue The marked progress of Japanese cotton textiles and miscellaneous goods in the world markets and especially of those of the British Empire caused the London authorities to take measures to minimize its effect in order to protect the interests of their own manufacturers. On May 15, 1933, the British Government intimated the Japanese Government with their intention of exempting West Africa from the operation of the Commercial Treaty of 1911, with one year's grace. This act seemingly spurred a tendency of impeding by several means the import of Japanese goods. Simultaneously with the above notification the British Government suggested an Anglo-Japanese trade conference to be held at London between the delegates of traders of the two countries. To this proposal Japan consented and in August, 1933, sent delegates to London. But circumstances delayed its opening till February 14, 1934.

The initial meeting was held in the Board of Trade building and was attended by Thomas Barlow, John Grey, J. Ainsley, Raymond Streat and H. G. Hughes representing the British side; and Gentaro Okada, Gota Miyaké, Kazuyoshi Mimura, Masao Kawaguchi, Tokuzo Tamagaki and Katsunosuké Shimada the Japanese side.

A British note was presented defining the geographical areas to which an agreement to be reached should apply. The British intention was evidently to cover all of the world markets where a ratio of imports of British and Japanese goods should be established. To this, however, the Japanese delegation took strong exception, saying that neither the British nor the Japanese Government had right to drag in a third country over which it had no control into the business. It proposed that the agreement to come should not apply to all the British Empire, but only to the Crown colonies.

At the second meeting of February 21 the Japanese delegation handed a formal answer to the British note regarding the division of geographical areas. The answer reiterated what was said at the first meeting, saying that the agreement to come should apply only to England and her colonies, and not to the third States and the British Dominions. On February 26 the third parley was held and the British delegation stated that in order to initiate peace in the world cotton textile market the Anglo-Japanese negotiations must be based upon the condition of the world market in general and there would have been no need of a conference, if it were to discuss the matter only in relation to England and Crown colonies. To this the Japanese delegation countered with the contention that it was out of the question to negotiate with Britain about matters which entirely or mainly belong to the third parties.

Together with the division of geographical areas, the British delegation proposed a ratio of British and Japanese cotton textile exports to the world markets, ¥2,190,000,000 for the British and ¥1,410,000,000 for the Japanese. But the question of whether or not to include all the world markets being unsolved, discussion on the ratio question practically made no headway and in spite of the efforts on both sides in and out of the conference room, the ne-

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gotiations were closed on March 14, leaving the entire problem where it had been before.

Japan-Dutch Conference

On the heels of the Indo-Japanese trade conference, Japan decided to negotiate on trade with Holland. In the talks at The Hague in December, 1933, between the Dutch Premier and Japanese diplomatic representatives, it was decided that Japanese and Dutch delegations negotiate in Java on the trade relations of Japan and the Dutch East Indies and that the outcome of their discussions be further debated at the Hague by representatives of both governments.

Dutch Indies constitute Japan's fourth most important market, and since 1932 they have been taking more from this country than from Holland itself, a situation that has naturally led the Dutch industrialists to campaign for restrictions against Japanese commodities.

With the purpose, on the part of the Dutch East Indies, to adjust the one sided trade relation with Japan for it bought ¥157,487,000 and sold ¥55,709,000 in 1933, the Japan-Dutch trade conference has been opened at Batavia on June 8, 1934. In the opening adress Dr. J. W. Mejer Ranneft, the chief Dutch representative and Vice-president of the Dutch East Indies Council, pointed out that to uphold and maintain one's own interests in new economic world was the right position to adopt.

Dr. Haruichi Nagano, the chief Japanese delegate and former Ambassador in Paris, made his speech after Dr. Ranneft and urged that the relations between the Dutch East Indies and Japan not only must be of an enduring nature but also must harmonize with the economic aspects of each country.

General committee meetings have been held on June 26 and 27, without much results. (See Chapter XVIII.)

Relations with Soviet Russia

After the Siberian expedition in which Japan participated from 1918 until 1920, diplomatic relations were not restored between the Japanese and Russian Governments until 1924, although Japan had withdrawn her troops from Siberia few years previously.

After her participation in the World War, Japan concluded an agreement with Russia on July 3, 1916 for the purpose of preventing Russia from making peace with Germany independently of the other Allies. At this time there was a rumour that the two countries had concluded an offensive and defensive alliance. Following the establishment of the communist régime in Russia, in 1917, Japan sent the 3rd and the 12th divisions and a part of the 7th division to Siberia between August and October of 1918, in compliance with a proposal from the United States, in order to enable some 50,000 Czechoslovak troops (formerly prisoner of war taken by the Russian from the Austrian armies) to establish contact with the Allied armies in the East. This expedition to Siberia automatically disrupted the diplomatic relations between Japan and Russia, and even after the Czechoslovak troops had re-established liaison with the other allied armies, the Japanese remained in Siberia with fresh troops relieving the first expeditionary forces. The American and other foreign troops were withdrawn early in 1920, but Japan in spite of the demand for withdrawal by the Soviet Government of Irkutsk on March 11, 1920, continued to station her troops in the vicinity of Vladivostok and Habarovsk for the professed purpose of protecting the Japanese resi-

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dents there. On March 18 and 19, 1920, partisan troops attacked the Japanese consulate, Nikolaevsk, killing all the officials and guards. On March 31, the Japanese Government issued a statement to the effect that Japan had no territorial designs in Siberia, but that the withdrawal of troops was impossible in the circumstances. Japan maintained relations with the Far Eastern Republic, constituted an independent state in February, 1921, until January, 1922, when this region was incorporated in the U. S. S. R.

With a view to restoring diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia, with which she shared interests on the Asiatic mainland, Japan undertook to negotiate with the Russian representatives on several occasions at Changchun and Dairen. Such efforts were resumed in 1923 in Tokyo, where M. Joffe and Mr. Toshihiko Kawakami met in conference officially representing Soviet Russia and Japan respectively, through the good offices of Count Shimpei Goto, but no satisfactory results were forthcoming. It was at Peking that the diplomatic relations between the two countries were resumed officially on January 20, 1925, when Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa, the Japanese Minister there, succeeded in concluding an agreement with M. Kharahan, the Soviet representative, after seven months' negotiations.

The Fishery Dispute The first fishery convention between the two countries had been concluded in 1907, and after the resumption of Soviet-Japanese relations, efforts were made for its revision and, following the visit to Russia by Count Shimpei Goto in this connection, the revised convention was signed on January 24, 1928, remedying such provisions as had proved disadvantageous to the Japanese and otherwise improving the pact to meet the new situation. However, this revision was later found to be imperfect and disputes arose one after another between the Japanese fishing interests and the Soviet authorities regarding the details of the fishery convention.

Among other issues in this connection the most notable in recent years was that concerning the exchange rate of the rouble. This dispute originated in the inspection of the Vladivostok office of the Bank of Chosen by the local Soviet authorities and the subsequent prohibition of free transactions in rouble exchange. As a result, the Japanese fishing interests, which had been paying various taxes and rates to the Soviet authorities with Soviet currency obtainable at the Vladivostok office of the Bank of Chosen at depreciated exchange rates, now faced the necessity of exchanging the yen for the rouble at an official rate five or six times higher than the open market value. In order to settle this problem, the Japanese Government demanded that either the rents of the fishing leases or the official exchange value of the rouble be reduced, and this proposal was followed by prolonged negotiations in Moscow and Tokyo.

The negotiations were started in Moscow in October, 1930, but soon afterwards the Soviet Ambassador to Japan, M. Troianovsky, took up the dispute in Tokyo, and communicated the willingness of his Government to reduce the official exchange rate of the rouble by 25 per cent., when selling debentures of the state operated corporation, "Aco" (in charge of the Russian fishery interests), fixing the rate at 75 sen in Japanese currency. In reply Japan insisted on the rate of 30 sen for the rouble, and negotiations continued until April 26, 1931, when a compromise was reached providing that the payments of the Japanese fishing

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interests to the Soviet authorities during the year of 1931 should be made with "Aco" debentures to be purchased at the rate of 32.5 sen for the rouble.

In view of this dispute and other difficulties arising from the differences between the two countries in the interpretation of the provisions of the Fishery Convention, Japan proposed on June 22, 1931, to open a conference with Soviet Russia to reconsider the whole convention. After a delay of five months, Soviet Russia consented to negotiate with Japan and pourparlers were started between Mr. Koki Hirota, the Japanese Ambassador, and M. Kharahan, Assistant Commissar of Foreign Affairs of Soviet Russia, on November 27, 1931. No substantial progress, however, was made during the negotiations, which were carried on with frequent interruptions for several months.

On February 20, 1934, the auction for the current year of the fishery grounds was held at Vladivostok. Bids were submitted by both Japanese and Soviets. The Soviets, however, declared that the Japanese bids were unacceptable, because they were accompanied by a guarantee made out at the rate of 32.5 sen, instead of 75 sen as ruled by the Vladivostok fishery authorities, per ruble, and the Soviets' bids, which numbered 60, were accepted as valid. The reason that a Japanese interests insisted upon a 32.5 sen rate of exchange is based upon a provision in the Shidehara - Troiaunovsky Agreement of April 26, 1931.

On February 25 the Russian authorities proposed a compromise which purported to permit Japanese bidders to enter new offers at 32.5 sen on February 28 for the remaining 66 fishing grounds, provided that the exchange rate question would be held open for future negotiations. This was accepted by the Japanese interests and the grounds were given them at the auction held on May 20.

The question of yen-ruble exchange still remained and negotiations to settle the matter were opened on June 17 at Moscow, from then up to February 21, 1935, the negotiations were held 15 times. At the date of writing (July 31, 1935), however, the negotiations remain in abeyance. The reason for this was that both the Soviets and Japan insisted upon their original rates, the former upon 75 sen and the latter 32.5. The yen-rouble question had to be solved in the negotiations incidental to the Japan-Soviet Fishery Treaty. This treaty will mature in May, 1936. As Japan thought it necessary to revise it, the Foreign Office caused Ambassador Tamekichi Ohta, in Moscow, to make a proposal to the Moscow Government in May, 1935, one year prior to the date of maturity, in conformity with Article XV of the treaty, for its revision. Four things which are held essential by the Tokyo Government are: (1) the revision of the method in acquiring fishing grounds by bids (2) the readjustment in the restriction of the amount of fishing (3) the rationalization of the method of lease rental payment and (4) the concrete plans for the protection of fishes. The Japanese Government sees that the present method of bidding for fishing grounds is a source of disputes and it intends to do away with this once for all. It also regards the restriction of the amount of catch improper and intends to revise it properly. In the third place, the Japanese bidders find it very inconvenient to pay the rental on the basis of yen-rouble quotation, because it is in no way stabilized, and are desirous of placing it on the yen basis. As regards the protection of fishes, the Japanese have

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already enforced the control of open-sea fishery to prevent reckless catches of salmon and salmon-trout in Kamchatka and the Japanese Government desires that the Soviet side will also prohibit catches of salmon and salmon-trout in Kamchatka rivers.

Non-Aggression Pact Proposals Frequent overtures have been made by Soviet Russia with a view to concluding a non-aggression pact with Japan. This question was first broached when Mr. Kenkichi Yoshizawa visited Moscow on December 31, 1931, on his way home from Paris to be installed as Foreign Minister. Receiving Mr. Yoshizawa and Mr. Koki Hirota, M. Litvinoff, Commissar of Foreign Affairs, and M. Kharahan, proposed the conclusion of a non-aggression pact. On January 12, 1932, the Soviet Ambassador in Tokyo, M. Troianovsky, called on Mr. Inukai, then Premier and Foreign Minister, to obtain the views of the Japanese Government on this question, and a few days later Tass, the official news agency of the Soviet Government, carried a report endorsing the truth of the Kharahan-Yoshizawa conversations in Moscow and the Troianovsky-Inukai meeting in Tokyo.

The Soviet proposal was further explained by Mr. Yoshizawa, who, on his arrival in Tokyo on June 16, told the press that the Soviet Government was very eager to conclude with Japan a non-aggression pact similar to those they had concluded with Turkey, Persia, Afganistan and Lithuania. However, no great enthusiasism was evinced in government circles in Japan regarding this proposal, which was little discussed by the press until the late autumn of 1932, when a special dispatch to the Tokyo Nichinichi, dated from Mukden October 22, reported that the Government had sought the counsel of the headquarters of the Kwantung army in Manchuria on this question. According to this report, General Nobuyoshi Muto, commander of the Kwantung army, replied that the local military authorities were in favour of the non-aggression pact project provided that conditions necessary for Japan's defence were accepted by Soviet Russia.

When Mr Yosuké Matsuoka, the chief Japanese delegate to the League of Nations, visited Moscow on his way to Geneva on November 4, 1932, this question seems to have been taken up anew during his conversations with M. Kharahan.

Since then, however, no further steps have been taken in the matter on either side.

Negotiations for Sale of the N. M. R. Through the good offices of the Japanese Government a conference was opened in Tokyo on June 26 between representatives of Soviet Russia and Manchoukuo regarding the proposed sale of the North Manchuria Railway (formerly the Chinese Eastern Railway). Japan took no active part in the railway negotiations, except that a few Japanese officials attended the sessions as observers.

According to a memorandum stating the fundamental principles for the transfer of the North Manchuria Railway submitted by the Soviet Russia at the third official meeting held on July 4, 1933, the sale price was put at 250,000,000 gold roubles. The price offered by Manchoukuo was ¥50,000,000. The Soviet side based its calculation on the amount of its investment totalling 411,690,000 gold roubles up to 1932 and, taking into consideration the depreciation of economic value of the railway and its condition of damage, it finally estimated the total amount of transfer at 250,000,000 gold roubles. The Manchurian side appraised the value

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on the basis of the prevailing construction cost. In March, 1934, the Soviet side brought down the price to ¥200,000,000, but the Manchurian side lowered it to ¥100,000,000 in April of that year. Through mutual concession, the price was fixed at ¥170,000,000 on September 21, 1934. During the intervening period Foreign Minister Koki Hirota held interviews with Ambassador Youreneff ten times and Mr. Shigenori Togo, Director of the Europe and Asia Bureau, of the Foreign Office, saw M. Benedict I. Kazlovsky, one of the Soviet delegates, eight times on negotiations. Finally, the negotiations were concluded on January 21, 1935, and on March 23 the signing of the agreement took place at the official residence of the Foreign Minister in Tokyo. According to the resume of the Transfer Agreement, all the property of the North Manchuria Railway (the old Chinese Eastern Railway) will be sold to Manchoukuo for ¥140,000,000. In addition, Manchoukuo shall pay ¥30,000,000 as retirement allowances for Soviet employees of the railway. It is also provided for in the Agreement that one-third of the transfer price shall be paid in cash and two-thirds in goods, all to be completely paid in three years. The Japanese Government guarantees the Manchoukuo Government completely fulfils the payment.

North Saghalien Oil Concession Problem

The North Saghalien Oil Concession contract, based on Article VI of the Japanese-Soviet Basic Treaty, concluded in October, 1925, proves very disadvantageous to Japan as well as the Japanese-Soviet Fishery Treaty. The whole area where oil prospecting is to be undertaken is divided like a checker board. If one bloc of the board is assigned for Japan to prospect, the adjoining bloc is claimed by the Soviet side as its prospecting field. When Japan succeeds in turning out oil by prospecting paying an enormous amount of expenses and changes it into an oil mining section, the Soviet side enlists the adjoining bloc into its oil fields, thus profiting without much trouble and expenses. It is also disadvantageously provided for in the treaty that the term of oil prospecting in unexploited fields covering an area of 1,000 versts in Ocha districts is fixed at only 10 years. Moreover, North Saghalien is open to the practicability of actual work for a brief period of only two or three months during summer. The actual period of operation throughout 10 years is therefore only about 20 or 30 months. The term will mature at the end of 1936. The North Saghalien Oil Company has been negotiating with the Soviet Government for extension of the term of prospecting since about seven years ago. The Foreign Office also has been negotiating with Soviet authorities in Moscow for extension of the term through Ambassador Tamekichi Ohta.

Relations with the United States

The mutual friendship of Japan and the United States largely hinges upon their respective interests on the Asiatic continent, most notably in Manchuria and China proper. The United States first made it known in 1899 that she had an equal claim in China to that of other Powers by advocating the so-called Open Door policy. The United States thought it necessary to assert this principle in order to catch up with the other Powers, which had already acquired extensive interests in China, and it followed naturally that the Americans should sympathize with Japan in her des-

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perate attempt in 1904-5 to force Russia out of Manchuria and leave the region open to all nations interested.

The Four-Power Treaty For the same reason the United States objected to Japan's occupation of Shantung during the World War. The result was that Japan formally restored the territory to China on May 17, 1919 and at the Washington Conference, 1921-22, agreed to complete evacuation thereof. The Four-Power Treaty concerning the insular possessions of the signatories in the Pacific and the Nine-Power Treaty regarding the sovereignty and the open door principle of China, which were signed at the Washington Conference, also had a more important bearing upon Japan and the United States than on the other signatories. The Four-Power Treaty provided that the signatories should mutually respect the right of the Powers regarding their respective insular possessions in the Pacific and also that in case a dispute arose regarding such rights with likelihood to prove detrimental to the peaceful relations between the powers concerned, the parties involved in such a dispute should call a joint conference of the other signatories to discuss settlement of the entire issue. So far as Japan is concerned, however, this provision applies only to Karafuto, the Pescadores and her mandated islands in the Southern Pacific. The most important provision in this treaty for Japan is embodied in its fourth article which stipulates that the Anglo-Japanese alliance, which had been concluded at London on July 13, 1911, should terminate simultaneously with the conclusion of this treaty.

The Nine-Power Treaty The Nine-Power Treaty also has an important bearing on Japan in that it consolidated the open door policy in connection with China, where Japan has greater interests than any other foreign country, especially in Manchuria. This treaty was invoked against Japan both by the United States and the League of Nations in connection with the Manchurian incident.

In the first article of this treaty, what are known as Root's four principles were incorporated, providing, first, that the sovereignty and independence as well as the territorial and political integrity of China should be respected, second, that most perfect and unrestricted opportunities should be offered China in order that she might be able to establish and maintain a powerful and stable government, third, that efforts should be made to establish and maintain the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry to be undertaken by people of all nationalities throughout the territory of China, and fourth, that the signatories should refrain from utilizing conditions in China to seek special rights or interests detrimental to the interests of the subjects or citizens of other friendly nations, or from recognizing actions detrimental to the welfare of such friendly nations.

The Immigration Question In view of the agitation in the United States against Japanese labour, the Tokyo Government has taken every precaution not to aggravate this issue and from 1907, when what is known as the "Gentleman's Agreement" was concluded, Japan continued to restrict emigration to the United States by withholding passports from intending emigrants above a limited number.

However, on August 19, 1913 the State of California promulgated the Alien Land Law (the Webb Bill) prohibiting Japanese and other aliens ineligible for citizenship from own-

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ing land, in spite of three protests by Baron Sutemi Chinda, Japanese Ambassador in Washington. In 1919, the Japanese Government took the further precaution of stopping the emigration of so-called "picture brides" to the United States, but nevertheless an ever increasing anti-Japanese sentiment continued to prevail in the United States, and on April 19, 1920, the Federal Immigration Bureau revised the regulations governing the entry of the adopted children of Japanese parents. Moreover, the State of California enacted a second law of exclusion barring the Japanese and other aliens from leasing land, or owning land in the name of corporations or from operating land owned in the name of their American-born children.

The immigration problem assumed its greatest gravity in 1924, when the United States Congress passed a new federal immigration law, which included a provision absolutely prohibiting immigration of Japanese labourers. While this bill was before Congress, the Japanese Government instructed its ambassador at Washington, Mr. Masanao Hanihara, to call the attention of the United States Government to the importance attached by the Japanese to the proposed legislation. The steps taken by Mr. Hanihara, however, resulted in provoking the American sentiment owing to a phrase "grave consequences" which he used inadvertently in a communication to the Secretary of State, Mr. Hughes.

When the United States President signed the bill on May 24, 1924, the Japanese Government sent in a strong protest but could not improve the situation in any way. The Japanese people took this action on the part of the United States as a serious insult to their national honour.

A resolution calling for ejection of Japanese farmers for the next 10 days from Arizona farmlands was adopted at a convention of about 200 American tenant farmers near Phoenix, the capital of Arizona State in the United States, on August 15, 1934. A movement of forcing Japanese farmers out of their farmlands was subsequently staged several times. These American farmers approached the Governor of the State to recognize their movement, but, when he rejected their petition they resorted to direct action to force Japanese farmers out. The situation then spread to California and in February, 1935, an anti-Japanese exclusion bill was submitted to the Californian State Legislature. The bill provided for an absolute prohibition of Japanese people from engaging in agriculture under any circumstances. The exclusion bill was submitted to an agriculture committee of the Lower House and then was turned over to a judicial committee. Finding that the bill was too exacting and aimed at depriving the Japanese farmers of the right of agriculture, the committee doubted it might conflict the U. S. Constitution and submitted it to the plenary session of the Californian State Lower House with a desiratum for amendment, but it was shelved at the Upper House. The problem thus was apparently solved, but the exclusion tendency against Japanese was growing keener. Even Japanese who legally entered that country and are engaged in peaceful vocations are not given treatment the same as that accorded the American citizens.

Other Issues The attempted intervention in the Manchurian and Shanghai affairs in 1931 and 1932 by the American Secretary of State, Col. Henry L. Stimson, at one time

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seemed to menace seriously the relations between Japan and the United States.

Hirota-Hull Messages As soon as Mr. Koki Hirota took office as Foreign Minister he commenced to devote himself to strengthening Japan's friendly relations with her neighbouring countries. As one of the manifestations of such endeavour, he sent, through Mr. H. Sato, the new Ambassador, his personal message to Mr. Hull, the Secretary of State of the United States, on February 21, 1934:

"I firmly believe that, viewed in the light of the broad aspect of the situation and studied from all possible angles, no question exists between our two countries that is fundamentally incapable of amicable solution. I do not doubt that all issues pending between the two nations will be settled in a satisfactory manner, when examined with a good understanding on the part of each of the other's position, discussed with an open mind and in all frankness, and approached with a spirit of co-operation and conciliation."

To this, Secretary Hull replied on March 3 with his personal message in the form of a letter, to Mr. Hirota, a summary as follows:

"I believe that there are in fact no questions between our two countries which, if they be viewed in proper perspective in both countries, can with any warrant be regarded as not readily susceptible to adjustment by pacific processes."

The Manchurian Incident

What is known as the "Manchurian Incident" broke out with the blasting of a section of the South Manchuria Railway near Liutiaokou by Chinese regular troops on September 18, 1931. It has brought about the foundation of a new nation in Manchuria and the withdrawal of Japan from the League of Nations. The incident though called in the singular was not really a single incident, but a series of incidents which followed one another after the unexpected outbreak, the inevitable sequel to long-continued and growing anti-Japanese activities on the part of the old Mukden militarists.

The hostilities which occurred in Shanghai in January, 1932, as well as the threatening situation in Tientsin some time earlier were only two of the manifold ramifications of the "Manchurian Incident." The state of affairs known as the Manchurian Incident continued until the truce concluded on May 31, 1933, at Tangku between the Japanese and Chinese forces, which to all intents and purposes wound up the Jehol expedition carried out by the combined Japanese and Manchoukuo armies to pacify the province and protect the provincial people from local banditry and invading troops from the south across the Great Wall.[1]

Founding of Manchoukuo

The Manchurian Incident having resulted in the over-throw of the old régime of Chang Hsueh-liang, various groups came to declare independence in different districts of Manchuria.

The chief principles of the projected new government called for the suppression of the military cliques, co-operation with the rest of the world in line with the principle of the open door and equal opportunity for all, elimination of anti-foreignism, and promotion of the welfare of the people in place of the oppression and grinding taxation from which they had hitherto suffered.

Thus, on March 1, 1932, a manifesto was promulgated announcing

1 For particulars of the incident see the Japan Year Book, 1933, Chapter VII.

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that Manchoukuo was founded in response to the unanimous aspirations of the 30,000,000 people of Manchuria and Mongolia. On March 7, Mr. Henry Pu-yi, who had once reigned over the entire territory of China as the 12th Emperor of the Ching dynasty, consented to become the Chief Executive of Manchoukuo. This was followed by the installation in office of Mr. Henry Pu-yi and the ceremony celebrating the founding of Manchoukuo at Changchun on March 9. (For particulars see Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

Japan and Manchoukuo

The Japanese Envoy On August 8, 1932, General Nobuyoshi Muto was appointed commander of the Kwantung army with concurrent offices as Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Manchoukuo and Governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory.

Recognition of Manchoukuo The Japanese Government extended de jure recognition to Manchoukuo on September 15, 1932, when the protocol completing this procedure was signed at the Chief Executive's offices in Hsinking between General Muto representing Japan and Premier Cheng Hsiao-hsu representing Manchoukuo.

The official English translation of this protocol follows :

Whereas Japan has recognized the fact that Manchoukuo, in accordance with the free will of its inhabitants, has organized and established itself as an independent State ; and

Whereas Manchoukuo has declared its intention of abiding by all international engagements entered into by China in so far as they are applicable to Manchoukuo ;

Now the Governments of Japan and Manchoukuo have, for the purpose of establishing a perpetual relationship of good neighbourhood between Japan and Manchoukuo, each respecting the territorial rights of the other, and also in order to secure the peace of the Far East, agreed as follows :

1. Manchoukuo shall confirm and respect, in so far as no agreement to the contrary shall be made between Japan and Manchoukuo in the future, all rights and interests possessed by Japan or her subjects within the territory of Manchoukuo by virtue of Sino-Japanese treaties, agreements or other arrangements or of Sino-Japanese contracts, private as well as public ;

2. Japan and Manchoukuo, recognizing that any threat to the territory or to the peace and order of either of the High Contracting Parties constitutes at the same time a threat to the safety and existence of the other, agree to co-operate in the maintenance of their national security ; it being understood that such Japanese forces as may be necessary for this purpose shall be stationed in Manchoukuo.

The present Protocol shall come into effect from the date of its signing.

The present Protocol has been drawn up in Japanese and Chinese, two identical copies being made in each language. Should any difference arise in regard to interpretation between the Japanese and the Chinese texts, the Japanese text shall prevail.

The Shanghai Affair

The Causes Anti-Japanese feeling in China was increasingly accentuated following the Wanpaoshan affair, the conflict between Koreans and Chinese in Chosen and the Manchurian incident in particular. Among other places Shanghai was the scene of most vigorous and or-

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ganized anti-Japanese activities, which culminated in the publication of an article disrespectful to the Imperial family of Japan by the Minkuo Jipao, a Chinese newspaper in Shanghai, in January, 1932. Shortly afterwards there occurred an assault on two Japanese Buddhist priests and three Japanese Buddhist believers of the Nichiren sect by a mob of workers of the Sanyu Business Company, manufacturers of towels, on January 18, when all of the Buddhist group were seriously wounded, one of them dying later on January 24.

Indignation among the Japanese residents in Shanghai over this outrage was such that they immediately held a mass meeting and lodged a strong protest with Wu Tieh-cheng, mayor of Shanghai.

The Ultimatum Consul-General Murai had filed an official protest with Mayor Wu of Shanghai demanding an apology from the mayor, the arrest and punishment of the marauders, payment of solatiums and expenses of medical treatment for the injured and also immediate dissolution of anti-Japanese organizations.

Seeing the general situation, Consul-General Murai sent an ultimatum to the Chinese with a time limit set for 6 p. m. on January 28 and received a reply from Mayor Wu promising to suppress the anti-Japanese agitators and accept all the Japanese demands.

Opening of Hostilities On the evening of January 28, however, Chinese crowds gathered around the municipal offices of Shanghai loudly accusing the mayor of having weakly yielded to the Japanese, and a serious situation threatened to prevail in all parts of the city, with the result that the Municipal Bureau of the International Settlement had to declare a state of siege, the foreign garrison forces taking up their positions in their respective areas of defence.

The situation, however, went from bad to worse, and the Japanese and Chinese troops came into a collision, which lasted from January 29 to March 3, when the former completely drove out the latter from the Chapei district.

On the completion of this achievement, General Shirakawa, commander of the Japanese expeditionary forces, and Vice-Admiral Nomura, commander of the Japanese fleet, ordered suspension of all hostilities at 2 p. m. on March 3.

Sino-Japanese Issue and the League

Japan's Attitude Following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident, the Council of the League of Nations held an urgent session in compliance with a request of Dr. Alfred Sze, the Chinese representative, on September 22, 1931.

The League Adjourns Following the publication of the statement of the Tokyo Government, the intentions of Japan gradually came to be understood by the Powers, and the League Council adjourned on September 30 after adopting a resolution.

Activities of Council The situation, however, threatened to grow worse when, on October 8, the air raid on Chinchow was reported, and on the following day Japan lodged a protest against the anti-Japanese movement and sent a naval force to South China.

For three days from October 14, the Council discussed the question of the proposal to invite an observer of the United States to attend the Council meeting. The Japanese representative objected to this proposal from a juridical viewpoint, but at a private session held on the 15th,

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the Council passed this proposal as a question of "procedure" by a majority vote with Japan alone dissenting.

Accordingly the United States was represented by Mr. Prentiss Gilbert, the American consul-general at Berne, as an observer at the Council meeting from October 16.

At its private session on October 17, which is known as the 13-power conference because of the absence of the Japanese and Chinese representatives, the Council, with the attendance of the American observer, resolved that the 13 Powers take steps to call the attention of Japan and China to the Kellogg-Briand anti-war pact with regard to the Manchurian situation.

Consequently the Powers interested sent notes to Japan and China to that end, and the Japanese Government replied to these notes on the basis of a decision reached at an urgent meeting of the Cabinet held on October 22.

Briand's Proposal In the course of this conference M. Briand proposed a tentative plan to Mr. Yoshizawa, suggesting that Japan recognize the sovereignty of China in Manchuria, that China suppress her anti-Japanese agitation, boycott and anti-Japanese education, that China guarantee the safety of the lives and property of the Japanese nationals in China, that China recognize the right of Japanese nationals to reside, travel and engage in business in Manchuria, and that China confirm before the League of Nations the rights vested by all the existing treaties including what is known as the "Twenty-one Demands."

There were indications of these five proposals, if accepted by China, proving instrumental in improving the situation by making it possible for Japan to start direct negotiations with China regarding the concrete procedure of the withdrawal of the Japanese troops.

The situation, however, underwent a sudden change for the worse for an unknown reason, and at its session of October 22 the Council proposed to make Japan complete the withdrawal of her troops by November 15 with neutral observers seeing to it that perfect peace and order would be maintained after the Japanese evacuation, and to make Japan and China appoint their respective representatives to take charge of the evacuation of the occupied area, it also being suggested that Japan and China start direct negotiations immediately after the completion of the evacuation.

These proposals were regarded as the most disadvantageous ones to Japan that had ever been considered by the Council.

The Counter Proposal Against this, the Japanese representative, Mr. Yoshizawa, submitted a counter-proposal to the Council on the 23rd to the effect that the Japanese Government should withdraw those of its troops still remaining in a few localities outside the railway zone as the then-prevailing atmosphere of tension cleared and the situation improved, by the achievement of a previous understanding between the Chinese and Japanese Governments as regards the fundamental principles governing normal relations, that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should confer together at once with a view to arriving at the understanding as mentioned above, and that the Japanese and Chinese Governments should appoint representatives to arrange the details of execution of the evacuation and of taking over the districts evacuated.

The Japanese counter-proposal was defeated by a vote of 13 to 1,

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and the Council's resolution also failed to pass by a unanimous vote, the vote being 13 to 1 in favour of the Council proposal, the Japanese representative dissenting.

The "Fundamental Principles"

The Five Principles Following this, the Japanese Government published a statement on October 26, regarding the "fundamental principles" In this statement Japan made it clear that these so-called "basic principles" related to :

1. Mutual repudiation of aggressive policy and conduct.
2. Respect for China's territorial integrity.
3. Complete suppression of all organized movements interfering with freedom of trade and stirring up international hatred.
4. Effective protection throughout Manchuria of all peaceful pursuits undertaken by Japanese subjects.
5. Respect for the treaty rights of Japan in Manchuria.

Resolution of December 10

Tension Continues The League of Nations' Council held its third session to discuss the Sino-Japanese issue on November 16, 1932. Whereas League circles had been looking to the withdrawal of the Japanese troops by that date, the situation in Manchuria was such that Japan could not live up to their expectation, with the result that a frontal clash threatened to take place between Japan and the League of Nations.

In this connection League circles were reported advocating severance of economic relations with Japan, withdrawal of diplomatic representatives from Japan or exclusion of Japan from the League. These reports were met by an outburst of strong nationalistic sentiment in Japan and serious tension prevailed.

The Council met on November 16 as scheduled amid an atmosphere of such tension and was continued until December 10.

The Resolution Before adjourning, the Council adopted a resolution by a unanimous vote on December 10. This resolution in effect provided that the Japanese Government should withdraw its troops within the railway zone in proportion as the safety of the lives and the protection of the property of Japanese subjects were effectively secured and that the two parties should undertake to adopt all measures necessary to avoid any further aggravation of the situation and to refrain from any initiative which might lead to further fighting and loss of life.

Regarding this resolution, the Japanese representative declared that his Government accepted the resolution on the understanding that it would not prevent the Japanese military authorities from taking action in defence of lives and property of Japanese nationals against bandits and other lawless elements rampant in various parts of Manchuria.

Opinion Adverse Just after the League Council met in its 66th regular session on January 25, 1932, troubles broke out in Shanghai and Mr. W. W. Yen, the Chinese representative, appealed to the Council on January 29 to invoke Article 15 of the League Covenant in regard to the affair.

Thus, at the Council meeting on January 30, it was decided that only the first paragraph of Article 15 of the Covenant would be invoked, in regard to the Shanghai incident alone. Accordingly, representatives of the neutral members of the Council organized an international committee at Shanghai to gather information on the spot and submit

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it to the Council.

This committee sent in four reports successively, first under date of February 6, second under date of February 12, third under date of February 20 and fourth under date of March 6. Of these, the first report was very favourable to Japan, but the second report proved decidedly unfavourable to Japan, it declaring that the Japanese and Chinese troops had been in a state of open hostilities since February 3.

Consequently, the Council caused the representatives of the 12 members of the Council other than Japan and China to address an appeal to Japan on February 16, regretting that it appeared that Japan could no longer trust to the peaceful settlement to be provided by the League of Nations.

Japan's Refutal Thereupon, in a statement published on February 23, the Japanese Government refuted this appeal in detail asserting that, although China had been treated in the past, by common consent, as if the expression connoted an organized people, such fictions could not last forever, nor could they be tolerated when they became grave sources of actual danger. Thus the Japanese Government declared that the time had inevitably come when realities, rather than fictions, had to be reckoned with.

Views unfavourable to Japan were also expressed in various quarters about that time, and Japan's relations with the League of Nations seemed seriously menaced.

The Shanghai Armistice

A Parley Proposed On February 27, 1932, the Japanese delegation at Geneva unofficially notified the representatives of the 12 member Powers of the Council that Japan was willing to participate in a round-table conference if the Powers would sponsor such a parley at Shanghai.

The armistice conference was officially opened at Shanghai on March 24, but the progress of the parley was delayed owing to a divergency of opinion between the Japanese and Chinese delegates regarding the time to be fixed for the final withdrawal of the Japanese troops.

During this period of deadlock China made a sudden appeal to the League of Nations on April 11, reporting a rupture of the conference.

The Mixed Committee On receipt of this appeal, the Committee of 19, organized by the League Assembly on March 11 to continue in charge of the entire Sino-Japanese issue, immediately accepted this representation and opened a session on April 16 to discuss the situation.

At its session on April 19, the Committee of 19 drafted a resolution for the Assembly with the object of breaking through the reported deadlock between Japan and China.

This proposal was met by strong opposition from the Japanese Government as well as the military and public opinion of Japan, and another crisis arose between Japan and the League of Nations. But the situation was improved and the League Assembly adopted the Lampson plan by a unanimous vote on April 30. The crisis having thus passed, the armistic conference was resumed at Shanghai on April 28, and despite the occurrence of the tragic bombing outrage on the occasion of the celebration of the Emperor's birthday on April 29, an armistice was finally signed on May 5, 1932.

The League Commission of Inquiry

The League of Nations' Commission of Inquiry, appointed in line with the resolution of December 10,

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1931, and comprising the Earl of Lytton of Great Britain, Général de Division Henri Claudel of France, Major-General Frank Ross McCoy of the United States, Dr. Heinrich Schnee of Germany and Count Pldrovandi of Italy, arrived in Japan on February 29, 1932, accompanied by a party of their secretaries. The Commissions left Japan for China on March 11, and spent about four months to make investigations in China and Manchuria.

Preliminary Report What the Commission learned was presented to the League of Nations on April 29 as a preliminary report.

In the course of this preliminary report, the Enquiry Commission stated that Manchuria was not under the authority of the Nanking Government and was infested by banditry, so that the Japanese troops could not be withdrawn, adding that the Nanking Government did not exercise its power in any part of Manchuria in the prevailing situation.

The Final Report The full text of the final report of the Commission was published at 9 p.m., Tokyo time, on October 2 in Tokyo, Geneva and Nanking simultaneously.

The contents of the report were considered comparatively impartial in its description of the outline of the history of the Sino-Japanese relations, Japan's interests in Manchuria and the general observations of the prevailing situation.

However, that the Commission gave only a cursory account of the Shanghai incident, as if this incident had been outside the scope of its investigation work, was taken to show that the Commissioners did not fully understand what their true mission was.

Further, the failure of the Commissioners to recognize the military action taken by Japan on September 18, 1931, which was dealt with in the fourth chapter of the report, as an act of self-defence, was highly resented in Japan. It was also generally held both in official and private circles in Japan that the sixth chapter of the report, in so far as the description of the circumstances pertaining to the founding of Manchoukuo was concerned, was full of prejudiced misrepresentations and that the last two chapters containing what they called "principles and conditions of settlement" and "considerations and suggestions to the Council" were for this reason practically superfluous, especially after the de jure recognition recently extended to Manchoukuo by Japan.

Report and League

Resolution of February 24 Following the publication of the Lytton Report, the League of Nations started its discussion thereon at the Council meeting convened on November 21, 1932, and, after complicated proceedings through the Assembly, the Committee of Nineteen and other committee meetings, a report with several recommendations was adopted by a vote of 42 to 1 on February 24, 1933, at the Assembly meeting, at which Siam abstained from voting and 12 countries were not represented.

The report was on the whole based upon the Lytton Report and was distinctly unfavourable for Japan and Manchoukuo, one of the recommendations contained therein purporting to recognize Chinese sovereignty and administrative integrity in Manchuria.

Japan's Withdrawal After voting against the report of the League of Nations Assembly on the Sino-Japanese dispute, the Japanese delegation to the League meetings, headed by Mr. Yosuké Matsuoka, left Geneva without attending further

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meetings of the League, thereby expressing the firm determination of Japan.

In Japan, the Government decided on severance from the League of Nations and submitted a project to this end to the Throne. Accordingly the Privy Council met in plenary session on March 27, 1933, in the presence of the Emperor to recommend the project for Imperial sanction with a unanimous vote.

The Throne immediately sanctioned the project, a telegram was dispatched to Geneva addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations notifying the body of Japan's withdrawal from its membership, and simultaneously with this the Emperor issued an Imperial rescript announcing the policy to be followed by Japan after this action.

The official translation of the Imperial rescript follows:

"When the League of Nations came into being upon the restoration of a general peace, Our Imperial Father was pleased to order the entry of Our Empire thereinto; and We, in Our turn, have laboured assiduously to fulfil the high purpose of the late Emperor. It is thus that Our Empire has for these thirteen years past extended consistently its co-operation to the League.

"Now Manchoukuo having of late been founded, Our Empire deems it essential to respect the independence of the new state and to encourage its healthy development, in order that the sources of evil in the Far East may be eradicated and an enduring peace thereby established. Unhappily, there exists between Our Empire and the League of Nations a wide divergence of view in this regard and it has devolved upon Us to cause Our government to take, upon mature deliberation, the necessary steps for the withdrawal of Our Empire from the League.

"However, the advancement of international peace is what, as evermore, We desire, and Our attitude toward enterprises of peace shall sustain no change. By quitting the League and embarking on a course of its own, Our Empire does not mean that it will stand aloof in the extreme Orient nor that it will isolate itself thereby from the fraternity of nations. It is Our desire to promote mutual confidence between Our Empire and all the other Powers and to make known the justice of its cause throughout the world.

"Every country is overtaken today by emergencies of an unprecedented magnitude. Our Empire itself is confronted by a situation fraught with momentous possibilities. It is indeed an hour that calls for an intensification of effort on the part of Our entire nation. We command that all public servants, whether civil or military, shall faithfully perform each his appointed duty, and that all private citizens shall pursue their wonted tasks with diligence. Stray not, in advancing, from the path of rectitude; and in action, embrace always the golden mean. Strive to meet the present situation with a united will and with courage and resolution. So may ye carry forward the glorious work bequeathed by Our Grandsire and contribute to the prosperity and well-being of Mankind."

Jehol and Tangku Truce

Jehol Expedition The expedition carried out by the joint forces of Manchoukuo and Japan to Jehol to pacify this province of the new nation, and the subsequent truce concluded at Tangku between the hostile Chinese troops and the Japanese expedition on May 31, 1933, practically

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put an end to the long-protracted state of affairs popularly known as the Manchurian Incident.

The Jehol expedition, which was launched following a declaration to this end made by the Manchoukuo Government on February 26, 1933, announcing that it was dispatching without delay necessary forces "to exterminate completely all bandits within and to dislodge all the invading armies from the province," was executed with amazing speed and on March 4 a Japanese contingent occupied Chengte, the capital of the province; a few days later the Japanese troops taking several important positions along the Great Wall.

After having been driven out of the province almost without any resistance, however, the Chinese troops continued hostile operations on the Great Wall positions from the south, and the Japanese forces were obliged to advance south across the Great Wall more than once to destroy the bases of Chinese hostilities.

The Truce In fact, on the second occasion the Japanese advanced within a few miles of Peiping and Tientsin, but they refrained from actually entering these cities, and instead succeeded in inducing the representatives of the Chinese forces to sign a truce on March 31 at Tangku, providing for a demilitarized zone between the Peiping and Tientsin districts and the Great Wall.

After ascertaining the intentions of the Chinese authorities to carry out the terms of the truce, the Japanese forces withdrew to the Great Wall line, true to their repeated declaration that they had no ulterior intention other than to maintain peace in Jehol.

Meanwhile, the Manchoukuo authorities, immediately after the pacification of Jehol, started a constructive programme in the province, readjusting finances and mapping out plans for future industrial and economic development for the provincial people.

Mending of Sino-Japanese Relations

Solution of Pending Questions There are many issues that have been pending between Japan and China since the signing of the Tangku truce pact on May 31, 1933. Because of China's non-recognition of Manchoukuo, Sino-Manchoukuo relations are still officially at a deadlock. Pressed, however, by necessity, the through railway connection problem was solved in June, 1934, as the result of negotiations between Japan and China, and since July 1 of that year the Sino-Manchoukuo International Train Service has been in operation between Mukden and Peiping. This was followed by the Frontier Customs question which was solved in December of that year. By this the trade relations of China and Manchoukuo are going on smoothly. The Sino-Manchoukuo Postal question was also solved and the postal service has been in operation since January 1, 1935.

Exchange of Ambassadors In July, 1924, Japan and China agreed on the exchange of ambassadors between them, but, due to the subsequent internal relations of China, the matter failed to be realized. Sino-Japanese relations assumed a sudden turn for the better since early in 1935. Taking advantage of this situation, Foreign Minister Koki Hirota made a proposal to the Nanking Government for promotion of the Japanese Legation in China to the status of an embassy. Both sides agreed on this. The matter was formally announced in Tokyo and Nanking at the same time on

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May 17. The Japanese Government promoted Mr. Akira Ariyoshi, Minister to China, to Ambassador, and the Chinese Government promoted General Tsiang Tso-pin, Chinese Minister to Tokyo, to Ambassador. At the initiative taken by Japan, both Great Britain and the United States at once promoted their Ministers in China to Ambassadors.

North China Incidents

Causes of the Incidents Infringement of the Tangku truce pact on the Chinese side and violation of an official note exchanged between the Japanese and Chinese Governments regarding the retrocession of Tientsin in 1902 were the real causes of the North China incidents. Sun Yung-chin, bandit chieftain, with his followers, was expelled from Jehol Province by Japan-Manchoukuo combined forces to Shunhua in Hopei Province, where he was given support of a peace preservation corps under General Yu Hsueh-chung, chairman of the Hopei Provincial Government. It was discovered that General Yu supplied him with ammunition and foodstuffs. The Sun banditry, however, was subjugated by the Kwantung Army late in May, 1935. It was also found that General Ho Ying-chin, chairman of the Peiping branch of the National Military Council, had been giving bandits in Manchoukuo certificates of the Northeastern Volunteer Corps. All these were glaring instances of infringement of the Tangku truce pact. Another event that made the North China situation serious was assassination of two pro-Japanese Chinese journalists. On May 3 Mr. Pei Yu-han, president of the Tientsin Hsin Pao, a Chinese daily, and Mr. Hu Ching-pu, president of a Chinese magazine, the Kuo Hsien, were assassinated in the Japanese Concession, in Tientsin, by Chinese terrorists belonging to the Blue Shirt Party and Third Peiping Gendarmery in concert with other similar secret societies. Mr. Pei was an employee of the Japanese army. This was China's violation of the official note regarding the retrocession of Tientsin.

Japan's Notification Colonel Takahashi Sakai, chief-of-staff of the Japanese Garrison in Tientsin, and Major Tan Takahashi, Japanese resident army officer in Peiping, called on General Ho on May 29 and blamed a dual policy of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek towards Japan, pointing out these two anti-Japanese facts. They handed the following demands of Japan to the General Ho:

1. Dismissal of Yu Hsueh-chung who is directly responsible for the incidents and the evacuation of the Central Army of China from Hopei Province.

2. Dismissal of Chang Tingyo, Mayor of Tientsin, and Li Chun-yo, Director of the Tientsin Public Peace Bureau, both directly responsible for the assassination.

The Nanking Government attempted to decline these demands by all means, but, because of a concertedly strong attitude of the Japanese Government, it could not see any way but to entirely accept the Japanese demands. On June 10 the Nanking Government replied that it accepted all what Japan demanded.

Chahar Incident

Soldiers of General Sung Cheyuan, Chairman of the Chahar Provincial Government, illegally arrested officials of the Kwantung Army on June 5, 1935, and incarcerated them at Changpei, north of Kalgan (Changchiakow). On June 11 and 12 his soldiers entered Manchoukuo and opened fires on officials of the Manchoukuo Government. The Kwantung Army instructed Colonel

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Gennosuke Matsui, resident army officer in Kalgan, to demand Chahar Government authorities to make clear their responsibility for the incident. Simultaneously, the Kwantung Army notified the Nanking Government of its firm determination to carry through its object unless the latter expressed its sincerity. This caused the Nanking Government to hold an important conference among leading statesmen of the Executive Yuan on June 18 and to dismiss General Sung Che-yuan from his post as Chairman of the Chahar Provincial Government. The 132nd Division under his command was transferred elsewhere. On June 23 Major-General Kenji Doihara, of the Kwantung Army, met General Chin Te-chun, successor to General Sung, in Peiping, and, as the result of negotiations, the Nanking Government accepted the Japanese demands entirely on June 27. Thus, the North China issues were solved peacefully, promising the development of five North China provinces, namely, Hopei, Chahar, Suiyuan, Shantung and Shansi, to go on steadily through the Sino-Japanese economic co-operation.

Shanghai Lese Majeste Affair

A Chinese weekly magazine Hsin Sheng (New Life), published in Shanghai, printed an article containing lese majeste to the Imperial Court of Japan in its 15th number dated May 4, 1935. A vigorous protest was filed by Consul-General Itaro Ishii in Shanghai with Mayor Wu Te-chen, of Shanghai, against the magazine article on June 24, 1935. As it was found that the censor of magazines in Shanghai was in the hand of the propaganda committee of the headquarters of the Kuomintang and that the responsibility was to be assumed by the Kuomintang, the negotiations were made by Ambassador Akira Ariyoshi with the National Government, Nanking. Mr. Tang Yu-jen, Foreign Vice-Minister of the National Government, issued the following statement:

"That the lese majeste incident broke out is deplorable indeed. To the Japanese nation anything that impairs the dignity of its Imperial Court is absolutely unbearable. Therefore, the Nanking Government recognizes a very serious nature of the matter and is prepared to take possible steps to properly settle it."

Mr. Yeh Su-tsao, presiding member of the Central Propaganda Committee of the Kuomintang, as a man directly responsible for the censorship of the magazine, filed a formal note of apology for the lese majeste affair with Ambassador Ariyoshi on July 8, and at the same time he dismissed six men in charge of the censorship. The headquarters of the Kuomintang also issued instructions to all provincial branches of the party warning them not to make any more allegation of such a sort of propaganda. The Japanese side took the action as reasonable and thus the matter was settled.

Chronological Index of Principal Events

For the convenience of reference a chronological index of principal events in the country's foreign relations is appended:

OPENING OF THE COUNTRY

1853—Arrival of American fleet.
1854—First Japanese-American Treaty.
1856—Arrival of first American civil envoy, Townsend Harris.
1857—Harris concludes convention with the Shogunate.
1858—Japanese-American Commercial Treaty signed.

OCCUPATION OF TSUSHIMA BY RUSSIA

1861—A Russian fleet seizes the island of Tsu-

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shima but abandons it shortly afterwards through the intervention of Great Britain.

BOMBARDMENT OF KAGOSHIMA AND SHIMONOSEKI
1863—A British fleet bombards Kagoshima city.
1864—A combined fleet of Great Britain, the United States, France and the Netherlands bombards Shimonoseki.

IMPERIAL SANCTION OF TREATIES
1865—Treaties with Britain, France, the Netherlands, Russia and the United States are sanctioned by the Emperor.

TREATY REVISION
1871—Prince Iwakura's mission leaves for the United States and Europe.
1882—Count Inouyé's Negotiations with Britain.
1888—Count Okuma's Negotiations.
„ Viscount Aoki's Negotiations.
1894—Revised Anglo-Japanese Treaty signed.
1897—Similar Treaties concluded with other Powers

THE PERUVIAN SLAVE SHIP INCIDENT
1872—Japanese Government seizes Peruvian slaver "Maria Luz" in Yokohama.

EXPEDITION TO TAIWAN
1872—Japan sends a punitive expedition to the island.

EXCHANGE OF SAGHALIEN AND THE KURILE ISLANDS
1875—Japan cedes Saghalien to Russia in exchange for the Kurile Islands.

BONIN ISLAND PROBLEM
1875—The United States recognizes Japan's territorial sovereignty over the Bonin Islands.

CONVENTION OF TIENTSIN
1885—Count Ito and Li Hung-chang sign the convention defining Sino-Japanese relations in Korea.

NON-ALIENATION OF FUKIEN PROVINCE
1889—Japan guarantees the non-alienation of Fukien province from China.

SINO-JAPANESE WAR
1894—Japan declares war.
1895—Treaty of Shimonoseki concluded.

ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE
1902—Alliance signed in London.

RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR
1904—Japan declares war.
1905—Treaty of Portsmouth signed.

JAPANESE-AMERICAN ARBITRATION TREATY
1905—Treaty signed in Washington, D. C. on Feb. 11.

PROTECTORATE OF KOREA
1905—Protectorate convention concluded.

PEKING TREATY
1905—Sino-Japanese convention embodying relevant terms of Portsmouth Treaty signed.

EXCLUSION OF JAPANESE SCHOOL CHILDREN IN CALIFORNIA
1906—Movement is started in California for exclusion of Japanese children from common schools.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AND RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENTS
1907—Franco-Japanese Convention concluded.
1907—Russo-Japanese Agreement concluded.

NEW JAPAN-KOREAN AGREEMENT
1907—New Agreement concluded allowing Japan complete supervision of Korean domestic administration.

IMMIGRATION PROBLEM IN CANADA
1907—Japan exchanges on Dec. 3 a memorandum with Canada in connection with the immigration problem.

U.S.-JAPAN ARBITRATION TREATY
1908—Treaty concluded on Sep. 12.

JAPAN-AMERICAN ACCORD
1908—Official Notes exchanged regarding the preservation of peace in the Far East.

ANTUNG-MUKDEN RAILWAY ISSUE
1909—An agreement is signed on Aug. 15 between Japan and China regarding the Antung-Mukden Railway.

PROPOSAL TO NEUTRALIZE THE SOUTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY
1910—Japan refuses on Jan. 21 to accept the proposal of Secretary of State Knox of the United States regarding neutralization of the South Manchuria Railway.

RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT
1910—A new agreement is concluded on July 4 between Japan and Russia regarding the maintenance of the status quo in Manchuria.

FINAL TREATY REVISION
1910—Japan notifies Great Britain and 10 European countries on July 17 that existing treaties will be revised a year later. On August 4, similar notices are served to France and Austria-Hungary.

ANNEXATION OF KOREA
1910—Treaty of Annexation concluded.

INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT TREATY
1910—Japan signs the International Copyright Treaty in Berlin on September 8.

FRANCO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT REGARDING PATENTS AND COPYRIGHT
1911—An agreement is concluded on May 8, regarding patents and copyright in China.

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NEW ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY
1911—Treaty concluded on the basis of the arbitration treaties between Great Britain and the United States.

PUBLICATION OF THE REVISED TREATIES
1911—The United States publishes revised treaty with Japan on April 5. Great Britain, Spain, and Sweden do likewise on April 6, May 15 and July 13 respectively. Italy, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Canada publish revised treaties with Japan simultaneously on July 15, followed by Germany, Austria-Hungary and France on July 16, August 3, and August 26 respectively.

SETTLEMENT OF RUSSO-JAPANESE INDEMNITIES
1911—The Foreign Office announces that the amounts of the indemnification of private Russian and Japanese subjects for damage done during the Russo-Japanese War have been determined.

RECOGNITION OF THE REPUBLIC OF HUNGARY
1911—Japan accords recognition on September 13.

RUSSO-JAPANESE EXTRADITION CONVENTION
1911—Convention concluded on September 13.

ANTI-JAPANESE ALIEN LAND LAW IN CALIFORNIA
1913—Passage of the so-called Webb Bill.

NANKING INCIDENT
1913—Negotiations regarding the Kuchow, Hankow and Nanking incidents are concluded on October 7, the Chinese accepting all the Japanese demands.

MANCHURIA RAILWAY TREATY
1913—A treaty is concluded between Japan and China regarding the railway building concessions.

RECOGNITION OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC
1913—Japan recognizes the Republic of China on October 6 simultaneously with the election of Yuan Shih-kai as President.

ABOLITION OF FOREIGN SETTLEMENTS IN CHOSEN
1914—The protocol abrogating the foreign settlements in Chosen, signed on April 20 the preceding year, is published.

THE GREAT WAR
1914—Japan declares war on Germany and Austria.

SINO-JAPANESE PARLEYS
1915—The Chinese Government requests Japan on January 3 to delimit the war zone in Shantung and withdraw her troops from that zone. Accordingly, Minister Hioki in Peking holds a conference with Yuan Shih-kai on January 18 to discuss Japan's counter proposals. Japan serves an ultimatum on May 6, and the Chinese Government accepts all the Japanese proposals.

SPANISH-JAPANESE TREATY
1915—Ratifications of a commercial treaty are exchanged on July 10.

ANTI-INDEPENDENT PEACE AGREEMENT
1915—Japan participates on Oct. 19 in the agreement of the Allied powers signed in London prohibiting the signatories from concluding a separate peace with Germany.

WARNING TO CHINA
1915—Anticipating disturbances in connection with the apparent designs of Yuan Shih-kai to revive the Imperial government in China, Japan issues a warning to China on October 28.

PARTICIPATION IN THE ALLIED ECONOMIC CONFERENCE
1916—Baron Yoshio Sakatani leaves for Europe on May 1, to attend the Conference in Paris.

RUSSO-JAPANESE AGREEMENT
1916—The third Russo-Japanese agreement for protection of Japanese and Russian interests in the Far East is signed on July 3.

ISHII-LANSING AGREEMENT
1917—Japan and the United States exchange notes declaring that territorial propinquity creates special relation between countries. This exchange of opinion, published on November 7, is generally known as the Ishii-Lansing Agreement.

SINO-JAPANESE MILITARY ENTENTE
1918—Entente is concluded on May 16, and its text published by the Japanese Foreign Office on May 30.

SIBERIAN EXPEDITION
1918—Japanese participation announced.

DECLARATION OF THE RENDITION OF SHANTUNG
1919—Count Uchida, the Foreign Minister announces the restoration of complete Chinese sovereignty on May 17.

RECOGNITION OF FINLAND
1919—Japan recognizes the independence of the Finnish Republic on May 23.

CONTROL OF THE SIBERIAN RAILWAY
1919—The Siberian Railway Joint Control Conference decides on June 2 to place

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the Ussuri line, 581.1 km. in length, and the Heilungkiang line, 2,785.6 km. in length, under the control of the Japanese experts' department of the Siberian expeditionary forces.

SEQUESTRATION OF GERMAN PROPERTY
1919—An Emergency Imperial Ordinance is issued on June 23 announcing sequestration of German property.

SIGNING OF THE PEACE TREATIES
1919—Prince Kimmochi Saionji signs the Versailles treaties at 3 o'clock in the afternoon of June 28.

PARTICIPATION IN EUROPEAN PROBLEMS
1920—Baron Chinda proposes on March 2 participation in the conference concerning the Dardanelles International Control, but the Japanese proposal is rejected owing to opposition from Great Britain, France and Italy.

DEMAND FOR THE EVACUATION OF SIBERIA
1920—The Soviet Government of Irkutsk sends an ultimatum to Japan on March 11.

NIKOLAEVSK AFFAIR
1920—Attack on Japanese consulate launched.

DECLARATION OF SIBERIAN POLICY
1920—Japanese Government issues statement re withdrawal of troops.

ANTI-JAPANESE IMMIGRATIONS
1920—Revision of regulations by the Immigration Bureau of the United States.

RENEWAL OF THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE
1920—The Japanese and British Governments notify the Secretariat of the League of Nations on July 14, that the duration of the Anglo-Japanese alliance will be extended for another year.

REOPENING OF THE GERMAN EMBASSY IN TOKYO
1920—Dr. Solf arrives in Japan as the first German ambassador after the Great War.

WASHINGTON CONFERENCE
1921—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE GENEVA TRI-PARTITE NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE
1927—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE LONDON NAVAL DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE
1930—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE MANCHURIAN INCIDENT
1931—Outbreak occurs at Mukden.

THE JAPAN-MANCHOUKUO PROTOCOL
1932—Protocol signed whereby Japan extends *de jure* recognition to the new State.

THE WORLD ECONOMIC CONFERENCE
1933—Conference opens with Japan participating.

THE JAPAN-INDIA TRADE CONFERENCE
1933—Conference held at Simla and New Delhi, India.
1934—New treaty signed at London, on July 12.

MANCHOUKUO ESTABLISHED,
1934—The New State was proclaimed "Empire" and Mr. Pu-yi endorsed as Emperor. March 1,

THE JAPAN-BRITAIN TRADE CONFERENCE
1934—Conference adjourned on March 14 in failure.

THE JAPAN-DUTCH CONFERENCE
1934—Conference opened at Batavia on June 8 which adjourned on December 21 indefinitely.

TRANSFERENCE OF NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY
1935—Transference of North Manchuria Railway by the U.S.S.R. to Manchoukuo formally signed at Tokyo on March 23.

JAPAN'S WITHDRAWAL FROM THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS
1935—Becomes completely effective on March 26.

THE VISIT OF THE EMPEROR OF MANCHOUKUO
1935—The Emperor of Manchoukuo visits Japan and makes a formal call upon the Emperor of Japan on April 6.

SETTLEMENT OF NORTH-CHINA INCIDENT
1935—All demands of the Japanese garrison at Tientsin on various problems occurred in North China accepted by the Nanking Government.

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List of the Envoys to and from Foreign Countries

JAPANESE ENVOYS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES

(August 1, 1935)

Country	Representative	Address
Great Britain	Tsuneo Matsudaira, Ambassador (absent)	Embassy of Japan,
,,	Keinosuke Fujii, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	37 Portman Square, London, W.I. England
,,	Shinjiro Matsuyama, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 1 Broad Street Place, Finsbury, Circus, London, E.C. 2, England
France	Naotaké Sato, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 24 rue Greuze, Paris, (16°) France
Germany	Viscount Kintomo Mushakōji, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Berlin W. 62, Ahornstr., 1, Allemagne
,,	Sentaro Edo	Consulat Général du Japon, Hamburg 1, Alsterdamm, 39, (Europahaus) Allemagne
Italy	Dr. Yotaro Sugimura, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Viale Regina Magherita, 260, Rome, Italie
Belgium	Hachiro Arita, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 1 Boulevard Général Jacques, Ixelles, Bruxelles, Belgique
The U.S.S.R.	Tamekichi Ohta, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Malaya Nikitskaya, 13, Moscou, U.R.S.S.
,,	Riyé Watanabé, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 24 Pekinskaya Ulitsa, Vladivostok, U.R.S.S.
,,	Seishuku Ogata, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 3 Ulitsa Imeni Dzerzinskavo, Alexandrovsk-Sakhalinsky, Sakhalin, U.R.S.S.
,,	Masaharu Shimada, Consul-General	Consulat Général du Japon, 54 Komsomolskaya Ulitsa, Habarovsk, U.R.S.S.
Turkey	Iyemasa Tokugawa, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, Ayaz Pacha 77, Péra, Stamboul, Turquie
Manchoukuo	General Jiro Minami, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, Hsinging
,,	Shoshiro Sato, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Harbin
,,	Hiroshi Kawamura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Hsinking
,,	Shohei Morioka, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tiehling
,,	Kiyoshi Nagai, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Chientao
,,	Uzuhiko Usami, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Mukden
The U.S.A.	Hiroshi Saito, Ambassador	Embassy of Japan, 2514 Massachusette Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C., U.S.A.

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Country	Representative	Address
The U.S.A.	Teijiro Tamura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 1742 Nuuanu Avenue, Honolulu, T.H., U.S.A.
,,	Shū Tomii, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Postal Telegraph Bldg., 22 Battery St., San Francisco Cal., U.S.A.
,,	Renzo Sawada, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 90 Broad St., New York City, N.Y., U.S.A.
Brazil	Setsuzo Sawada, Ambassador	Ambassade du Japon, 75 Rua dos Voluntarios da Patria, Rio de Janeiro, Brésil
,,	Kozo Ichige, Consul-General	Consulat-Général du Japon, Avenida Brigadeiro Luix Antonio 83, São Paulo, Brésil
China	Akira Ariyoshi, Ambassador	Chancellery of the Embassy, Shanghai
,,	Shigeru Kawagoé, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Tientsin
,,	Junzo Sakané, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tsingtao
,,	Koichi Nishida, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Tsinan
,,	Itaro Ishii, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Shanghai
,,	Yakichiro Suma, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Nanking
,,	Yaoichi Simizu, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Hankow
,,	Toyoichi Nakamura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Fuchow
,,	Tatsuo Kato, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Canton
,,	Kosaku Mizusawa, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulate-General of Japan, Prince's Bldg., 5, Ice House St., Hong Kong
Switzerland	Masaaki Hotta, Minister	Légation du Japon, 95 Thunstrasse, Berne, Suisse
,,	Masayuki Yokoyama, Consul-General	Consulat-Général du Japon, 39, Quai, W. Wilson, Genève, Suisse
Spain	Arata Aoki, Minister	Légation du Japon, Calle de Alcalá 87, Madrid, Espagne
Portugal	Akio Kasama, Minister (on furlough) Taneki Kumabé, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Praca do Rio de Jeneiro 14, Lisboa, Portugal
Holland	Toshihiko Taketomi, Minister	Légation du Japon, 1 Guliana van Stolberglaan, Den Haag, Pays-Bas
Sweden	Toshio Shiratori, Minister	Légation du Japon, 25 Strandvägen, Stockholm, Suède
Finland	Hikotaro Ichikawa, Chargé d'Affaires	Légation du Japon, 11, B, Parkgatan, Helsingfors, Finlande

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Country	Representative	Address
Latvia	Shin Sakuma, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Tura Alunana iela 2, dz 2. Riga, Lettonie
Poland	Nobubumi Itō, Minister	Légation du Japon, Foksal 10, Varsovie, Pologne
Czechoslovakia	Noboru Ogawa, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, Palace "Fenix," č 60-62, Václavaské Náměsti, Praha-11 Tchécoslovaquie
Austria	Naokichi Matsunaga, Minister (on furlough)	Légation du Japon,
	Tsutomu Suwa, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Wien III, Kölbigasse 1, Autriche
Rumania	Yeisuké Fujita, Minister	Légation du Japon, Str. G.G. Cantacuzino 33, Bucarest, Roumanie
Greece	Shigetomo Sayegusa, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Légation du Japon, 23 Avenue de la Reine Sophie, Athènes, Grèce
Persia	Takezo Okamoto, Minister	Légation du Japon, Avenue Pahlavi, Téhéran, Perse
Siam	Yasukichi Yatabé, Minister	Legation of Japan, 545 Rajaprarob Road, Makasan, Bangkok, Siam
Canada	Sotomatsu Kato (absent), Minister	Legation of Japan,
	Itsuo Goto, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Victoria Bldg., 140 Wellington St., Ottawa, Ontario, Canada
Mexico	Yoshiatsu Hori, Minister	Légation du Japon, Avenida de Los Insurgentes, 190. Colonia, Roma, México, D.F., Mexique
"	Nooya Nagaminé, Chargé d'Affaires	Consulat-Général du Japon, Avenida de Los Insurgentes, 190, Colonia, Homa, México, D.F., Mexique
Peru	Yoshiatsu Murakami, Minister	Légation du Japon, Avenida Arequipa 610, Lima, Pérou
Chile	Makoto Yano, Minister	Légation du Japon 552 Calle Dieciocho, Santiago, Chili
Argentine	Jiro Yamazaki, Minister	Légation du Japon, Calle Reconquista 336, Buenos Aires, Argentine
Afganistan	Masamoto Kitada, Minister	Légation du Japon Kaboul, Afganistan
Cuba	Hiroshi Saito, Minister	Legation du Japon Avenida de Bélgica entre Avenida de los Aliados y Victoria, Altula de Almendares, Habana, Cuba
Colombia	Yoshio Iwaté, Minister	Legation du Japon Edificio de Banco de la Republica, Bogota, Columbie
Singapore	Kiichi Gunji, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Union Bldg., Collyer Quay, Singapore, Straits Settlements
Philippines	Atsushi Kimura, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, G. de Las Reyes Bldg., Plaza Cervantes, Manila, P.I.

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Country	Representative	Address
Dutch East Indies	Saichiro Koshida, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, 3 Gang Scott, Batavia-Centrum, Java
British India	Tetsuichiro Miyaké, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Royal Insurance Bldg., 26/27, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta, British India
French Indo-China	Ushio Munemura	Consulat-Général du Japon, 76 Boulevard Carnot, Hanoi, Tonkin, Indochine
Egypt	Tokuji Amagi, Consul-General	Consulat-Général du Japon, 7 Rue Nébi Daniel, Alexandrie, Egypte
Australia	Kuramatsu Murai, Consul-General	Consulate-General of Japan, Grace Bldg., 77 York St., Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

FOREIGN ENVOYS TO JAPAN

(July 10, 1935)

Country	Representative	Address in Tokyo
Afghanistan	Habibullah Khan Tarzi, Minister	25 Mikawa-daimachi, Azabu-ku
Germany	Dr. Herbert von Dirksen, Ambassador	14, 1-chomé, Nagatacho, Kojimachi-ku
The U.S.A.	Joseph Clark Grew, Ambassador	1 Enokizaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Argentine	Arturo Alvarez Montenegro, Charge d'Affaires	67 Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Belgium	Le Baron de Bassompierre, Ambassador	33 Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Brazil	Carlos Martins Pereira e Sousa, Ambassador	2, 3-chomé, Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku
Canada	Herbert Marler, Minister	16, 3-chomé, Omoté-cho, Akasaka-ku
Chile	Sergio Montt, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	7, 1-chomé, Shirokané Dai-machi, Shiba-ku
China	General Tsiang Tso-Ping, Ambassador	14, 6-chomé, Iigura-machi, Azabu-ku
Colombia	Dr. Domingo Esguerra, Minister	Hotel Imperial
Cuba	Dr. Américo Cruz y Fernández, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	11 Shinryudo-cho, Azabu-ku
Denmark	Hugo Hergel, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	8 Marunouchi, Nakadori
Spain	Santiago Méndez de Vigo, Minister	2, 1-chomé, Ichibei-cho, Azabu-ku
Finland	Hugo Valvanne, Minister	62 Tansu-machi, Azabu-ku
France	Fernand Pila, Ambassador	33 Fujimi-cho, Azabu-ku
Great Britain	Sir Robert Clive, Ambassador	1 Goban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Iran	Mirza Bagher Khan Azimi, Minister	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Italy	Giacinto Auriti, Ambassador	28, 1-chomé, Mita, Shiba-ku
Manchoukuo	Hsieh Chieh-Shin, Ambassador	50 Sakurada-cho, Azabu-ku
Mexico	Général Francisco J. Aguilar	21, 2-chomé, Nagata-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Norway	Ludvig Cæsar Martin Aubert, Minister	2, 3-chomé, Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku
Holland	General J.C. Pabst, Minister	1 Sakaé-cho, Shiba-ku
Peru	Jorge Bailey Lembcke, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	13 Shinsaka-machi, Akasaka-ku
Persia	Hassan Ali Khan Kamal Hedayat, Minister	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku

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Country	Representative	Address in Tokyo
Poland	Michel Mościcki, Minister	8 Hiroo-cho, Azabu-ku
Portugal	Dr. Thomaz Ribeiro de Mello, Minister	1 Sannen-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Rumania	Georges G. Stoïcesco, Chargé d'Affaires	55 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Siam	Phra Mitrakarm Raksha, Minister	2 Dai-machi, Akasaka-ku
Sweden	Dr. J.E. Hultman, Minister	63 Zaimoku-cho, Azabu-ku
Switzerland	Walter Thurnheer, Minister	1 Shimoniban-cho, Kojimachi-ku
Czechoslovakia	Frantivsek Havliček, Minister	22 Kasumi-cho, Azabu-ku
Turkey	Nébil Bey, Chargé d'Affaires	47 Kamiyama-cho, Shibuya-ku
The U.S.S.R.	Constantin Youreneff, Ambassador	1 Mamiana-cho, Azabu-ku
Uruguay	Eduardo Daniel de Arteaga, Chargé d'Affaires (ad interim)	Rooms Nos. 251-252, Osaka Building, 3, 1-chomé, Uchi-saiwai-cho, Kojimachi-ku

Japanese consulates are established in the following places :

Country	Situation of Consulates
Canada	Ottawa, Vancouver
Great Britain	Liverpool
France	Lyons, Marseilles
Italy	Milan
Belgium	Antwerp
Sweden	Stockholm
U. S. S. R.	Blagovestchensk
U. S. S. R.	Odessa
U. S. S. R.	Novo-Sivirsk
U. S. S. R.	Petropavlovsk
Manchoukuo	Manchuli
Manchoukuo	Tsitsihar
Manchoukuo	Chinchow
Manchoukuo	Antung
Manchoukuo	Chengchiatun
Manchoukuo	Hailoerh
Manchoukuo	Yingkou
Manchoukuo	Chifeng
Manchoukuo	Chengte
China	Chang Kiakou
China	Chefoo
China	Hangchow
China	Soochow
China	Wuhu
China	Chengchow
China	Kiukiang
China	Ichang
China	Shashi
China	Changsha
China	Chungking
China	Amoy
China	Swatow
China	Yunnan
Cochin China	Saigon
Siam	Bangkok
Burma	Rangoon
Java	Sourabaya
Sumatra	Medan
India	Bombay
Ceylon	Colombo
Philippines	Davao
Egypt	Port Said
Union of South Africa	Cape Town
British East Africa	Mombasa
U. S. A.	Los Angeles
U. S. A.	Portland
U. S. A.	Chicago
U. S. A.	Seattle
U. S. A.	New Orleans
Cuba	Havana
Panama	Panama
Mexico	Mazatlan
Argentine	Buenos Aires
Peru	Lima
Brazil	São Paulo
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro

The following foreign consulates are registered.

Country	Situation of Consulates
Germany	Yokohama, Kobé, Dairen, Osaka.
Argentine	Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagoya, Tokyo.
Austria	Tokyo.
Belgium	Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Keijo, Dairen, Osaka.
Bolivia	Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé.
Brazil	Kobé, Yokohama, Nagasaki.
Chile	Yokohama, Kobé.
China	Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Fusan, Gensan, Taihoku, Keijo, Shingishu.
Colombia	Yokohama.
Cuba	Kobé.
Denmark	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Osaka.
Spain	Yokohama, Kobé, Tansui.
U. S. A.	Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kobé, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Keijo, Dairen.
France	Yokohama, Kobé, Dairen, Nagasaki, Tansui, Keijo.

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Country	Situation of Consulates
Great Britain	Tokyo, Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki, Tansui, Keijo, Dairen, Jinsen, Hakodate, Fukuoka, Otaru.
Finland	Kobé, Yokohama, Dairen.
Greece	Yokohama, Kobé.
Italy	Kobé, Yokohama, Nagasaki, Keijo.
Mexico	Yokohama, Kobé.
Norway	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki.
Holland	Tokyo, Nagoya, Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, Taihoku, Keijo, Dairen.
Panama	Yokohama.
Peru	Yokohama, Kobé.
Portugal	Tokyo, Kobé, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka, Moji, Shimonoseki, Nagasaki.
U. S. S. R.	Kobé, Hakodate, Keijo, Otaru, Tsuruga, Dairen, Tokyo.
Sweden	Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Moji, Nagasaki, Dairen.
Switzerland	Tokyo.
Venezuela	Kobé, Tokyo, Yokohama.
Poland	Osaka, Tokyo.
Czechoslovakia	Yokohama, Tokyo, Osaka.
Siam	Osaka.
Honduras	Tokyo, Kobé, Yokohama.
Salvador	Tokyo.
Latvia	Tokyo.
Dominica	Kobé.
Guatemala	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé.
Turkey	Osaka, Yokohama.
Uruguay	Kobé, Yokohama.
Rumania	Osaka.
Luxemburg	Tokyo.
Egypt	Kobé.
Yugoslavia	Osaka.
Haiti	Osaka.

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CHAPTER VII

NATIONAL DEFENCE

The Imperial Precepts to The Soldiers and Sailors

The forces of Our Empire are in all ages under the command of the Emperor. It is more than twenty-five centuries since the Emperor Jimmu, leading in person the soldiers of the Otomo and Mononobé clans, subjugated the unruly tribes of the land and ascended the Imperial Throne to rule over the whole country. During this period the military system has undergone frequent changes in accordance with those in the state of society. In ancient times the rule was that the Emperor should take personal command of the forces; and although the military authority was sometimes delegated to the Empress or to the Prince Imperial, it was scarcely ever entrusted to a subject. In the middle ages, when the civil and military institutions were framed after the Chinese model, the Six Guards were founded, the Right and Left Horse Bureaux established, and other organizations, such as that of the Coast Guards, created. The military system was thus completed, but, habituated to a prolonged state of peace, the Imperial Court gradually lost its administrative vigour; in course of time soldiers and farmers became distinct classes, and the early conscription system was replaced by an organization of volunteers, which finally produced the military class. The military power passed over entirely to the leaders of this class; through disturbances in the Empire the political power also fell into their hands; and for about seven centuries the military families held sway. Although these results followed from changes in the state of society and were beyond human control, they were deeply to be deplored, since they were contrary to the fundamental character of Our Empire and to the law of Our Imperial Ancestors. Later on, in the eras of Kokwa and Kaei, the decline of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the new aspect of foreign relations even threatened to impair our national dignity, causing no small anxiety to Our August Grandfather, the Emperor Ninko, and Our August Father, the Emperor Komei, a fact which We recall with awe and gratitude. When in youth We succeeded to the Imperial Throne, the Shogun returned into Our hands the administrative power, and all the feudal lords their fiefs; thus, in a few years, Our entire realm was unified and the ancient régime restored. Due as this was to the meritorious services of Our loyal officers and wise councillors, civil and military, and to the abiding influence of Our Ancestors' benevolence towards the people, yet it must also be attributed to Our subjects' true sense of loyalty and their conviction of the importance of "Great Righteousness." In consideration of these things, being desirous of reconstructing Our military system and of enhancing the glory of Our Empire, We have in the course of the last fifteen years established the present system of the Army and Navy. The supreme command of Our forces is in Our hands, and although We may entrust subordinate

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commands to Our subjects, yet the ultimate authority We Ourself shall hold and never delegate to any subject. It is Our will that this principle be carefully handed down to posterity and that the Emperor always retain the supreme civil and military power, so that the disgrace of the middle and succeeding ages may never be repeated. Soldiers and Sailors, We are your supreme Commander-in-Chief. Our relations with you will be most intimate when We rely upon you as Our limbs and you look up to Us as your head. Whether We are able to guard the Empire, and so prove Ourself worthy of Heaven's blessings and repay the benevolence of Our Ancestors, depends upon the faithful discharge of your duties as soldiers and sailors. If the majesty and power of Our Empire be impaired, do you share with Us the sorrow; if the glory of Our arms shine resplendent, We will share with you the honour. If you all do your duty, and being one with Us in spirit do your utmost for the protection of the state, Our people will long enjoy the blessings of peace, and the might and dignity of our Empire will shine in the world. As We thus expect much of you, Soldiers and Sailors, We give you the following precepts :—

(1) The soldier and the sailor should consider loyalty their essential duty. Who that is born in this land can be wanting in the spirit of grateful service to it? No soldier or sailor, especially, can be considered efficient unless this spirit be strong within him. A soldier or a sailor in whom this spirit is not strong, however skilled in art or proficient in science, is a mere puppet; and a body of soldiers or sailors wanting in loyalty, however well ordered and disciplined it may be, is in an emergency no better than a rabble. Remember that, as the protection of the state and the maintenance of its power depend upon the strength of its arms, the growth or decline of this strength must affect the nation's destiny for good or for evil; therefore neither be led astray by current opinions nor meddle in politics, but with single heart fulfil your essential duty of loyalty, and bear in mind that duty is weightier than a mountain, while death is lighter than a feather. Never by failing in moral principle fall into disgrace and bring dishonour upon your name.

(2) The soldier and the sailor should be strict in observing propriety. Soldiers and sailors are organized in grades, from the Marshal and the Admiral of the Fleet down to the private soldier or ordinary seaman; and even within the same rank and grade there are differences in seniority of service according to which juniors should submit to their seniors. Inferiors should regard the orders of their superiors as issuing directly from Us. Always pay due respect not only to your superiors but also to your seniors, even though not serving under them. On the other hand, superiors should never treat their inferiors with contempt or arrogance. Except when official duty requires them to be strict and severe, superiors should treat their inferiors with consideration, making kindness their chief aim, so that all grades may unite in their service to the Emperor. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, neglect to observe propriety, treating your superiors with disrespect and your inferiors with harshness, and thus cause harmonious co-operation to be lost, you will not only be a blight upon the forces but also be unpardonable offenders against the state.

(3) The soldier and the sailor should esteem valour. Ever since the ancient times valour has in our

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country been held in high esteem, and without it Our subjects would be unworthy of their name. How then may the soldier and the sailor, whose profession it is to confront the enemy in battle, forget even for one instant to be valiant? But there is true valour and false. To be incited by mere impetuosity to violent action cannot be called true valour. The soldier and the sailor should have sound discrimination of right and wrong, cultivate self-possession, and form their plans with deliberation. Never to despise an inferior enemy or fear a superior, but to do one's duty as soldier or sailor—this is true valour. Those who thus appreciate true valour should in their daily intercourse set gentleness first and aim to win the love and esteem of others. If you affect valour and act with violence, the world will in the end detest you and look upon you as wild beasts. Of this you should take heed.

(4) The soldier and the sailor should highly value faithfulness and righteousness. Faithfulness and righteousness are the ordinary duties of man, but the soldier and the sailor, in particular, cannot be without them and remain in the ranks even for a day. Faithfulness implies the keeping of one's word, and righteousness the fulfilment of one's duty. If then you wish to be faithful and righteous in any thing, you must carefully consider at the outset whether you can accomplish it or not. If you thoughtlessly agree to do something that is vague in its nature and bind yourself to unwise obligations, and then try to prove yourself faithful and righteous, you may find yourself in great straits from which there is no escape. In such cases your regrets will be of no avail. Hence you must first make sure whether the thing is righteous and reasonable or not. If you are convinced that you cannot possibly keep your word and maintain righteousness, you had better abandon your engagement at once. Ever since the ancient times there have been repeated instances of great men and heroes who, overwhelmed by misfortune, have perished and left a tarnished name to posterity, simply because in their effort to be faithful in small matters they failed to discern right and wrong with reference to fundamental principles, or because, losing sight of the true path of public duty, they kept faith in private relations. You should, then, take serious warning by these examples.

(5) The soldier and the sailor should make simplicity their aim. If you do not make simplicity your aim, you will become effeminate and frivolous and acquire fondness for luxurious and extravagant ways; you will finally grow selfish and sordid and sink to the last degree of baseness, so that neither loyalty nor valour will avail to save you from the contempt of the world. It is not too much to say that you will thus fall into a life-long misfortune. If such an evil once makes its appearance among soldiers and sailors, it will certainly spread like an epidemic, and martial spirit and morale will instantly decline. Although, being greatly concerned on this point, We lately issued the Disciplinary Regulations and warned you against this evil, nevertheless, being harassed with anxiety lest it should break out, We hereby reiterate Our warning. Never do you, Soldiers and Sailors, make light of this injunction.

These five articles should not be disregarded even for a moment by soldiers and sailors. Now for putting them into practice, the all important is sincerity. These five articles are the soul of Our soldiers

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and sailors, and sincerity is the soul of these articles. If the heart be not sincere, words and deeds, however good, are all mere outward show and can avail nothing. If only the heart be sincere, anything can be accomplished. Moreover, these five articles are the Grand Way of Heaven and Earth and the universal law of humanity, easy to observe and to practise. If you, Soldiers and Sailors, in obedience to Our instruction, will observe and practise these principles and fulfil your duty of grateful service to the country, it will be a source of joy, not to Ourself alone, but to all people of Japan.

The 4th day of the 1st month of
the 15th Year of Meiji.
(Imperial Sign Manual)

General

Special Position of Army and Navy The Japanese Army and Navy are under the direct command of the Emperor and neither the Government nor the Diet has any right to interfere in the strategic actions or the number of men or ships to be maintained. In making any decision on military and naval strength or the organization thereof, the Emperor consults the Chiefs of the respective General Staffs, who are thereupon required to submit their plans direct to His Majesty. The plans are then handed to the Prime Minister, who in his turn consults the Diet as to the necessary appropriations. Thus the Diet, while powerless to interfere with the actual naval and military projects, is entitled to determine the amount to be appropriated for their execution. If, however, the Service estimates are reduced in such a way as to render the original projects impossible of execution, this is deemed to be an infringement of the Imperial Prerogative under Article XII of the Constitution.

The Board of Field Marshals and Fleet Admirals This Board was created in 1898 as the Emperor's highest advisory body on military and naval affairs. Its members are at present as follows :

Field Marshal H. I. H. Prince Kan-in; Field Marshal H. I. H. Prince Nashimoto; Fleet Admiral H. I. H. Prince Fushimi.

The High Military Council This is a larger advisory body which was created in 1887. Its membership includes, in addition to that of the above-mentioned Board, the Ministers of War and Marine, the Chiefs of the Naval and Military General Staffs and other generals and admirals specially nominated by the Emperor. Its functions are to advise the Emperor on all matters appertaining to war, especially on the correlation of the various departments of military administration, in the broader sense of the word. The Council may meet in sections to deliberate and tender advice on issues concerning the Army or Navy separately.

Present members specially nominated by the Emperor are :

Admiral	Kanji Kato
Admiral	Eisuké Yamamoto
General	Jotaro Watanabé
Admiral	Seizo Kobayashi
Admiral	Kichisaburo Nomura
General	Jinzaburo Masaki
General	Nobuyuki Abé
General	Sadao Araki
Admiral	Ryozo Nakamura
Admiral	Osami Nagano
General	Yoshiyuki Kawashima

Conscription The conscription system, first introduced in 1873 and last revised in 1927, demands that all able-bodied citizens of Japan proper between the ages 17 and 40 shall serve either in the army or the navy, when called upon. At present the natives of Taiwan, Chosen, and the South Sea Islands are

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exempt from service. In fact, however, the general principle has never been applied, even during the Russo-Japanese War, the conflict having come to an end before the greater majority of those on the second reserve were called to the colours.

The service is divided as follows :-

(1) Jobi hei-eki (standing service). This is of two kinds: (a) Geneki (active service), 2 years for the army and 3 years for the navy; (b) Yobi-eki (1st reserve service), 5 years and 4 months for the army and 4 years for the navy.

(2) Kobi hei-eki (2nd reserve service), 10 years for the army and 5 years for the navy.

(3) Hoju hei-eki (replenishment reserve service). This is divided into two categories :—(a) 1st replenishment reserve service, 2 years and 4 months for the army and 1 year for the navy, (b) 2nd replenishment reserve service, 12 years and 4 months for the army and 11 years and 4 months for the navy.

(4) Kokumin hei-eki (national service), extending in principle for the necessary period in either arm for the man to reach the age of 40.

Men are subjected to medical examination for conscription at the age of 20, and are classed as follows :

Class I ; Class II, A, Class II, B ; Class III ; Class IV ; and Class V. They are then allocated to the various categories of service according to their medical class as follows :

Medical Class	Description	Service to which Allocated
I, II, A and B	Fit for active service.	Active service or replenishment reserve.
III	Fit for national service, but not for active service.	National service
IV	Unfit for any service.	Exempt from all service.
V	Nature of fitness undecided (may be included in Class I or Class II, A or B, in the following year).	Allocation postponed

They are then drafted to different branches of service according to the districts to which they belong and their ability and occupation.

Those who are fit for active service (Class I, Class II, A and B) are enrolled by lottery, at each conscription district, for active service or 1st or 2nd replenishment reserve. (Volunteer enrolments for active service are accepted.) Those having finished the period of active service are placed on the 1st reserve list for terms as stated above. At the end of such terms they are removed to the 2nd reserve, and then finally to the national service. Those who have gone through the period of replenishment reserve service are also transferred to the national service.

Sole supporters of families, and criminals sentenced to over 6 years' imprisonment or penal servitude are also exempt from service. Those studying at certain schools, Government or private, which are recognized to be of equivalent or superior status to that of middle schools are exempt from conscription examination until the completion of their studies or until they attain their 27th year. Those staying abroad enjoy postponement of service under similar conditions, the age limit being 37.

By virtue of a revision of the conscription law in 1927, the active service of conscripts who have finished the course of a Seinen Kunrenjo (Young Men's Training Institute) is reduced by six months, while

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that of the graduates from normal schools by nineteen months. In other words, the former have to serve only eighteen months and the latter only five months, instead of full two years. A similar system of short term active service has also been adopted by the Navy.

The term of active service for graduates of middle schools and higher grade schools who have received full disciplinary training while at school and passed the final examination thereof is reduced to 12 months.

The conscription examination of such students is postponed till they reach the age of full 27 years.

After 3 months' active service they may be chosen as cadets and get special training for the remaining 9 months. They may be promoted, according to abilitity, to either corporals or second lieutenants in the first reserve service at or after the expiration of active service. From among the graduates of technical or scientific demartments of universities cadets may be chosen to supply technical officers of artillery, engineer and air forces.

Examination for Conscription According to medical examination, conscripts are classified into six grades as mentioned above. The figures for the past six years, 1928-1934, were as follows :

	Total Number Examined	Class I	Class II A	Class II B	Class III	Class IV	Class V
1928	568,796	171,744	64,970	119,783	171,758	39,861	680
1929	585,819	175,979	69,372	119,721	178,790	41,075	882
1930	595,505	174,482	69,275	121,961	187,863	40,989	938
1931	619,146	178,355	72,617	124,942	200,268	42,245	724
1932	621,844	174,282	71,556	125,938	207,401	41,951	716
1933	631,099	178,994	72,796	132,681	205,777	40,141	710
1934	641,969	185,482	72,979	135,275	206,810	40,822	651

Statistics on height and weight ascertained through the medical examinations for recent 7 years, 1928-1934, are as follows :

	Average Height	Average Weight
1928	1.596 m.	52.639 kg.
1929	1.602 m.	52.823 kg.
1930	1.598 m.	52.727 kg.
1931	1.600 m.	53.007 kg.
1932	1.600 m.	52.841 kg.
1933	1.602 m.	52.816 kg.
1934	1.603 m.	52.994 kg.

The grades of education attained by men examined for conscription in recent 7 years, 1928-1934, were :

	University	Higher School	Middle School	Higher Elementary School	Elementary School	Elementary School (Unfinished)	Uneducated
1928	81	1,209	43,309	266,611	209,413	42,200	5,973
1929	143	3,589	50,684	284,081	205,862	36,408	5,553
1930	493	7,303	65,944	296,829	197,312	31,812	4,812
1931	1,721	11,406	65,698	313,628	192,772	28,913	5,009
1932	3,741	13,188	69,147	324,204	182,064	25,323	4,177
1933	6,616	15,049	70,422	339,677	174,024	21,634	3,677
1934	9,031	16,467	72,622	356,135	165,240	18,802	3,672

Of those listed above as uneducated 3,463 for 1928, 3,045 for 1929, 2,873 for 1930, 3,090 for 1931, 2,543 for 1932, 2,268 for 1933 and 2,433 for 1934 were illiterates. The ratio of illiteracy, which was 4.28 per cent. in 1903, 3.44 in 1911 and 2.17 in 1915, has been decreasing steadily, being 0.88 in 1925, 0.70 in 1927, 0.61 in 1928 and 0.38 in 1934.

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Conscripts and Leave of Absence Conscripts may return home to attend to family business for periods varying with the necessity of the case, but in no case exceeding 14 days. This departure from the general rule was proposed in 1919 to meet the convenience of the families of conscripts and was carried into effect at once.

Courts-Martial The Court-Martial Law provides that (1) all offences committed by officers and men shall be given public trial, (2) accused persons shall be given the benefit of counsel in their defence. Provision is also made for appeal.

The Army has eight courts-martial, namely, the High, the Divisional and six other temporary ones; the Navy has seven, the High, the Tokyo, the Admiralty and four other temporary ones. Courts-martial are always composed of judges (military or naval officers), law officials (civil) and clerks. The number of these varies in accordance with the nature of the court in question.

Gendarmerie The gendarmerie is under the control of the War Minister and mainly takes charge of military police, although it may assist civil or judicial police. Orders may, therefore, come from Ministers of Home Affairs and Justice. As military police its function is to see military laws and order kept. Guarding of military secrets, policing of fortress districts and naval stations, enforcement of laws concerning conscription, active service, calling out of the reserve, enforcing levy and martial laws, general surveillance of military discipline, and keeping order in war districts; there things come under its administrative responsibility. The searching and detection of crimes among military men, the collection of evidences and the arrest of culprits come under its judicial responsibility. The number of gendarmes is: Japan proper 1,450, Korea 490, Manchuria 190, and Formosa 90.

Improvement in 1933

Conscription Districts The number of country districts divided for the purpose of conscription was lessened from 677 to 431. This was made so as to enlarge the area of each district and thus eliminate the chance of missing good material available. As to the re-arrangement of the city districts studies are being carried on.

School Graduate Cadets Graduates from middle schools and colleges are accorded special treatment of a short-term active service as stated above. The improvements effected by the Imperial Ordinance No. 71, April, 1933, on this point are as follows: (1) The abolition of the special fee, (2) the abolition of special treatment which they used to receive and the substitution for it by the system under which they are taken as usual soldiers first and, after three months, are chosen cadets according to their records, (3) the abolition of distinction of treatment given with graduates of middle schools and those of colleges, by which 12 months' service for the former and 10 months' for the latter was mergered into a uniform 12 months' service, and (4) choice of cadets for engineering and technical service from graduates of scientific and technical colleges.

Juvenile Flying Students By the revision of Flying School rules juveniles are allowed to enter the Tokorozawa Flying School. Applicants for the pilotting course must be boys of 17 to 19 of age, while boys from 15 to 19 are admitted to the engineering course.

Flying School One more flying school was established at Hamamatsu, Shizuoka prefecture, its spe-

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cialities being studies in explosives, bombs, bombing, etc.

Juvenile Students of Communications Boys 15 to 18 are admitted into the Army Signallers' School to become non-commissioned engineering officers for wireless communications. The course of studies extend over 2 years.

Narashino Military School As an item of scientific improvement programme of the Army, the Narashino Military School was opened on August 1, 1933, at Narashino, Chiba prefecture. The underlying purposes are the studies of and education in military science related to modern fighting. Students are taken from all officers except those of the gendarmerie.

Volunteer Active Service A new system of taking reserve officers into active service as volunteers was instituted in February, 1933. The term of service extends over 2 years, renewable every year on expiration, until the volunteers reach the age of 40 (42 in the case of university graduates and 45 in engineers). The volunteers must be first and second lieutenants or ranking officers under 30 (32 in the case of university graduates and 35 in engineers). The number taken in 1933 was 890.

The Army

Outline History The Army under the Imperial régime was organized for the first time in the fourth year of Meiji (1871), when the samurai of the Kagoshima, Kochi and Yamaguchi clans formed an Imperial Bodyguard consisting of a few battalions, and four regular army divisions were established in Tokyo, Osaka, Kumamoto and Sendai. In January, 1873, the Government adopted a conscription system, by which members of all social classes were held equally liable for military service. The divisions in Nagoya and Hiroshima, which were established that year, were the first fighting units in this country to contain members of the farmer, merchant and other non-samurai classes. The total strength of the Japanese Army at that time was seven divisions consisting of about 36,600 men on peace standing and 46,250 on a war footing.

The number of soldiers to be mobilized was steadily increased after the Saigo Rebellion of 1877, but it was with this "cadre" of seven divisions that Japan defeated China in 1894-5. In the ten years following the Japan-China War, six more divisions were established with the result that Japan was able to put nearly one million men in the field during the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5.

In 1922 Japan's Army strength reached twenty-one divisions consisting of 308,000 men on peace standing. The peaceful atmosphere in world affairs after the European War and the national financial condition made it necessary for Japan to reduce the army, and as the result of a readjustment effected between 1922 and 1924, a reduction of 1,800 officers, 56,000 men and 13,000 horses was made. This corresponds to a reduction of about five divisions on peace standing. In May, 1925, four more divisions (the 13th, 15th, 17th and 18th) were abolished, and the present strength of the Japanese Army is 17 divisions and about 230,000 men on peace standing, inclusive of the Taiwan and Kwantung Armies.

Army Expenditures

The Army expenditures from 1893-94 down to 1934-35 have been as follows:

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Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
1893-94	¥ 12,420,000	¥ 2,801,000	¥ 14,721,000
(Just before Sino-Japanese War)			
1896-97	32,614,000	20,629,000	53,243,000
1903-04	39,353,000	7,529,000	46,884,000
(Just before Russo-Japanese War)			
1906-07	37,835,000	30,045,000	67,870,000
(Just after Russo-Japanese War)			
1912-13	80,175,000	23,950,000	104,125,000
1917-18	88,344,000	35,093,000	123,437,000
1923-24	176,224,000	47,704,000	223,927,000
1924-25	179,331,000	27,403,000	206,734,000
1925-26	170,761,000	44,044,000	214,805,000
1926-27	167,561,000	29,380,000	199,941,000
1927-28	174,190,000	43,913,000	218,104,000
1928-29	167,620,000	81,486,000	249,106,000
1929-30	178,898,000	48,356,000	227,255,000
1930-31	174,546,000	26,278,000	200,824,000
1931-32	163,679,000	63,808,000	227,488,000
1932-33	148,266,000	225,309,000	373,575,000
1933-34	166,471,000	296,173,000	462,644,000
1934-35 (Budget)	169,038,000	284,656,000	453,695,000
1935-36 („)	179,803,000	313,155,000	492,958,000

Army Budget for 1935-1936

The army budget for 1935-1936 reaches ¥492,958,079, exceeding by ¥39,263,000 over that of the previous year. The special demands were ¥116,196,000 for new armaments, the expenses for maintaining troops in Manchuria, etc., the demand for the latter being about ¥26,000,000 more than that of the previous year. Among special items of the expenditure there are ¥16,176,779 for the improvement of Air Corps, ¥2,058,360 for rewards, ¥5,084,000 for the improvement of arms, and ¥2,064,000 for the reconstruction of equipments damaged by natural disasters. (See Chapter VIII, A General Survey of the Budget, 1935-36.) Details follow:

ORDINARY EXPENDITURES

(In yen)

I	Department proper	Total	612,591
	Salaries		342,135
	Office expenses		270,456
II	Military expenses	Total	178,177,285
	Salaries		55,834,954
	Military offices' and repairs expenses		6,655,468
	Miscellaneous payments		16,897,774
	Clothes and provisions		34,568,679
	Ordnance and horses		49,171,457
	Manœuvres		11,350,492
	Medical treatments		974,763
	For short-term soldiers in active service and privately supported students		536,168
	Detention		57,640
	Transportations		1,837,028
	Attendance		42,687
	Secret expenses		250,180
III	Contribution to Yasukuni Shrine		12,000
IV	Miscellaneous expenses		1,001,899
	Total		179,803,775

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURES

(In yen)

I	Buildings and repairs		1,001,895
II	Defence replenishment	Total	116,196,559
	Soldiers		16,212
	Fortresses		6,680,597
	Armaments		109,499,750
III	Grounds and buildings		1,122,410
IV	Land surveying		311,210
V	Reconstruction in the quake-stricken districts		1,878,956
VI	Bridges, ranges, etc.		1,742,463
VII	Use of land and buildings		68,357
VIII	Researches		322,000
IX	Map printing		342,743
X	Garrisons in China		575,356
XI	Temporary grants		193,865
XII	Subsidies for automobile manufacture		746,852

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XIII	Aid for the Ex-service Men Association	250,000
XIV	Prevention of anæmia of horses	86,000
XV	Manchurian Incident	162,359,274
XVI	Improvement of Air Corps, etc.	16,176,779
XVII	Improvement of arms	5,084,746
XVIII	Temporary contribution to the Yasukuni Shrine	45,000
XIX	Special increase in salaries	574,879
XX	Rewards in connection with the Manchurian Incident	2,058,360
XXI	Appliances for military attachés abroad	3,500
XXII	Disaster reconstruction	2,064,000
	Total	313,155,204

Ordinary expenditures	¥178,803,775
Extraordinary expenditures	313,155,204
Total	492,958,979

Administrative Organization

Administration of the Army is conducted by the following three organs, the chiefs thereof working under direct order from the Throne:

The Ministry of War The central organ for military administration. The Ministry contains eight departments, the names and functions of which are listed below:

(a) The Minister's secretariat takes charge of all secret affairs, papers and other records, and general office work.

(b) The Bureau of Personal Affairs is in charge of all the affairs concerning the personnel of the army. It consists of two sections, the one dealing with appointments, promotion, etc., the other of decorations.

(c) The Bureau of Military Affairs is the real centre of military administration, and is responsible for the establishment of the system and organization of the Army, for the proclamation and withdrawal of martial law, and for all the affairs concerning ceremonies to be observed by the soldiers, morals and discipline among the men, the drafting of men and horses to various units, the conscription system, etc., etc.

(d) The Replenishment Bureau is divided into two sections, one for mobilization and the other for co-ordination, and is responsible for the establishment and improvement of the mobilization system, preparation and co-ordination of war supplies, improvement of military transportation, etc.

(e) The Arms and Ordnance Bureau consists of the section for rifles and guns and the section for various supplies. It is in the charge of arms, ordnance, and various supplies of war.

(f) The Intendance Bureau has four sections, the Paymaster's, Audit, Clothing and Provisions, and Construction. This bureau is responsible for expenditure, the inspection of accounts, preparation of budgets, provisions, clothing, structures, etc.

(g) The Medical Bureau is responsible for all sanitary and medical arrangements among officers and men. It consists of the section for sanitary affairs and the section for medicine and surgery.

(h) The Judicial Bureau is responsible for the organization of courts-martial and all other affairs in connection with martial law.

The Ministry of War also supervises the following organizations situated in various parts of the country.

(a) The Military Aviation Bureau is the central organ for the study of military aviation, and is required to organize the education of pilots and mechanics, to supervise repairs, replenishment, and purchases of aeronautical supplies, etc.

(b) The Technical Investigation Bureau conducts researches on all technical developments likely to effect military efficiency. Inspection of ordnance and various war supplies is conducted by this bureau. Under its supervision is the Laboratory of

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Military Science which conducts research on methods of scientific warfare.

(c) The Military Technical Board. This is an organ for deliberation on all technical problems submitted by the War Minister.

(d) The Military Arsenal is responsible for the establishment of designs and plans of arms and ordnance, as well as repairs and examination of various supplies of war inclusive of gunpowder. It has branches in Osaka, Nagoya, Oji, Kokura and Heijo.

(e) The Woolen Factory at Senju is engaged in the manufacture of woollen yarn and clothes, for military supplies.

(f) The Remount Bureau has charge of horse replenishment, including breeding and purchase.

(g) The Military Arms Depot is responsible for the purchase, storage, repairs, maintenance, supply, exchange, and scrapping of arms and ordnance. It also takes care of the guns installed in fortresses. The main office is in Tokyo and there are branches in Chiba, Osaka, Nagoya, Kokura, and Hiroshima.

(h) The Military Clothing Depot has its head office in Tokyo, and branches in Osaka and Hiroshima. It takes care of the manufacture, purchase, storage, and supply of all clothing supplies.

(i) The Military Hygienic Supplies Depot is responsible for the manufacture, purchase, storage, supply, and inspection of all hygienic supplies.

(j) The Military Depot of Provisions and Forage, with its head office in Tokyo and branches in Osaka and Ujina, is in charge of the preparation and supply of provisions and forage.

(k) The Fortifications Bureau is responsible for the construction, inspection, and maintenance of all defensive structures, besides being required to conduct researches on artillery and military engineering.

(l) The Military Transport Bureau is situated at Ujina and looks after all matters concerning the transportation of troops.

The General Staff It deliberates on national defence and strategy. It is also required to train and supervise all staff officers. The Staff College and the Land Survey Bureau are under the control of the Chief of the General Staff.

The Land Survey Bureau is responsible for the replenishment of military maps, production of maps for public use and the training of experts for the Bureau services.

The Department of Military Training It is in charge of all military schools and the training and education of officers and men, as well as the co-ordination and development of military education; aeronautical education of military aviation, however, is entrusted to the Aviation Bureau, and the training of staff officers comes under the General Staff.

The Department consists of the headquarters and sections for cavalry, artillery, engineers and commissariat.

Field Organization

The Division A division generally consists of 2 infantry brigades, 1 cavalry regiment, 1 field artillery regiment, 1 engineer battalion, and 1 commissariat battalion. To some larger divisions, a tank corps, or a mountain artillery regiment, or a heavy field artillery regiment, is attached. While a few others include a full cavalry brigade, a regiment of transport service, a regiment of telegraphists or an anti-aircraft regiment. Eight ammunition columns (4 infantry and 4 artillery), 6 field hospitals, and 1 remount depot accompany each division on service. The

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number of officers and men in a division is about 10,000 on peace standing. Divisional commanders hold the rank of Lieutenant-General, brigade commanders that of Major-General.

The Regiment An infantry regiment consists of 3 battalions and a machine-gun corps, and an infantry battalion of 3 companies of 150 men each, and a machine gun section. A company is subdivided into three sections.

A cavalry regiment, of which Japan has 25 at present, consists of 2 or 3 squadrons. Eight of these regiments are organized into four independent cavalry brigades, while the remaining seventeen are attached one to each of the divisions.

Japan has 30 artillery regiments and 10 battalions, namely 15 regiments of field artillery, 1 battalion of horse artillery, 4 regiments and 1 battalion of mountain artillery, and 8 regiments of heavy field artillery. A field artillery regiment is divided into 3 battalions, and a battalion into 3 companies. On peace strength a field artillery regiment consists of only 6 batteries each equipped with four guns. In addition there are 3 regiments and 8 battalions of heavy artillery, which are responsible for the defence of fortified zones.

In peace time 1 regiment and 1 battery of anti-aircraft artillery are maintained.

Air Force Japan's air force is divided into units attached to the Army and Navy respectively. The Army air force consists at present of 11 reconnoitering squadrons, 11 fighting squadrons, 4 bombing companies, and 2 balloon companies, consisting of approximately 1,000 planes.

The Peace Strength

A full statistical classification of the peace strength of the Army, with the total number of soldiers nearly 230,000, in 1935, is given below. In addition to the units listed, a force of gendarmerie 2,220 strong and a medical corps, about 1,500 strong are maintained.

Units	No. of Complete Regiments	No. of Additional Battalions
Infantry	70	6
Cavalry	25	
Field Artillery	15	
Mountain Artillery	4	1
Horse Artillery		1
Heavy Field Artillery	8	
Heavy Artillery	3	8 (independent)
Engineers		17
Railway Corps	2	
Telegraph Corps	2	
Air Force	8	
		(corps)
Balloon Corps		1
Commissariat		15
Tank Corps		2
		(corps)
Anti-Aircraft Artillery	1	1

This force is divided into 17 divisions and 34 brigades and was stationed in December, 1933 as follows :

Imperial Guard Division	
Divisional headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Infantry Guard Brigade	Tokyo
Guard Regiments 1st and 2nd	Tokyo
Headquarters of 2nd Infantry Guard Brigade	Tokyo
Guard Regiments 3rd and 4th	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Cavalry Brigade	Narashino
Cavalry Guard Regiment	Tokyo
13th and 14th Cavalry Regiments	Narashino
Headquarters of 4th Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Tokyo
Artillery Guard Regiment	Tokyo
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 4th	Shimoshizu
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 8th	Tokyo
Engineer Guard Battalion; Commissariat Guard Battalion	Tokyo

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Railway Regiment 1st	Chiba
Railway Regiment 2nd, Telegraph Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Air Force Regiment 5th	Tachikawa
Balloon Corps	Chiba
1st Division	
Divisional headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of 1st Infantry Brigade	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 49th	Kofu
Headquarters of 2nd Infantry Brigade	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 3rd	Tokyo
Infantry Regiment 57th	Sakura
Headquarters of 2nd Cavalry Brigade	Narashino
Cavalry Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Cavalry Regiment 15th and 16th	Narashino
Headquarters of Heavy Field Artillery Brigade 3rd	Kohnodai
Field Artillery Regiment 1st	Tokyo
Horse Artillery Battalion	Kohnodai
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 1st and 7th	Kohnodai
Yokosuka Heavy Artillery Regiment	Yokosuka
Engineer Battalion 1st	Tokyo
Commissariat Battalion 1st	Tokyo
2nd Division	
Divisional headquarters	Sendai
Headquarters of 3rd Infantry Brigade	Sendai
Infantry Regiment 4th	Sendai
Infantry Regiment 29th	Wakamatsu
Headquarters of 15th Infantry Brigade	Takata
Infantry Regiment 16th	Shibata
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Muramatsu.	
Infantry Regiment 30th	Takata
Cavalry Regiment 2nd	Sendai
Field Artillery Regiment 2nd	Sendai
Independent Mountain Artillery Regiment 1st	Takata
Engineer Battalion 2nd	Sendai
Commissariat Battalion 2nd	Sendai
3rd Division	
Divisional headquarters	Nagoya
Headquarters of 5th Infantry Brigade	Nagoya
Infantry Regiment 6th	Nagoya
Infantry Regiment 68th	Gifu
Headquarters of 29th Infantry Brigade	Shizuoka
Infantry Regiment 18th	Toyohashi
Infantry Regiment 34th	Shizuoka
Headquarters of 4th Cavalry Brigade	Toyohashi
Cavalry Regiment 3rd	Nagoya
Cavalry Regiment 25th and 26th	Toyohashi
Headquarters of 1st Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Mishima
Heavy Field Artillery Regiments 2nd and 3rd.	Mishima
Field Artillery Regiment 3rd	Nagoya
Anti-aircraft Artillery Regiment 1st	Hamamatsu
Engineer Battalion 3rd	Toyohashi
Air Force Regiments 1st and 2nd	Gifu
Air Force Regiment 7th	Hamamatsu
Commissariat Battalion 3rd	Nagoya
4th Division	
Divisional headquarters	Osaka
Headquarters of 7th Infantry Brigade	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 8th	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 70th	Sasayama
Headquarters of 32nd Infantry Brigade	Wakayama
Infantry Regiment 37th	Osaka
Infantry Regiment 61st	Wakayama
Cavalry Regiment	Osaka
Field Artillery Regiment 4th	Shitnyama
Miyama Heavy Artillery Regiment Engineers	Miyama
Battalion 4th	Takatsuki
Commissariat Battalion 4th	Osaka
5th Division	
Divisional headquarters	Hiroshima
Headquarters of 9th Infantry Brigade	Hiroshima
Infantry Regiment 11th	Hiroshima
Infantry Regiment 41st	Fukuyama
Headquarters of 21st Infantry Brigade	Yamaguchi
Infantry Regiment 21st	Hamada
Infantry Regiment 42nd	Yamaguchi
Cavalry Regiment 5th	Hiroshima
Field Artillery Regiment 5th	Hiroshima
Engineer Battalion 5th	Hiroshima
Telegraph Regiment 2nd	Hiroshima
Commissariat Battalion 5th	Hiroshima
6th Division	
Divisional Headquarters	Kumamoto
Headquarters of 11th Infantry Brigade	Kumamoto
Infantry Regiment 13th	Kumamoto
Infantry Regiment 47th	Oita
Headquarters of Infantry Brigade 36th	Kagoshima
Infantry Regiment 23th	Miyakonojo
Infantry Regiment 45th	Kagoshima
Cavalry Regiment 6th	Kumamoto
Field Artillery Regiment 6th	Kumamoto
Engineer Battalion 6th	Kumamoto
Commissariat Battalion 6th	Kumamoto

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7th Division	
Divisional headquarters	**Asahigawa**
Headquarters of 18th Infantry Brigade	Asahigawa
Infantry Regiment 25th	Sapporo
Infantry Regiment 26th	Asahigawa
Headquarters of 14th Infantry Brigade	Asahigawa
Infantry Regiment 27th and 28th	Asahigawa
Cavalry Regiment 7th	Asahigawa
Field Artillery Regiment 7th	Asahigawa
Hakodaté Heavy Artillery Battalion	Hakodaté
Engineer Battalion 7th	Asahigawa
Commissariat Battalion 7th	Asahigawa
8th Division	
Divisional headquarters	**Hirosaki**
Headquarters of 4th Infantry Brigade	Hirosaki
Infantry Regiment 5th	Aomori
Infantry Regiment 31st	Hirosaki
Headquarters of 16th Infantry Brigade	Akita
Infantry Regiment 17th	Akita
Infantry Regiment 32th	Yamagata
Headquarters of 3rd Cavalry Brigade	Morioka
Cavalry Regiment 8th	Hirosaki
Cavalry Regiment 23rd and 14th	Morioka
Field Artillery Regiment 8th	Hirosaki
Engineer Battalion 8th	Morioka
Commissariat Battalion	Hirosaki
9th Division	
Divisional headquarters	**Kanazawa**
Headquarters of 6th Infantry Brigade	Kanazawa
Infantry Regiment 7th	Kanazawa
Infantry Regiment 35th	Toyama
Headquarters of 18th Infantry Brigade	Tsuruga
Infantry Regiment 19th	Tsuruga
Infantry Regiment 36th	Sabayé
Cavalry Regiment 9th	Kanazawa
Mountain Artillery Regiment 9th	Kanazawa
Engineer Battalion 9th	Kanazawa
Commissariat Battalion 9th	Kanazawa
10th Division	
Divisional Headquarters	**Himeji**
Headquarters of 8th Infantry Brigade	Himeji
Infantry Regiment 39th	Himeji
Infantry Regiment 40th	Tottori
Headquarters of Infantry Brigade 33rd	Okayama
Infantry Regiment 10th	Okayama
Infantry Regiment 63rd	Matsuyé
Cavalry Regiment 10th	Himeji
Field Artillery Regiment 10th	Himeji
Engineer Battalion 10th	Okayama
Commissariat Battalion 10th	Himeji
11th Division	
Divisional headquarters	**Zentsuji**
Headquarters of 10th Infantry Brigade	Zentsuji
Infantry Regiment 12th	Zentsuji
Infantry Regiment 22nd	Matsuyama
Headquarters of 22nd Infantry Brigade	Tokushima
Infantry Regiment 43rd	Tokushima
Infantry Regiment 44th	Kochi
Cavalry Regiment 11th	Zentsuji
Mountain Artillery Regiment 11th	Zentsuji
Engineer Battalion 11th	Zentsuji
Commissariat Battalion 11th	Zentsuji
12th Division	
Divisional headquarters	**Kurumé**
Headquarters of 12th Infantry Brigade	Fukuoka
Infantry Regiment 14th	Kokura
Infantry Regiment 24th	Fukuoka
Headquarters of 24th Infantry Brigade	Kurumé
Infantry Regiment 46th	Ohmura
Infantry Regiment 48th	Kurumé
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Saga	
Tank Corps 1	Kurumé
Cavalry Regiment 12	Kurumé
Headquarters of 2nd Heavy Field Artillery Brigade	Kokura
Field Artillery Regiment 24th	Kurumé
Independent Mountain Artillery Regiment 3rd	Kurumé
Heavy Field Artillery Regiment 5th and 6th	Kokura
Shimonoseki Heavy Artillery Regiment	Shimonoseki
Sasebo Heavy Artillery Battalion	Sasebo
Kechi Heavy Artillery Battalion	Kechi
Engineer Battalion 18th	Kurumé
Flying Air Force Regiment 4th	Tachiarai
Commissariat Battalion 18th	Kurumé
14th Division	
Divisional headquarters	Utsunomiya
Headquarters of 27th Infantry Brigade	Utsunomiya
Infantry Regiment 2nd	Mito
Infantry Regiment 59th	Utsunomiya
Headquarters of 28th Infantry Brigade	Takasaki
Infantry Regiment 15	Takasaki
Infantry Regiment 50th	Matsumoto
Cavalry Regiment 18th	Utsunomiya
Field Artillery Regiment 20th	Utsunomiya
Engineer Battalion 14th	Mito
Commissariat Battalion 14th	Utsunomiya

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18th Division	
Divisional headquarters	Kyoto
Headquarters of 19th Infantry Brigade	Kyoto
Infantry Regiment 9th	Kyoto
The 3rd Battalion of this regiment is stationed at Ohtsu	
Infantry Regiment 20th	Fukuchiyama
Headquarters of 30th Infantry Brigade	Tsu
Infantry Regiment 33rd	Tsu
Infantry Regiment 38th	Nara
Cavalry Regiment 20th	Kyoto
Field Artillery Regiment 22nd	Kyoto
Maizuru Heavy Artillery Battalion	Maizuru
Engineer Battalion 16th	Kyoto
Air Force Regiment 3rd	Yokkaichi
Commissariat Battalion 16th	Kyoto
19th Division	
Divisional headquarters	Ranan
Headquarters or 37th Infantry Brigade	Kanko
Infantry Regiment 73rd	Ranan
Infantry Regiment 74th	Kanko
Headquarters of 30th Infantry Brigade	Ranan
Infantry Regiment 75th	Kainei
Infantry Regiment 76th	Ranan
Cavalry Regiment 27th	Ranan
Field Artillery Regiment 25th	Ranan
Engineer Battalion 19th	Kainei
20th Division	
Divisional headquarters	Ryuzan
Headquarters of 39th Infantry Brigade	Heijo
Infantry Regiment 77th	Heijo
Infantry Regiment 78th	Ryuzan
Headquarters of 40th Infantry Brigade	Ryuzan
Infantry Regiment 79th	Ryuzan
Infantry Regiment 80th	Taiko
The 3rd Battalion of the regiment is stationed at Taiden.	
Cavalry Regiment 28th	Ryuzan
Field Artillery Regiment 26th	Ryuzan
Anti-aircraft Corps of above regiment	Heijo
Heavy Artillery Battalion of Masan	Masan
Engineer Battalion 20th	Ryuzan
Air Force Regiment 6th	Heijo

The Headquarters of special units are distributed as follows :

Tokyo Garrison Headquarters	Tokyo
Headquarters of Chosen Army	Keijo
Headquarters of Taiwan Army	Taihoku
Headquarters of Taiwan Garrison	Taihoku
1st Taiwan Infantry Regiment 1	Taihoku
2nd Taiwan Infantry Regiment 2	Taihoku
Taiwan Mountain Artillery Battalion	Taihoku
Kiirun Heavy Artillery Battalion	Kiirun
Mako Heavy Artillery Battalion	Mako
Heito 8th Flight Regiment	Heito
Headquarters of Kwantung Army	Ryojun
Headquarters of Independent Garrison	Koshurei
1st Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Koshurei
2nd Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Mukden
3rd Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Tashihchiao
4th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Lienshankwan
5th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Ssupinkai
6th Infantry Battalion Independent Garrison	Antung
Ryojun Heavy Artillery Battalion	Ryojun
Headquarters of Japanese Force in China	Tientsin
Japanese Infantry Garrison in Tientsin	Tientsin
Japanese Infantry Garrison in Peiping	Peiping

Fortresses

The Army has 17 fortresses at places of strategic importance in different parts of Japan proper and its dependencies. At each of these fortresses, a heavy artillery regiment or battalion is stationed, and in some cases an air force detachment. Their sites and divisional attachments are as follows :

	Site	Division
(1)	Yokosuka	1st
(2)	Chichijima (Bonin Is.)	,,
(3)	Yura	4th
(4)	Amamioshima	6th
(5)	Hoyo	,,
(6)	Tsugaru	7th
(7)	Shimonoseki	12th
(8)	Tsushima	,,
(9)	Sasebo	,,
(10)	Nagasaki	,,

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	Site	Division
(11)	Iki	12th
(12)	Maizuru	16th
(13)	Chinkaiwan	Chosen Army
(14)	Eikowan	Chosen Army
(15)	Kiirun	Taiwan Army
(16)	Bokoto	"
(17)	Ryojun (Port Arthur)	Kwantung Army

OCCUPATION OF SENIOR COMMANDS

(August 1, 1935)

Name and Rank	Command
Lieut.-General Giichi Nishi	Tokyo Garrison
Lieut.-General Prince Asaka	Guard Division
Lieut.-General Heisuké Yanagawa	1st Division
Lieut.-General Yoshijiro Umezu	2nd Division
Lieut.-General Tsuneichi Iwakoshi	3rd Division
Lieut.-General Prince Higashikuni	4th Division
Lieut.-General Kuniaki Koiso	5th Division
Lieut.-General Kohei Kashii	6th Division
Lieut.-General Okiiyé Usami	7th Division
Lieut.-General Kotaro Nukamura	8th Division
Lieut.-General Toyozo Toyama	9th Division
Lieut.-General Yoshitsugu Tatekawa	10th Division
Lieut.-General Motoo Furusho	11th Division
Lieut.-General Kiyoshi Kazuki	12th Division
Lieut.-General Shunroku Hata	14th Division
Lieut.-General Inohiko Shibuya	16th Division
Lieut.-General Yoshiyuki Suzuki	19th Division
Lieut.-General Mitsuharu Miyaké	20th Division

OVERSEAS COMMANDS

Name and Rank	Command
General Jiro Minami	Kwantung Army
Lieut.-General Hisaichi Ueda	Chosen Army
Lieut.-General Count Hisaichi Terauchi	Taiwan Army
Major-General Hayao Tada	Japanese Garrison in China

Promotion and Age Limit

Army officers in service are promoted to higher ranks by selection in accordance with the following rules in time of peace, the time limit being reduced by one-half in war time:

One year from Sub-Lieutenant to Lieutenant, 2 years from Lieutenant to Captain, 4 years to Major, 2 years to Lieutenant-Colonel, 2 years to Colonel, 2 years to Major-General, 3 years to Lieutenant-General. Promotion to full General and then to Marshal is subject only to the Emperor's will.

The age limit for officers on the active list varies according to rank as follows:

General	65
Lieutenant-General	62
Major-General	58
Colonel	55
Lieutenant-Colonel	53
Major	50
Captain	48
Lieutenant and Sub-Lieutenant	45

There is no age limit for Marshals.

Army Education

Schools providing instruction in military affairs are of three categories as follows:

(1) Those under the authority of the Department of Military Education, of which a full list is given below:

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Name	Place
Artillery and Engineering School	Tokyo
Infantry School	Chiba prefecture
Cavalry School	„ „
Field Artillery School	„ „
Heavy Field Artillery School	Kanagawa prefecture
Engineers' School	Chiba „
Signallers' School	Tokyo „
Mechanical Transport School	„ „
Narashino Military School	Chiba „
Toyama School	Tokyo city
Military Academy	„ „
Military Preparatory School	„ „
4 Non-Commissioned Officers' Schools	Tokyo, Sendai, Toyohashi, Kumamoto

Toyama School teaches fencing, gymnastics and military music to both officers and men.

(2) The Staff College (Tokyo City) under the direct control of the General Staff.

(3) Those under the control of various bureaux of the Ministry of War, of which a full list is given below.

Name	Place
Tokorozawa Flying School	Saitama prefecture
Akeno Flying School	Miyé „
Hamamatsu Flying School	Shizuoka „
Shimoshizu Flying School	Chiba „
Engineering School	Tokyo City
Intendance School	„ „
Army Medical School	Tokyo City
Army Veterinary School	„ „
Gendarmerie Training School	„ „

The Flying School at Tokorozawa is to give necessary training to military fliers as to how to handle and repair a plane and its engine, and meteorological observation, besides a knowledge of the materials of which planes and engines are constructed. This school is opened to civilian students. The Flying School at Shimoshizu is to teach aerial photography, aerial communications and reconnoitering. The Akeno Flying School gives courses to army pilots on the aerial tactics, air navigation, handling of machine-guns on a plane and also on the construction of aerial weapons.

To raise the level of educational capacity and general efficiency among officers, certain special courses and facilities are arranged. Graduates from universities in science or engineering are now entitled to the position of engineer of artillery lieutenants after six months' cadetship, while those from the medical and agricultural colleges are qualified to become surgeon and veterinary lieutenants respectively after three months' cadetship. Non-commissioned officers of ability may be promoted to the rank of lieutenant in virtue of a system adopted in 1930, after a short period of special training. Posts still higher, even to the supreme Marshalship, are open to non-commissioned officers of exceptional ability.

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The Navy

Outline History As a result of the policy of seclusion strictly followed by the Shogunate Government of the Tokugawas, Japan was without anything worthy of the name of a navy, when Commodore Perry's fleet entered Uraga Bay in the 6th year of Kaei (1853) with a view to inducing the Shogun's Government to open Japanese ports to the world. By the 4th year of Ansei (1857), however, Japan was in possession of a few warships given her by Holland and England. They formed the first squadron of the Western type that the nation ever had. By the efforts of the Meiji Government, this squadron developed into an efficient fleet of 28 fighting craft and 24 torpedo-boats, with a total tonnage of over 50,000 tons by 1894, when Japan declared war on China. After the Sino-Japanese War, Japan's navy grew very rapidly and in 1902, just before the outbreak of Russo-Japanese War, was in possession of 78 ships with a total tonnage of 256,816 tons.

The Naval Policy Japan's naval policy was, and is, to maintain a fleet powerful enough to defend the country against any naval force which could be dispatched to the western Pacific by any naval Power of the world. This policy was embodied first in the expansion plan adopted in 1907, including the construction of 8 battleships, 8 battle-cruisers, 21 light cruisers, 64 destroyers, and 32 submarines. As a preliminary to carrying out the plan, it was decided to build 8 battleships, 4 battle-cruisers, 11 light cruisers and a number of destroyers and submarines at a total expenditure of ¥254,000,000. In 1916, the Diet passed the programme to be carried out in the seven years ending 1923. In 1917, the programme was enlarged by a project covering the construction of 2 more battle-cruisers and a number of auxiliary ships in the six years ending 1923. In 1919, this programme was enlarged by a new project covering the construction of 8 capital ships and 85 auxiliary ships at a total expenditure of ¥750,000,000 to be appropriated in the eight years ending 1927. Thus, in 1921, Japan's naval expenditure amounted to about ¥500,000,000 or about one-third of the total amount of the budget.

The 1919 Programme The number and kind of ships to be constructed by the 1919 plan were 8 battleships armed with 16-inch guns (Nagato, Mutsu, Tosa, Kaga, etc.) and 8 battle-cruisers (Amagi, Akagi, etc., etc.), 26 light cruisers, 94 destroyers, and 93 submarines. As a result of the Washington Conference, the construction of these ships was abandoned, the Mutsu and the Nagato being retained on the list, while the Akagi and the Amagi were retained for conversion into plane carriers. (The great earthquake of 1923 made the Amagi unfit for service, and she was replaced by the Kaga).

After the Conference every effort was made to build up a powerful fleet of auxiliary ships to compensate for the deficiency in capital ships, of which Japan was allowed only 9 as against the 15 each of America and Britain. This effort resulted in the establishment of a well balanced fleet of auxiliary ships. The Naval Treaty signed in London in 1930, however, again gave Japan a low ratio in the number and tonnage of eight-inch gun cruisers, and allowed her only 52,700 tons of submarines, in spite of her demand for

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a minimum of 78,000 tons. This made it necessary further to reinforce the auxiliary fleet.

The 1931 Plan In 1931, the First Naval Replenishment Plan was referred to the Diet which passed it almost unanimously. The plan covers the construction of 4 light cruisers of 8,500 tons each, 12 first class destroyers of 1,400 tons each, 9 first class submarines, 1 large mine-layer, 3 smaller mine-layers, 4 torpedo-boats, and 6 mine-sweepers, at a total expenditure of ¥247,080,000 to be appropriated in the 6 years.

The 1932 Plan The replenishment plan is accompanied by two other plans, the first of which covers the establishment of 12 naval flying corps on land and an aeronautic arsenal, the improvement and reinforcement of planes carried on plane-carriers and other ships, and the improvement of arms to be mounted on naval planes. The total expenditure for this, amounting to ¥81,970,000, is to be voted by 1936. On its completion, the plan is to be followed by another expansion plan covering the establishment of 2 more flying corps on land at a total expenditure of ¥50,000,000. The second plan supplementary to the 1931 Replenishment Plan covers a total expenditure of ¥44,950,000 to be appropriated for the modernization of capital and auxiliary ships, plane-carriers, submarines, and the replacement of guns, etc. When these replenishment programmes are completed, Japan will have 12 Treaty cruisers, 23 light cruisers, 4 plane-carriers, 4 submarine tenders, 6 mine-layers, 8 coast defence ships, 13 gun-boats, 79 first class destroyers, 34 second class destroyers, 33 first class submarines, 38 second class submarines, 4 torpedo-boats, 14 mine-sweepers, 3 training-ships, 1 target ship, 2 surveying ships, 17 transports, and 1 ice-breaker.

The naval authorities referred a second naval replenishment plan to the Ministry of Finance for study on October 31, 1932. The plan calls for a total expenditure of ¥460,000,000 covering the construction of one plane-carrier of 8,000 tons, two 8,500 ton cruisers with 6-inch guns, 14 first class destroyers of 1,400 tons each, six submarines, one mine-layer of 5,000 tons type, a number of torpedo-boats and mine-sweepers, and the establishment of 8 flying corps on land, all for completion in the 4 years ending 1936.

The Disarmament Question

The claim of the Powers as to naval limitation came to be known at the preliminary disarmament conference held at London in 1934. The contention of Japan at the conference was that in order to establish the principle of non-menace and non-aggression, the differential ratios which now exist between the great naval Powers should be withdrawn, and in their place a common maximum limit for the navy to be maintained by those Powers should be fixed; and that, in order to effect real disarmament, that maximum limit must be reduced to the lowest point possible. She contended further that navies which can be used for any offensive purpose must entirely be done away with, or, failing that, reduced to the minimum, and only navies which could be operated for defensive purposes should be provided. While it is important for the Powers to reserve the right to maintain a navy, the strength of which is equal to that of other Powers, still the importance of fixing a maximum limit must not be overlooked. Unless a maximum limit be fixed, construction competition will result among the Powers.

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This is against the principle of disarmament and becomes a menace to peace.

Next, the reason why Japan holds that a common maximum limit should be fixed and that she should maintain a naval force equal to that of other Powers was in the change of conditions as enumerated below:

(1) The progress and development made recently in battleships, aeroplanes, etc. have made it extremely difficult to effectuate defence operations.

(2) The remarkable increases in the air forces of the U.S.S.R. and China, and the revival of the Far Eastern naval forces of the former.

(3) The establishment of the naval port of Singapore by Great Britain, and the extension and strengthening of the naval port of Hawaii by the U.S.A. have had a great effect on the naval plan of operations in Far Eastern waters.

(4) The birth of Manchoukuo has brought forth vast changes in Far Eastern politics. It has increased the responsibility of the Japanese Empire as the stabilizing power in the Far East.

The contention of Great Britain and the U.S.A. against the claims of Japan was that the present differential ratios should be maintained. The reason for this was that, although acquiescence in Japan's claim for parity would not threaten the security of their national defence, allowing Japan to possess a naval force of equal strength would permit her to act as she pleases in the Far East. There are two points which are worthy of notice in this contention. One is that the security of Britain's and the United States' national defence can be established on the basis of the Japanese proposal and the other is that in spite of that fact they are not willing to consent to it, because of the fear that Japan may act independently in the Far East. In other words, the idea of naval armaments entertained by these two countries seems to be that the armaments must not stop short at maintaining peace and order in their respective country, but go beyond that and make the problems of another country, which have no connections with their own national defence, as a basis for an agreement on the disarmament question. This goes counter to the Japanese contention that a country's defence measures should start and end at securing its own peace and the conference adjourned without arriving at a definite result.

Naval Expenditures

The naval expenditure from 1893-94 down to 1934-35 have been as follows:

Year		Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
1893-94	(Just before Sino-Japanese War)	¥ 5,141,000	¥ 2,960,000	¥ 8,101,000
1896-97	(Just after Sino-Japanese War)	7,351,000	12,655,000	20,006,000
1903-04	(Just before Russo-Japanese War)	21,530,000	14,588,000	36,118,000
1906-07	(Just after Russo-Japanese War)	27,991,000	33,885,000	61,876,000
1912-13		41,534,000	53,952,000	95,486,000
1917-18		48,528,000	113,906,000	162,434,000
1925-26		122,242,000	106,761,000	229,003,000
1926-27		127,428,000	109,879,000	237,307,000
1927-28		136,545,000	136,992,000	273,537,000
1928-29		143,026,000	125,106,000	268,132,000
1929-30		147,648,000	120,016,000	267,664,000

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Year	Running Expenses	Extraordinary Expenses	Total
1930–31	¥146,888,000	¥95,147,000	¥242,035,000
1931–32	138,914,000	88,215,000	227,129,000
1932–33	140,740,000	172,069,000	312,809,000
1933–34	179,027,000	230,948,000	409,975,000
1934–35 (budget)	199,909,000	279,237,000	489,147,000
1935–36 („)	215,917,000	313,765,900	529,683,000

Navy Budget for 1935-1936

ORDINARY EXPENDITURES

(In yen)

I	Department proper	
	Salaries	317,935
	Office expenses	167,640
	Total	485,575
II	Military expenses	
	Salaries	50,647,145
	Buildings and repairs	777,303
	Miscellaneous expenses	4,580,450
	Clothes and food	22,896,526
	Construction and repairs of ships	86,961,141
	Manœuvres	445,281
	Medical treatments	998,759
	Naval stations and ports	1,003,511
	Construction of warships	40,776,994
	Waterways	523,166
	Educational expenditures	1,410,938
	Aids to seamen's families	922,823
	Grants to the mutual aid society	2,141,061
	Detention	10,227
	Secret services	63,300
	Total	214,158,625
III	Miscellaneous expenditures	1,273,680
	Sum total	215,917,880

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURES

(In yen)

I	Construction of auxiliary ships	156,768,489
II	Equipments in ports, schools, hospitals and factories	21,676,628
III	Equipments of air forces	29,913,787
IV	Equipments of warships	59,928,643
V	Armaments	22,952,450
VI	Buildings and repairs	5,550,000
VII	Entrusted repairs	745,129
VIII	Drawings and books on vessels	72,026
IX	Technical and chemical studies	1,931,000
X	Temporary grants	134,156
XI	Allotment of the International Waterway Bureau	5,575
XII	Repairs in the quake-stricken districts	1,499,210
XIII	Dispatch of ships to the northern waters	100,000
XIV	Expenses connected with the Manchurian Incident	9,612,051
XV	Manœuvres	6,000,000
XVI	Drawing weather charts, etc.	170,681
XVII	Special increase of salaries	952,495
XVIII	Educational armaments	400,000
XIX	Investigation on pensions for the wounded	5,000
XX	Books	9,390
XXI	Relief of fire calamities at Hakodaté and recovery of damaged articles	100,000
	Total	313,765,604

Ordinary expenditures	¥215,917,880
Extraordinary expenditures	313,765,604
Total	529,683,434

Administrative Organization

Warships and other vessels organized into fleet and squadrons actually represent what is called the Japanese Navy, and all the organs under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Marine are intended for the construction, maintenance, control and successful utilization of these vessels. Each naval station and fleet is placed in the charge of a Commander-in-chief, who is responsible for the discipline and education of his men.

The Minister The Minister of Marine is in charge of the administration of the Navy, while the Chief of the Naval Staff is directly responsible to the Emperor for operation, mobilization and intelligence. The administrative departments under the supervision of the Minister of Marine are the following :

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(1) Ministerial Secretariat
(2) Bureau of Military Affairs
(3) Personnel Bureau
(4) Education Bureau
(5) Bureau of Stores
(6) Medical Bureau
(7) Bureau of Accounts and Supplies
(8) Bureau of Civil Engineering
(9) Bureau of Judicial Affairs
(10) Library
(11) Telegraphy Division

The schools under the supervision of the Minister are:

(1) Naval War College (Tokyo). This school is intended for the training of advanced students selected from among naval officers.

(2) Naval College (Etajima). This school is intended for the education of intending naval officers. Warrant officers are also educated here before they are promoted to the rank of special service officer.

(3) Naval Engineering College (Maizuru). This school is intended for the education of intending engineering officers. Warrant engineering officers are received under the same conditions as at the Naval College.

(4) Naval Medical College. This school is to train surgeons and pharmacists and to conduct research in the field of surgery, medicine and naval sanitation. Warrant Wardmasters are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Wardmaster Lieutenant.

(5) Naval Paymasters' College. This school is intended for the education of intending naval paymasters. Warrant Writers are educated here before they are qualified for the rank of Accountant Lieutenants.

Under the Commander-in-Chief The following schools are under the direct supervision of the Commanders-in-Chief of the Naval Stations.

(1) Naval Gunnery School (Yokosuka). Officers, special service officers, warrant officers and seamen of special ratings are admitted.

(2) Torpedo School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(3) Naval Communications School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(4) Navigation School (Yokosuka). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are admitted.

(5) Submarine School (Kuré). Officers, warrant officers and seamen specially selected are trained here for submarine warfare. Researches on submarine construction and operation are also conducted.

(6) Naval Mechanists' School (Yokosuka). This school is for the training of warrant officers and seamen aspiring to the rank of engineering officer, ar special service engineering officer, or shipwright.

Active Service Organization

The Three Districts The coasts of Japan and the seas surrounding the country are divided into three Naval Districts, and these districts are placed in the charge of naval stations as follows:

1st Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Aomori, Iwaté, Miyagi, Fukushima, Ibaraki, Chiba, Tokyo, Kanagawa, Shidzuoka, Aichi, Miyé, Hokkaido and Karafuto, and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station.

2nd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of Wakayama, Osaka, Hyogo, Okayama, Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Shimané, Tottori, Kyoto, Fukui, Ishikawa, Toyama, Niigata, Yamagata, Akita, Tokushima, Kochi, Ehimé, Kagawa, Oita, Miyazaki, and the eastern part of Fukuoka prefecture, and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Kuré Naval Station.

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3rd Naval District, consisting of the coasts of the remainder of Fukuoka prefecture, Saga, Nagasaki, Kumamoto, Kagoshima, Okinawa, Taiwan and Chosen and the adjacent seas, is in the charge of the Sasebo Naval Station.

The coasts and adjacent seas of the South Sea Islands, now under mandate to Japan, are in the charge of the Yokosuka Naval Station. There are also auxiliary naval stations at Maizuru in Kyoto prefecture, Ohminato in Aomori prefecture, Chinkai in Chosen, Mako in the Boko Islands (Pescadores) and Ryojun (Port Arthur) in Kwantosyu (Kwantung).

The naval districts have each a naval barrack, which is responsible for the defence of the naval port where it is posted, besides being required to protect the neighbouring district from attack. In addition to the naval barrack, each naval station or auxiliary naval station has a defence corps, which is responsible for the defence of the neighbouring seas. Where there is no naval barrack, the defence corps is required to take care of the port where it is stationed and to protect the neighbouring district from attack. The naval ports and auxiliary naval ports have respectively one or more air force detachments, which are required to protect the port and neighbouring district from naval and aerial raids.

Naval Office in Manchoukuo

Japan's recognition of Manchoukuo and provisions of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol might have necessitated military and naval actions in that country on the part of Japan and to meet the possible emergency the Navy Department of Japan issued a law in March, 1933, for the establishment of the Imperial Naval Office in Manchoukuo to be located in Hsinking.

The Office takes charge of the watch and protection of the rivers and the coast lines of Manchoukuo. The commander is directly under the Emperor, and as to the administration he acts in accordance with the order of the Minister of the Navy of Japan. At present a provisional Naval Defence Brigade is quartered at Harbin and is guarding the banks of the Sungari.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Naval Station

The Imperial Naval Station at Port Arthur was abolished in November, 1922, according to the Naval disarmament programme. But the newly created situation in Manchuria made it a matter of necessity to revive it and it was re-established in April, 1933. The station is under a special regulation independent of the Naval stations in home land. It has a specific duties in the Kwantung Leased Territory and is engaged in the protection of the coasts of Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo and the North China above the Yangtze.

The Standing Fleets

The standing fleets as reorganized on November 15th, 1934, are as follows :

Combined Fleet

The Combined Fleet is organized with the 1st and 2nd fleets.

1st Fleet

1st Squadron—Haruna, Fuso, Yamashiro, Isé.
8th Squadron—Nagara, Isuzu, Natori.
1st Destroyer Squadron—Abukuma, 21st, 22nd and 29th destroyer flotillas.
1st Submarine Squadron—Tama, 7th and 8th submarine flotillas.
1st Air Force Squadron—Hosho, Ryujo, and 5th destroyer flotillas.

2nd Fleet

4th Squadron—Takao, Atago, Maya and Chokai.
6th Squadron—Kinukasa, Furutaka and Aoba.
2nd Destroyer Squadron—Jintsu, 6th, 10th, 19th and 20th destroyer flotillas.
2nd Submarine Squadron—Yura, Chogei, 18th

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28th, 29th submarine flotillas.
2nd Air Force Squadron—Akagi, and 9th destroyer flotillas.

3rd Fleet

10th Squardon—Kuma, Iwaté.
11th Squadron—Tsushima, Ataka, Toba, Seta, Katada, Hira, Hotzu, Atami, Futami, Urakasé, Tsuga.
5th Destroyer Squadron—Tatsuta, 16th, 28th destroyer flotillas.

Training Squadron

Yakumo, Asama

The Naval Air Force

The Naval Air Force of Japan consists of:

(1) 7½ aeroplane corps, 5 aeroplane corps at Yokosuka, 5½ aeroplane corps at Tateyama, 1-½ aeroplane corps at Sasebo, 2½ corps at Omura, 1½ corps at Kuré, 1½ Corps at Saheki and ½ Corps at Ominato, the number of planes belonging to these air corps are unavailable; and (2) the aircraft-carriers proper, Kaga, Akagi, Hosho, Notoro, Ryujo, Kamoi and several other ships, the number of planes carried are unavailable. Flying officers and men number over 10,000.

The Personnel

The personnel of the naval service, including the air force, for the four years ending 1933 was as follows:

	Active Service	Reserve (1st & 2nd)	Total
1930	82,288	51,592	133,880
1931	81,299	53,355	134,654
1932	86,849	52,839	139,688
1933	87,387	52,031	139,418

Classified according to ranks, those on the active list were as follows in February, 1934:

Admirals to Rear-Admirals and non-executive officers	135
Captains to Lieut.-Commanders and non-executive officers	2,270
Lieutenants to 2nd Sub-Lieutenants and non-executive officers	2,500
Midshipmen	846
Special service officers	1,449
Warrant officers	1,805
Cadets at school	556
Petty officers and men	78,676
Total	87,737

Equipment Each naval station is equipped with a shipbuilding yard, and one or more dry docks for accommodating warships. The Yokosuka and Kuré arsenals are capable of taking in superdreadnoughts of over 40,000 tons, but those of Sasebo and Maizuru are only fit for building cruisers and smaller ships. There are a number of up-to-date private establishments, such as the Mitsubishi shipyard at Nagasaki, Kawasaki shipyard at Kobé, Fujinagata shipyard at Osaka, and Ishikawajima shipyard at Tokyo. Of these the Mitsubishi and Kawasaki shipyards are capable of building superdreadnoughts.

Warship Building

The first warship built in Japan was the Seiki (870 tons) launched at Yokosuka in 1875. She played an important part in the civil war of 1877. The Hashidaté (4,228 tons), launched just before the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, remained the largest warship built at home until 1903. Soon after the Russo-Japanese War, Japan succeeded in building the battle-cruisers Tsukuba (13,800 tons), Ikoma, and Kurama (14,600 tons each), the battleships Satsuma (19,300 tons), Aki (19,250 tons), Kawachi and Settsu (20,800 tons each). The two last named were the first dreadnoughts planned and constructed at home and marked a new stage in the progress of naval architecture in Japan.

The Tsukuba and Kawachi sank 18 and 17 years ago respectively as a result of an explosion of their magazines, the former at Yokosuka and the latter at Tokuyama, while the Satsuma and Aki were removed from the list and sunk in target practice.

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The Settsu has been converted into a target ship of 16,130 tons and is still in service.

Independent of Foreign Material Up to recent years, Japan was dependent on foreign countries as regards war material, but is now almost independent in this connection. She has ample supplies of coal, iron, copper and zinc as long as she controls the mines in Manchuria. At present 95 per cent. of warship building materials is of home production and in case of international competitive building of warships Japan will lose little out of the competition in international payments. The supply of crude oil is still insufficient, but the rapid progress in the oil-shale industry of Manchuria, and the remarkable development of the oil industry in North Saghalien, Formosa, etc., show that the empire will shortly be self-sufficing in this respect also. The Imperial Iron Works at Yawata (Kyushu) has an annual output of about 200,000 tons armour plates, rails, etc., while the Muroran Steel Works of Hokkaido is turning out an ample quantity of steel for use by the Army and Navy. In the chemical industry also, Japan is now almost independent and prepared for any form of chemical warfare. In the Russo-Japanese War, the 6 battleships and 6 armoured cruisers of the Japanese fleet were all built in England, and the officers and men could fire no guns without optical implements made in foreign countries. The Navy of today is independent in every sense of the word.

List of Ships

The Navy consisted on July 30, 1935 of the following ships, classified by types with the total tonnage in each :

Type	Number	Tonnage
Battleships	9	272,070
Training Battleship	1	19,500
1st Class Cruisers	12	107,800
2nd Class Cruisers	24	90,255
Aircraft Carriers	5	68,370
Seaplane Carriers	3	31,050
Submarine Tenders	5	31,015
Mine Layers	6	15,230
Coast Defence Vessels	7	55,450
Gun Boats	11	5,045
1st Class Destroyers	76	89,439
2nd Class Destroyers	30	23,390
1st Class Submarines	37	43,057
2nd Class Submarines	30	23,822
Torpedo Boats	9	2,108
Mine Sweepers	16	9,258
Special Service Ships	22	227,477
Total	305	1,114,336

(Tonnage of ships under construction is not included.)

The full individual list of warships at the same date was :

BATTLESHIPS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main armaments (centimetre)		High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
Kongo	29,330	1913	26.0	36(8)	15(16)	12.7(8)	4
Kirishima	29,330	1915	26.0	36(8)	15(16)	12.7(8)	4
Haruna	29,330	1915	26.0	36(8)	15(16)	12.7(8)	4
Fuso	29,330	1915	22.5	36(12)	15(16)	12.7(8)	2
Yamashiro	29,330	1917	22.5	36(12)	15(16)	12.7(8)	2
Isé	29,990	1917	23.0	36(12)	14(18)	12.7(8)	4
Hyuga	29,990	1918	23.0	36(12)	14(18)	12.7(8)	4
Nagato	32,720	1920	23.0	40(8)	14(20)	12.7(8)	6
Mutsu	32,720	1921	23.0	40(8)	14(20)	12.7(8)	6
Total 9	272,070 tons						

TRAINING BATTLESHIP

Hiei	19,500	1914	18.0	36(6)	15(16)	12.7(4)	—

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1ST CLASS CRUISERS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main armaments (centimetre)	High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
Kako	7,100	1926	33.0	20(6)	12(4)	12
Furutaka	7,100	1926	33.0	20(6)	12(4)	12
Kinugasa	7,100	1927	33.0	20(6)	12(4)	12
Aoba	7,100	1927	33.0	20(6)	12(4)	12
Myoko	10,000	1929	33.0	20(10)	12(6)	12
Nachi	10,000	1928	33.0	20(10)	12(6)	12
Ashigara	10,000	1929	33.0	20(10)	12(6)	12
Haguro	10,000	1929	33.0	20(10)	12(6)	12
Takao	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)	12(4)	8
Atago	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)	12(4)	8
Chokai	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)	12(4)	8
Maya	9,850	1932	33.0	20(10)	12(4)	8
Total 12	107,800 tons					

2ND CLASS CRUISERS

Hirato	4,400	1912	26.0	15(8) 8(2)	8(2)	8
Yahagi	4,400	1912	26.0	15(8) 8(2)	8(2)	8
Tenryu	3,230	1919	31.0	14(4)	8(1)	6
Tatsuta	3,230	1919	31.0	14(4)	8(1)	6
Kuma	5,100	1920	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Tama	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Kitakami	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Oi	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Kiso	5,100	1921	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Nagara	5,170	1922	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Isuzu	5,170	1923	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Natori	5,170	1922	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Yura	5,170	1923	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Kinu	5,170	1922	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Abukuma	5,170	1924	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Naka	5,195	1925	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Sendai	5,195	1924	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Jintsu	5,195	1925	33.0	14(7)	8(2)	8
Yubari	2,890	1923	33.0	14(6)	8(1)	4
Mogami	8,500	under construction	33.0	15.5(15)	12.7(8)	12
Mikuma	8,500	,,	—	—	—	—
Suzuya	8,500	,,	—	—	—	—
Kumano	8,500	,,	—	—	—	—
Tone	8,500	,,	—	—	—	—
Total 24	90,255 tons (completed ones only)					

AIRCRAFT CARRIERS

Hosho	7,470	1922	25.0	14(4)	8(2)	—
Kaga	26,900	1928	23.0	20(10)	12(12)	—
Akagi	26,900	1927	28.5	20(10)	12(12)	—
Ryujo	7,100	1933	25.0		12.7(12)	—
Soryu	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total 5	68,370 tons					

SEAPLANE CARRIERS

Notoro	14,050	1920	12.0	12(2)	8(2)	—
Kamoi	17,000	1922	15.0	14(2)	8(2)	—
Chitosé	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total 3	31,050					

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SUBMARINE TENDERS

Karasaki	9,570	—	12.6	8(1)	8(1)	—
Komabashi	1,125	1914	13.9	8(2)	8(1)	—
Jingei	5,160	1923	16.0	14(4)	8(2)	—
Chogei	5,160	1924	16.0	14(4)	8(2)	—
Taigéi	10,000	1934	20.0	—	12.7(4)	—
Total 5	31,015 tons (completed ones only)					

MINE LAYERS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main armaments (centimetre)		High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
Tokiwa	9,240	1899	21.25	20(2)	15(8)	8(1)	—
Katsuriki	1,540	1917	13.0	8(3)		—	—
Shirataka	1,345	1929	16.0			12(3)	—
Itsukushima	1,970	1929	13.0	14(3)		8(2)	—
Yaeyama	1,135	1932	20.0			12(2)	—
Okinosima	—	—	—	—		—	—
Total 6	15,230 tons						

COAST DEFENCE VESSELS

Asama	9,240	1899	21.25	16(4)	15(12)	8(1)	4
Yakumo	9,010	1900	16.0	20(4)	15(12)	8(1)	2
Azuma	8,640	1900	16.0	16(4)	15(12)	8(1)	4
Izumo	9,180	1900	16.0	20(4)	15(14)	8(1)	2
Iwaté	9,180	1901	16.0	20(4)	15(14)	8(1)	4
Kasuga	7,080	1904	20.0	25(1) 20(2)	15(14)	8(1)	4
Tsushima	8,120	1904	20.0	15(6)	8(8)	8(1)	—
Total 7	55,450 tons						

GUNBOATS

Yodo	1,320	1908	22.0		8(2)	—	2
Ataka	725	1922	16.0		12(2)	8(2)	—
Uji	540	1903	13.0		8(4)	—	—
Toba	215	1911	15.0		8(2)	—	—
Saga	685	1912	15.0		12(1)	8(3)	—
Seta	305	1923	16.0		—	8(2)	—
Katada	305	1923	16.0		—	8(2)	—
Hira	305	1923	16.0		—	8(2)	—
Hotsu	305	1923	16.0		—	8(2)	—
Atami	170	1929	16.0		—	8(1)	—
Futami	170	1930	16.0		—	8(1)	—
Total 11	5,045 tons						

1ST CLASS DESTROYERS

Urakazé	810	1915	28.0	12(1)	8(4)	—	4
Minekazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Sawakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Okikazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Shimakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Nadakazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Yakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Hakazé	1,215	1920	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Shiokazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Akikazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Yukazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)		—	6
Tachikazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)		—	6

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Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main armaments (centimetre)	High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
Hokazé	1,215	1921	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Nokazé	1,215	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Namikazé	1,215	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Numakazé	1,215	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Kamikazé	1,270	1922	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Asakazé	1,270	1923	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Harukazé	1,270	1923	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Matsukazé	1,270	1924	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Hatakazé	1,270	1924	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Oikazé	1,270	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Hayaté	1,270	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Asanagi	1,270	1924	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yunagi	1,270	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Muzuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Kisaragi	1,315	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yayoi	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Uzuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Satsuki	1,315	1925	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Minazuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Fumizuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Nagatsuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Kikuzuki	1,315	1926	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Mikazuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Mochizuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Yuzuki	1,315	1927	34.0	12(4)	—	6
Fubuki	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shirayuki	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Hatsuyuki	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Murakumo	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shinonomé	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Usugumo	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shirakumo	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Isonami	1,700	1928	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Uranami	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Ayanami	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Shikinami	1,700	1929	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Asagiri	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Yugiri	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Amagiri	1,700	1930	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Sagiri	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Oboro	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Akebono	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Sazanami	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Ushio	1,700	1931	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Akatsuki	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Hibiki	1,700	1933	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Ikazuchi	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Inazuma	1,700	1932	34.0	12.7(6)	—	9
Hatsuharu	1,368	1933	34.0	12.7(5)	—	9
Nenohi	1,368	1933	34.0	12.7(5)	—	9
Wakana	1,378	under construction	34.0	12.7(5)	—	9
Hatsushimo	1,378	1934	34.0	12.7(5)	—	9
Ariaké	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
Yuguré	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Shiratuyu	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Shiguré	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Murasamé	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Yudachi	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Harusamé	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Samidaré	—	,,	—	—	—	—

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Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main armaments (centimetres)	High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
Umikazé	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
Yamakazé	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Kawakazé	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Suzukazé	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Total 76	89,439 (completed ones only)					

2ND CLASS DESTROYERS

Momo	755	1916	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Kashi	755	1917	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Hinoki	755	1917	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Yanagi	755	1917	31.5	12(3)	—	6
Kaya	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Niré	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kuri	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Nashi	770	1919	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Také	770	1919	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kaki	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Tsuga	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kiku	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Aoi	770	1920	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Hagi	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Susuki	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Fuji	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Tsuta	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Ashi	770	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Hishi	700	1921	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Hasu	770	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Sumiré	770	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Yomogi	770	1922	31·5	12(3)	—	4
Tadé	770	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Wakataké	820	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Kuretaké	820	1922	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Sanaé	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Asagao	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Yugao	820	1924	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Fuyo	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Karukaya	820	1923	31.5	12(3)	—	4
Total 30	23,390 tons					

1ST CLASS SUBMARINES

Name	Tonnage (when afloat)	When completed	Speed (when afloat)	Armament (centimetre)	High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
I No. 1	1,955	1926	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 2	1,955	1926	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 3	1,955	1926	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 4	1,955	1929	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 5	1,955	1932	17.0	14(2)	—	6
I No. 6	1,955	under construction		—	—	—
I No. 7	1,955	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 8	1,955	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 21	1,142	1927	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 22	1,142	1927	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 23	1,142	1928	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 24	1,142	1928	14.0	14(1)	—	4
I No. 51	1,390	1924	17.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 52	1,390	1925	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 53	1,635	1927	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 54	1,635	1927	19.0	12(1)	—	8

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Name	Tonnage (when afloat)	When completed	Speed (when afloat)	Armament (centimetre)	High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
I No. 55	1,635	1927	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 56	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 57	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 58	1,635	1928	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 59	1,635	1930	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 60	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 61	1,635	1929	19.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 62	1,635	1930	19.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 63	1,635	1928	19.0	12(1)	—	8
I No. 64	1,635	1930	19.0	12(1)	—	6
I No. 65	1,638	1932	19.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 66	1,638	1932	19.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 67	1,638	1932	19.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 68	1,400	1934	20.0	10(1)	—	6
I No. 69	1,400	under construction	—	—	—	—
I No. 70	1,400	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 71	1,400	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 72	—	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 73	—	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 74	—	,,	—	—	—	—
I No. 75	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Total 37	43,057 tons (completed ones only)					
		2ND CLASS SUBMARINES				
Ro No. 17	735	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 18	735	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 19	735	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 25	735	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 26	746	1923	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 27	746	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 28	745	1923	16.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 29	655	1923	18.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 30	655	1924	18.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 31	655	1927	18.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 32	655	1924	18.0	10(1)	—	4
Ro No. 33	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
Ro No. 34	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Ro No. 51	893	1920	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 53	893	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 54	893	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 55	893	1921	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 56	893	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 57	889	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 58	889	1922	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 59	889	1923	17.0	8(1)	—	4
Ro No. 60	988	1923	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 61	988	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 62	988	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 63	988	1924	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 64	988	1925	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 65	988	1926	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 66	988	1927	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 67	988	1926	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Ro No. 68	988	1925	16.0	8(1)	—	6
Total 30	23,822 tons (completed ones only)					

Note: I and Ro represent first and second letters of the Japanese Alphabet.

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TORPEDO BOATS

Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main Armaments (centimetre)	High angle guns (centimetre)	Torpedo tubes
Chidori	527	1933	26	12(3)		4
Manazuru	527	1934	26	12(3)		4
Tomozuru	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Hatsukari	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Odori	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Hiyodori	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Kasasagi	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Kiji	527	1934	26	12(3)		—
Total 9	2,108 tons					—

MINE SWEEPERS

No. 1	615	1923	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 2	615	1923	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 3	615	1925	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 4	615	1925	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 5	615	1929	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 6	615	1929	20.0	12(2)	8(1)	—
No. 7	1,030	1911	24.0	12(1)	8(4)	—
No. 8	1,030	1911	24.0	12(1)	8(4)	—
No. 9	770	1918	24.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 10	770	1918	24.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 13	492	1934	20.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 14	492	1934	12.0	12(2)	—	—
No. 15	—	under construction	—	—	—	—
No. 16	—	,,	—	—	—	—
No. 17	—	,,	—	—	—	—
No. 18	—	,,	—	—	—	—
Total 16	9,258 tons (completed ones only)					

SPECIAL SERVICE SHIPS

Training Ships

Asahi	11,441	1900	18.2	—	—	—	—
Shikishima	11,275	1900	18.6	—	—	—	—
Fuji	9,179	1897	18.25	—	—	—	—

Target Ships

Settsu	16,130	1912	21.0				

Surveying Ships

Koshu	2,080	—	10.3	8(2)			

Transports

Seito	7,542	1906	10.0			8(2)	
Suzaki	8,800	1918	14.0	12(2)		8(2)	
Muroto	8,215	1918	12.5	12(2)		—	
Nojima	8,215	1919	12.5	12(2)		—	
Shiretoko	14,050	1920	12.0	12(2)		8(2)	
Erimo	14,050	1920	12.0	12(2)		8(2)	
Sata	14,050	1921	12.0	14(2)		8(2)	
Tsurumi	14,050	1922	12.0	14(2)		8(2)	
Shiriya	14,050	1922	12.0	14(2)		8(2)	
Iro	14,050	1922	12.0	14(2)		8(2)	
Ondo	14,050	1923	12.0	14(2)		8(2)	

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Name	Displacement (ton)	When completed	Nominal speed (knot)	Main Armaments (centimetre)	High angle guns (centimetre)
Hayatomo	14,050	1924	12.0	14(2)	8(2)
Naruto	14,050	1924	12.0	14(2)	8(2)
Mamiya	15,820	1924	14.0	14(2)	8(2)
Tsurugizaki	15,820	1924	14.0	14(2)	8(2)
Takasaki	15,820	1924	14.0	14(2)	8(2)
			Ice-breaker		
Ohtomari	2,330	1921	13.0	8(1)	
Total 22	227,477 tons				

The planes

The battle planes in use in the Naval Air Force are of type 3 and type 90. The bombers and torpedo planes in use are of type 13, type 89 and type 92. Some of these machines played an important part in the Sino-Japanese conflict in Shanghai, but some of them are not suitable for an aerial war in the future.

The reconnoitering planes in use are of type 14. They are equipped with a 450 h.p. motor and can cover nearly 200 kilometres an hour. They are armed with a machine-gun mounted behind the seat of the reconnoitering officer, so that he can defend the machine against enemy fire from behind. Their speed is considered too slow for satisfactory service in the future. There are also in use type 15 and type 90.

There are also a few large patrol planes of type 90. No. 1 of these is of metallic material, 21 metres long, 30 metres wide, 12 tons in weight, and is equipped with a number of motors producing 2,100 h.p. in all. Its maximum speed is 220 kilometres an hour. The No. 2 of type 90 is 20 metres long, 30 metres wide, 13 tons in weight, and equipped with motors producing 2,400 h.p. in all. Both of them are superior in capacity to the PN-12 of the American Navy, which has a speed of less than 200 kilometres.

OCCUPANTS OF SENIOR COMMANDS

(July 31, 1935)

Name and Rank		Command
(1) FLEETS AND SQUADRONS:		
Admiral	Sankichi Takahashi	Combined Fleet and 1st Fleet
Vice-Admiral	Mitsumasa Yonai	2nd Fleet
Vice-Admiral	Gengo Hyakutaké	3rd "
(2) YOKOSUKA NAVAL STATION:		
Admiral	Nobumasa Suetsugu	Naval Station
Vice-Admiral	Toyotaro Murata	Naval Dockyard
Vice-Admiral	Kenji Maebara	Naval Aeronautical Arsenal
(3) KURÉ NAVAL STATION:		
Vice-Admiral	Hisanori Fujita	Naval Station
Vice-Admiral	Shigeru Matsushina	Naval Dockyard
(4) SASEBO NAVAL STATION:		
Vice-Admiral	Nobujiro Imamura	Naval Station

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(5) AUXILIARY NAVAL STATIONS:

Vice-Admiral	Hajimé Matsushita	Maizura Auxiliary Station
Rear-Admiral	Chonan Yamaguchi	Ominato ,,
Vice-Admiral	Hiroshi Ono	Mako ,,
Vice-Admiral	Seizaburo Kobayashi	Chinkai ,,
Rear-Admiral	Kichijiro Hamada	Ryojun ,,
Vice-Admiral	Shidzué Tsuda	Manchoukuo Naval Office
Rear-Admiral	Teiryo Araki	Landing Party at Shanghai

Presidents of Naval Schools

Vice-Admiral	Tsugumatsu Inoué	Naval War College
,,	Koshiro Oikawa	Naval College
,,	Muneyoshi Ueda	Naval Engineering College
Surgeon Rear-Admiral	Yoshiro Mukoyama	Naval Medical College
Paymaster Vice-Admiral	Yasuo Ikebé	Naval Paymasters' College
Rear-Admiral	Keigi Tabata	Naval Gunnery School
,,	Jugoro Arichi	Torpedo School
,,	Satoshi Furihata	Naval Communications School
Vice-Admiral	Hoichi Wanami	Submarine School
Rear-Admiral	Tomisaburo Otagaki	Navigation School
,,	Hiroshi Kawahara	Naval Mechanists' School

Naval Promotion

Officers are promoted by selection, and candidates for special promotion are selected at the conference of the Admirals' Council.

The regular course of promotion for them is: Midshipmen, over one year's service on a training ship; 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over one year's service; 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over 18 months' service, including 6 months' service in Torpedo or Gunnery School. Lieutenants of over 4 years' service are promoted to Lieutenant-Commander.

Special service 1st Sub-Lieutenants, over two years' service; Special service 2nd Sub-Lieutenants, over three years' service. Special service Lieutenants (combatants, engineers and paymasters) may be promoted to Lieutenant-Commander by special appointment.

The qualifications for subsequent promotion are as follows:

Promotion	Minimum Service in Lower Rank
Commanders—Lieutenant-Commanders	2 years
Captains—Commanders	2 ,,
Rear-Admirals—Captains	2 ,,
Vice-Admirals—Rear-Admirals	2
Admirals—Vice-Admirals	Period determined by Imperial order subject to special merit

N. B. 1st class warrant or ranking officer of over 6 years in the service may be promoted to 1st Lieutenant or ranking officer.

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CHAPTER VIII

PUBLIC FINANCE

General Outline

The total revenue and expenditure of the Japanese Government at the beginning of the Meiji Era were maintained around the ¥30,000,000 mark, but in recent years they have reached as high as from ¥1,500,000,000 to ¥1,800,000,000 each (for general accounts only).[1]

Sources of Income Early in the Meiji Era the land tax constituted the chief financial source of revenue for the State, consequently the farmers provided by far the greater part of the revenue, and the burden business men and industrialists had to bear for the State was very small. The tax revenue in the first year of Meiji amounted to ¥3,150,000, of which the land tax yielded more than 60 per cent. A tax revision was carried out in 1875 and, in consequence, the Government established various new taxes as direct sources of State income.

The Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars also brought about noteworthy changes in the State finances, because the necessary funds were raised by the issuance of bonds and the imposition of heavy taxes on people. As the Taisho Era coincided with the World War and post-war prosperity periods it was marked by phenomenal business and industrial expansion and increase in State revenue. During this time it became more than apparent that a thorough readjustment of the tax system was necessary, if the burden of taxation was to be equitably distributed. A thorough investigation was made, and after much forethought and drawing on experiences of the past the present system was evolved. The yearly tax revenue in recent years has been around ¥900,000,000, which is 60 per cent. of the total State expenditure. The customs tariff, because of its international aspect was harder to arrange and the adoption of a national tariff by Japan instead of a conventional one was only realized after difficult diplomatic negotiations.

Japan has a monopoly system of its own, and though a monopoly differs from a tax in principle it is the same in substance. In Japan proper there is a government monopoly in tobacco, salt and camphor and in the colonies one is enforced in saké, opium, ginseng and other special products. The tobacco monopoly is not different in nature from the excise tax on saké distillation and the revenue accruing from it occupies an important position in government finance. It is thus necessary, to obtain a complete understanding of the financial system of Japan, not to ignore the monopoly.

Bonds form an integral part of the country's finance as well as the State revenue and taxes. Bonds were first issued in Japan in 1870 in the form of foreign loans. The first domestic bonds were issued in 1873 by the Meiji Government for the purpose of raising funds to take over the entire amount of debts of the feudal clans. Subsequent issues of bonds followed the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japa-

1 For a detailed historical account of public finances see The Japan Year Book, 1933, Chapter IX.

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nese wars. The nationalization of the railways caused a further increase in the bond issue and at the end of 1912, the closing year of the Meiji Era, the total debts of the Central Government amounted to ¥2,500,000,000. During, and immediately after the Great War, there was great activity in financial circles and the Government made large issues of bonds for the purpose of obtaining funds for starting or subsidizing various new industries. The expenses of the Siberian Expedition and Japan's participation in the World War on the Allies' side were met by bond issues as emergency funds and later, the money necessary for the reconstruction of Tokyo and other Kwanto districts devastated by the great earthquake and fire of 1923 was also raised by means of domestic and foreign bonds. The Government also had to issue a great number of bonds for readjustment of the so-called Earthquake Bills and for special loan accommodation to banks after the banking crisis of 1927. Japan's national debts have thus mounted to more than ¥6,000,000,000.

Local Finance Provincial government finance has moved in line with the Central Government finance. The feudal clans were abolished and replaced by prefectural governments in July, 1871, and the total prefectural finance was only ¥16,000,000 in 1873. The promulgation of the city, town and village administration system in 1888 and that of the prefectural administrative system in 1890 were great events marking the establishment of self-government. Provincial expenditure which amounted to ¥43,000,000 in 1891, had increased to ¥836,000,000 by 1926, the largest increase being in the Taisho Era, when, benefiting from the effects of the war-boom on domestic finance and economy and following the lead and encouragement of the Central Government, the prefectural and other self-governing bodies launched all kinds of enterprises, issuing bonds and increasing local taxes to obtain the necessary funds. In the fiscal year 1927-28 the total revenue of all self-governing bodies amounted to ¥2,247,827,513, although it dwindled in subsequent years, the fiscal year 1932-1933, showing a figure of ¥1,473,451,698.

Accounts System

In the second year of Meiji, 1869, Shigenobu Okuma (later Marquis Okuma) submitted to the Government a plan calling for the establishment of an accounts system to prevent a reckless disbursement of administrative expenses. In due course, and as a result of this plan, a Ministry of Finance and a fiscal year starting with October and ending with September were instituted. When Hirobumi Ito (later Prince Ito) came home from his inspecting trip to America in 1873, he offered valuable advice to the Government on a financial system and this caused the Government to announce its estimates of accounts. This marked an important point in the accounts system of Japan as it was the prototype of the Government budget, but because of the lack of system, the budget of each Ministry was subject to change by the administrative chief. The fiscal year was changed to from April to March in 1886, and has been so observed since. The opening of the Imperial Diet in 1890 brought about a great improvement in the accounts system of Japan, for each budget has since been subject to approval, and Government income and expenditure has thus come under supervision. The Board of Audit under direct control of the Emperor was also established and to it is assigned the duty of inspecting the

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Government accounts. These perfected the constitutional accounts system of the Government and at the same time the Accounts Law was promulgated in 1889 and has been enforced since April 1, 1890. This law laid the foundation of the accounts system of Japan and in 1921 it was revised from the so-called "safe" system to the "deposit" system, i. e. the depositing of Government funds in the Bank of Japan.

Special Accounts

Special accounts for the Government's enterprises existed independently of general accounts, before the promulgation of the Accounts Law in 1889. Railway funds, readjustment loans, enterprise funds, hypothec funds and others were included among the special accounts, which were unified by a law issued in 1889. The number of special accounts for the 1890-91 fiscal year was 33, which increased to 61 in 1908. Mr. Yuko Hamaguchi, Finance Minister of the Katō (Takaaki) Cabinet, made a substantial readjustment of special accounts in 1925 and reduced the number to 31. Subsequently, the health insurance special accounts, the postal annuity special accounts and live-stock reinsurance special accounts were established. In 1934 government steel works was omitted and communication enterprises was put into the list instead. The present number of special accounts is 34 and is as follows: (1) China Cultural Enterprise, (2) Health Insurance, (3) Government Mint, (4) Printing Bureau, (5) Monopoly Bureau, (6) Deposits Bureau, (7) Education Funds, (8) National Loan Readjustment Funds, (9) Public Loans, (10) Indemnity, (11) National Property Readjustment Funds, (12) Education Improvement and Agricultural Village Promotion Funds, (13) Korean Government-General, (14) Korean Railway Stores Funds, (15) Formosan Government-General, (16) Formosan Railway Stores Funds, (17) Kwantung Government, (18) Karafuto Government, (19) South Seas Government, (20) Army Arsenals, (21) Senju Military Cloth Manufactory, (22) Naval Arsenals, (23) Naval Gunpowder Magazines, (24) Naval Fuel Factories, (25) Imperial Universities, (26) Government Colleges, (27) Government Schools and Libraries, (28) Rice Demand and Supply Regulation, (29) Live-Stock Reinsurance, (30) Post Office Life Insurance, (31) Korean Post Office Life Insurance, (32) Postal Annuity Service, (33) Imperial Government Railways, and (34) Communication Enterprises.

Finance of Sino-Japanese War

The Sino-Japanese War imparted a great impetus to Japanese finance. The war started in June, 1894, and ended in March, 1895. The enormous amount of ₹200,000,000 was needed to pay for it.

Japan got 200,000,000 taels of war indemnity from China as the result of the Shimonoseki Peace Treaty and also 35,000,000 taels as recompense for the retrocession of Liaotung Peninsula. This amount made good the war expenses Japan paid, but immediately after it State finance increased tremendously. The Government appropriated ₹190,000,000 into the general budget for the 1896-97 fiscal year, being double that of the year before. The increase was caused through armament expansion, the management of Formosa (which was the territory ceded by China), expansion of traffic and communications and sundry other enterprises necessary for national development. The Government appropriated for 32 kinds of continuation enterprises ₹180,000,000 in 1896

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and of this amount ¥48,000,000 was apportioned for that year only. The majority of continuation enterprises were armament expansion such as ¥47,000,000 for warship construction, ¥33,000,000 for naval ordnance, ¥17,000,000 for army expenses, and ¥14,000,000 for naval construction. These enterprises spread over from two to nine years. It is necessary to explain the war indemnity special accounts to know the financial expansion. Converted into the Japanese currency, the indemnity totalled ¥372,599,488. Excluding the maintenance funds for the Weihaiwei guard, the indemnity of ¥364,599,656 was used for the following purposes:

All supplementary funds to extraordinary war funds	¥ 78,957,164
Army expansion funds	56,798,638
Navy expansion funds	139,259,397
Establishment of Government Steel Works	579,762
Transferred to general accounts for 1897-98 fiscal year	3,214,484
Transferred to general accounts for 1898-99 fiscal year	12,000,000
Transferred to Imperial Household accounts	20,000,000
Warship and torpedo funds	30,000,000
Educational funds	10,000,000
Balance at the end of 1902-3 fiscal year	3,700,218

Russo-Japanese War and Post-War Finance

The Russo-Japanese War began in February of 1904 and ended in September of 1905 with the conclusion of the Portsmouth Treaty. Japan spent ¥1,716,000,000 in war expenses (extraordinary war funds special accounts) during the period of one year and four months. In addition, extraordinary expenses spent by various Ministries in connection with the War amounted to ¥238,000,000, thus making an aggregate of ¥1,954,000,000. The war funds were raised by means of taxes to the amount of ¥215,000,000, surplus funds totalling ¥147,000,000, special funds of ¥670,000,000 (an aggregate of ¥430,000,000), and the remainder by floating public loans and obtaining temporary advances totalling ¥1,559,000,000. The Government increased taxes on all the principal items on the tax list and also expanded the spheres of the oil consumption tax and the tobacco monopoly system, thereby raising ¥62,000,000. It also established the textile consumption tax and transit tax and introduced the salt monopoly, thereby realizing an income of ¥74,000,000. During the time the War was in progress, four new Divisions were formed with the approval of the Diet. In the 1906-7 fiscal year two more Divisions were established. In consequence, six Divisions were added to the existing 18 Divisions and these constituted the standing army. In the Navy, two warships, the Nisshin and Kasuga, were purchased during the War, and after the War naval expansion was carried out, resulting in the increase of total warship tonnage from 260,000 tons before the War to 513,000 tons in 1908. The railway nationalization bill was approved in the 22nd session of the Imperial Diet and was enforced in 1907. The Government issued ¥476,000,000 bonds for the purpose of nationalization. A considerable increase was made in State expenditure after the War. The 1904-5 fiscal year's expenditure of the general accounts totalling ¥277,000,000 increased to ¥600,000,000 in 1907 and those of the special accounts made a remarkable increase from ¥130,000,000 to ¥678,000,000 during the same period. In tax revenue, the amount of

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¥190,000,000 for 1904 doubled by 1907. Cries for financial retrenchment began to be heard. The Saionji Cabinet and the second Katsura Cabinet tried to retrench but without success.

Finance during the Taisho Era

A financial retrenchment policy was adopted by the Government early in the Taisho Era. Japan's foreign trade witnessed a marked increase in the excess of imports and its national debts increased heavily. The specie reserve quickly dwindled. How to bring about an equilibrium in the international debit and credit relations formed a source of great concern. A great change was made in Japan's financial and economic conditions by the outbreak of the World War in July, 1914. Japan participated in the War on the Allies' side and sent its expeditionary force to Shantung. The Okuma Cabinet was responsible for Japan's participation. Prior to this, a two-Division increase controversy formed the cause of the downfall of the Saionji Cabinet, but the outbreak of the War solved the problem. Two army divisions were established in Korea. The army readjustment plan, the eight-four squadron programme, naval construction and other wartime expenses contributed to a financial expansion. The Government expenditure for the 1918-19 fiscal year totalled more than ¥1,000,000,000, showing a 40 per cent. gain over the year before. The continuation expenses commencing with the 1918-19 fiscal year totalled more than ¥1,000,000,000. The Government revised taxes, raised the income tax by 15 per cent., alcoholic drink tax by 14 per cent. and beer tax by 20 per cent. and established a wartime profit tax, the result being an increased revenue of ¥63,000,000.

The World War Japanese economic prosperity attained its high-water mark during the World War. A considerable increase was made in the country's visible and invisible foreign trade. An excess of exports over imports in the visible trade for 1915, 1916, 1917 and 1918 recorded an aggregate of ¥1,400,000,000 and that in the invisible trade reached nearly the same amount. This resulted in a remarkable increase of specie. The amount of specie holdings at the end of 1914 was only ¥340,000,000, but this had increased to as much as ¥2,180,000,000 by the end of 1920. The Hara Cabinet which replaced the Terauchi Cabinet in September, 1918, took advantage of the war-time boom to carry out an inflation policy, funds being specially allotted to armament replenishment and to the perfecting of traffic and communication arrangements. In connection with the completion of the eight-eight battle squadron programme, sponsored by the navy, the continuation expenses of ¥408,000,000 for warship construction were increased by ¥750,000,000. National defence expenses involving the army and navy totalled ¥620,000,000, of which ¥242,000,000 was for the army and the rest for the navy. A new appropriation of ¥225,000,000 was added to the existing appropriation of ¥292,000,000 for the telephone enterprise, to be disbursed over eight years commencing 1920; and in the telegraphic enterprises ¥74,000,000 was to be spent in the following seven years. The enormous amount of ¥1,420,000,000 was set aside for railway enterprises, spread over 10 years. The Government expenditure for the 1922-23 fiscal year totalled ¥1,491,000,000. To raise this amount bonds were issued, the sinking fund was suspended and taxes increased. The great financial reaction that

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overtook Japan in 1920 and the great Kwanto earthquake and fire of 1923 precipitated Japanese finance and economy into a miserable plight. These incidents virtually formed the causes of the difficulties in national finance and economy which now faced the country.

Financial Readjustment The Katō (Tomosaburo) Cabinet carried out a great financial readjustment. The Washington Treaty was ratified in Japan in August, 1922. According to the 1923-24 fiscal year's budget formulated by this Cabinet the basic naval plan was so changed that the Government reduced naval continuation expenses by ¥200,000,000 and was also able to make a cut of ¥70,000,000 in other enterprises. Substantial cuts were made in the income, business, stamp and drug taxes and the oil consumption tax was abolished. The reduction totalled ¥14,000,000. The sinking fund system was restored and ¥42,000,000 was devoted to it. Immediately after the death of Premier Viscount Katō in August, 1923, the great Kwanto earthquake took place. The disbursement of ¥572,000,000 on a six-year programme for earthquake reconstruction work was fixed by the Yamamoto Cabinet that succeeded the Kato Cabinet, and all these expenses were to be raised by bonds. The Yamamoto Cabinet was in existence for only four months and the Kiyoura Cabinet, which succeeded it, had to enforce the plan. The Government raised a £25,000,000 loan in London and a $150,000,000 loan in New York. These foreign loans totalled ¥550,000,000, and of this ¥350,000,000 was devoted to the conversion of sterling bonds, which matured in February and July, 1925, and the remaining amount was used for earthquake and fire reconstruction. A financial retrenchment policy was adopted by the Coalition Cabinet headed by Premier Count Takaaki Kato of the Kenseikai. The Cabinet was inducted in June, 1924. To begin with, a no-loan policy was adopted by the Cabinet and taxation readjustment was also enforced. An independent Kenseikai Cabinet took the place of the Coalition Cabinet in March, 1925. Thoroughgoing revision was introduced into the income, land, business, inheritance, saké, textile consumption and hemp taxes. The transit, soy sauce, and drug taxes were revised and the capital interest and soft drink taxes were created. A reduction of ¥37,000,000 in taxes was realized for the 1926-27 fiscal year.

Finance of the Showa Era

For the first six years of Showa, 1926-32, two Seiyukai and two Minseito Cabinets came into power in turn. The former stands for a traditional inflation policy, while the latter for a deflation policy. Financial retrenchment was carried out by the Minseito Cabinet and the gold embargo was lifted by the Hamaguchi Cabinet (Minseito) on January 11, 1930. Mr. Junnosuké Inouyé, Finance Minister of that Cabinet, adopted a no-loan policy. A noteworthy financial retrenchment was carried out by Mr. Inouyé in the 1930-31 fiscal year's budget and, in spite of a strenuous protest of the army and navy against the retrenchment, he was successful in effecting a saving of ¥35,063,000, of which ¥26,733,000 was the result of reduction of administrative expenses and ¥8,330,000 by the postponement of different enterprises.

The reduction is classified as follows according to various Ministries :

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Ministries	Amounts saved in administrative expenses	Expenses saved by postponing enterprises	Total amount saved
	(In ¥1,000)		
Foreign	241	—	241
Home	5,114	1,669	6,783
Finance	1,361	433	1,795
War	6,694	1,164	7,858
Marine	4,731	2,536	7,267
Justice	894	8	903
Education	883	589	1,472
Agriculture and Forestry	1,843	1,638	3,481
Commerce and Industry	287	171	2,502
Overseas	2,347	—	2,347
Total	26,733	8,330	35,063

The Inukai Cabinet that succeeded the Wakatsuki Cabinet on December 16, 1931, decided to adopt the budget drafted by the preceding Cabinet, due to lack of time to formulate a new one. However, the new Cabinet determined not to abolish the Overseas Ministry and other administrative organizations, which were decided on by the Wakatsuki Cabinet, but decided to carry out administrative readjustment. The sinking fund system was temporarily suspended and the deficient income was to be met by loans.

Revenue and Expenditure, 1868 to 1935

The revenue and expenditures from 1868 to 1935 are given below:

	General accounts		Special accounts		Tax Revenue
	Revenue	Expenditures	Revenue	Expenditures	
	(In ¥1,000)				
1st period	33,089	30,505	—	—	3,157
6th period	85,507	62,679	—	—	65,015
1882	73,508	73,481	—	—	67,789
1887	88,161	79,453	—	—	66,255
1890	106,469	82,125	53,404	25,621	69,251
1895	118,483	85,317	160,925	106,216	70,843
1900	295,855	292,750	120,461	151,038	133,926
1905	535,256	420,741	246,981	192,188	251,275
1910	672,874	569,154	1,167,642	968,752	317,236
1915	708,616	583,270	899,612	657,156	312,745
1920	2,000,652	1,359,978	3,043,119	2,265,338	696,257
1925	2,071,369	1,524,989	3,236,475	2,663,719	894,809
1926	2,056,361	1,578,826	3,047,909	2,451,295	886,999
1927	2,062,755	1,765,723	3,447,764	2,832,532	898,673
1928	2,005,691	1,814,855	3,541,024	2,844,398	915,910
1929	1,826,445	1,736,317	3,724,214	3,063,458	893,505
1930	1,596,972	1,557,864	3,549,582	3,052,108	835,041
1931	1,531,062	1,476,875	3,191,786	2,691,390	735,504
1932	2,045,275	1,950,141	4,199,402	3,622,793	695,837
1933[1]	2,331,759	2,254,662	5,456,664	5,117,628	748,566
1934[2]	2,142,528	2,142,528	7,271,077	6,883,589	755,268
1935[2]	2,193,414	2,193,414	—	—	828,741

Note:
The financial year begins on April 1st and ends on March 31st of the following year.
The figures for 1932-33 and the years preceding it represent the settled accounts.
[1] Represent the actual account on July 31, 1933.
[2] Represent the budget.

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Budget for the Fiscal Year 1934-35

The Budget Estimates for the fiscal year 1934-35, comprising those for the General Account and Special Accounts, passed the Diet in the 65th Session (December 1933 to March 1934). Of these, the Budget for the General Account, inclusive of the Supplementary Budget, is balanced at ¥2,142,528,079, as the following table shows :

Revenue	
Ordinary	¥ 1,248,543,502
Extraordinary	893,984,577
Normal Revenue	63,367,450
Receipts from the Issue of Public Loans	811,189,439
Transfer of Surplus from the Preceding Year	19,427,688
Total	2,142,528,079
Expenditure	
Ordinary	1,247,562,234
Extraordinary	894,965,845
Total	2,142,528,079

It should be noted that a Special Account for Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services was created as from April 1, 1934, and with respect to such services no appropriations were made in the Budget for the General Account for the fiscal year 1934-35.

Comparison of 1934-35 with 1933-34 General Account. The Budget for 1934-35 shows, in comparison with the Budget for 1933-34, a decline of ¥177,976,146 in revenue and expenditure respectively. This decline is explained by the fact that the postal, telegraph and telephone services, for which appropriations had been formerly made in the Budget for the General Account, were segregated into a Special Account as from April 1, 1934. If, however, the appropriations for postal, telegraph, and telephone services are separated from the Budget for the General Account for 1933-34 and such a Budget is called for the sake of convenience the "Adjusted" Budget, the Budget for 1934-35 will show an increase of ¥13,188,939 over the figures of ¥2,129,339,140 of the "Adjusted" Budget for 1933-34. The following are the comparisons of the Budget for 1934-35 with the Budget for 1933-34 and the "Adjusted" Budget for 1933-34 :

	Budget 1934-35	Budget 1933-34	x "Adjusted" Budget 1933-34	Increase(+) or Decrease(−) compared with Budget 1933-34	Increase(+) or Decrease(−) compared with "Adjusted" Budget 1933-34
Revenue	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen
Ordinary	1,248,543,502	1,292,203,029	1,115,507,779	(−) 43,659,527	(+)133,035,723
Extraordinary	893,984,577	1,028,301,196	1,013,831,361	(−)134,316,619	(−)119,846,784
Normal Revenue	63,367,450	55,912,967	56,746,730	(+) 7,454,483	(+) 6,620,720
Receipts from the Issue of Public Loans	811,189,439	919,084,226	903,780,628	(−)107,894,787	(−) 92,591,189
Transfer of Surplus from the Preceding Year	19,427,688	23,304,003	23,304,003	(−) 3,876,315	(−) 3,876,315
Borrowings	0	30,000,000	30,000,000	(−) 30,000,000	(+) 30,000,000
Total	2,142,528,079	2,320,504,225	2,129,339,140	(−)177,976,146	(+) 13,188,939

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Expenditure	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen
Ordinary	1,247,562,234	1,374,669,853	1,209,226,114	(−)127,107,619	(+) 38,336,120
Extraordinary	894,965,845	945,834,372	920,113,026	(−) 50,868,527	(−) 25,147,181
Total	2,142,528,079	2,320,504,225	2,129,339,140	(−)177,976,146	(+) 13,188,939

Note:—(1) For comparison with the Budget for 1934-35, certain adjustments were made in the figures of the Budget for 1933-34.

(2) x The "Adjusted" Budget represents the Budget as calculated, for the sake of convenience, by excluding the estimated revenue and expenditure for postal, telegraph and telephone services from the Budget for the General Account for 1933-34.

Special Accounts. As the Special Account for Imperial Iron Works was abolished on March 31, 1934 and the Special Account for Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services was created as from April 1, 1934, there are, at present, 34 Special Accounts. The Budget for 1934-35 for the most important Special Accounts and comparisons with the Budget for 1933-34 are as follows:

(a) Imperial Government Railways' Special Account

	Budget 1934-35	Budget 1933-34	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1933-34
Capital Account	Yen	Yen	Yen
Revenue	113,133,216	104,824,844	(+) 8,308,372
Expenditure	121,633,216	104,824,844	(+) 16,808,372
Stores Account			
Revenue	188,160,000	166,659,000	(+) 21,501,000
Expenditure	188,160,000	166,659,000	(+) 21,501,000
Profit and Loss Account			
Revenue	674,887,694	583,806,247	(+) 91,081,447
Expenditure	611,754,478	528,981,403	(+) 82,773,075

(b) Special Account for Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services

	Budget 1934-35	*Budget 1933-34	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1933-34
Capital Account	Yen	Yen	Yen
Revenue	35,813,338	27,399,426	(+) 8,413,912
Expenditure	35,313,338	27,399,426	(+) 8,413,912
Stores Account			
Revenue	34,472,677	28,243,555	(+) 6,229,122
Expenditure	34,472,677	28,243,555	(+) 6,229,122
Working Account			
Revenue	273,324,351	242,599,686	(+) 30,724,665
Expenditure	264,126,381	239,871,650	(+) 24,254,731

Note:—* The Special Account for Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services did not exist in the fiscal year 1933-34, nevertheless, the figures were given for comparison in the above table by separating the amounts coming under such items from the Budget for the General Account for 1933-34.

(c) Special Accounts for Special Regions

	Budget 1934-35	Budget 1933-34	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1933-34
(1) Chōsen (Korea)	Yen	Yen	Yen
Revenue	258,604,398	232,026,949	(+) 26,577,449
Expenditure	258,591,605	232,026,949	(+) 26,564,656
(2) Taiwan (Formosa)			
Revenue	110,821,261	104,085,344	(+) 6,735,917
Expenditure	110,821,261	103,160,243	(+) 7,661,018
(3) Kwantung	22,911,058	27,182,812	(−) 4,271,754
(4) Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien)	25,929,056	23,566,668	(+) 2,362,388
(5) Nanyō (Mandated Territories in the Pacific)	5,635,675	5,628,918	(+) 6,757

Note:—In the Special Accounts coming under (3), (4), and (5) revenue and expenditure balance exactly.

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Public Loan Programme The issue of public loans for financing expenditure for the General Account and Special Accounts amounts during the current year to ¥907,167,975, representing a decrease of ¥104,642,894 compared with that in the Budget for 1933-34. The public loan programme for the fiscal year 1934-35 and comparisons with that of the preceding year are as follows:

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Items	1934-35	1933-34	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) compared with 1933-34
	Yen	Yen	Yen
Loans for reconstruction works necessitated by the Earthquake of 1923	12,306,737	17,459,689	(−) 5,152,952
Loans for the improvement of roads	6,590,000	16,676,966	(−) 10,086,966
Loans for the expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident	159,825,902	186,830,572	(−) 27,004,670
Loans for the covering of revenue deficits	632,966,800	683,813,401	(−) 50,846,601
Total	811,189,439	903,780,628	(−) 92,591,189

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

Loans for postal, telegraph and telephone services and for reconstruction works necessitated by the Earthquake of 1923	15,000,000	15,303,598	(−) 303,598
Loans for the construction and improvement of Government Railways	48,000,000	48,000,000	0
Loans for public undertakings in Chōsen and for the expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident	29,478,536	33,000,000	(−) 3,521,464
Loans for public undertakings in Taiwan	0	5,000,000	(−) 5,000,000
Loans for the expenditure in connection with the Manchurian incident in Kwantung Province	0	3,226,643	(−) 3,226,643
Loans for public undertakings in Karafuto	3,500,000	3,500,000	0
Total	95,978,536	108,030,241	(−) 12,051,705
Grand Total	907,167,975	1,011,810,869	(−)104,642,894

For purposes of comparison the State revenue and expenditure in recent years are shown below:

REVENUE

(in yen)

Sources of revenue	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34 (Budget)	1934-35 (Budget)
ORDINARY:					
Taxes:	835,041,051	735,504,074	695,837,069	692,034,720	775,263,313
Land tax	68,035,367	63,915,946	58,348,487	58,255,186	58,265,471
Income tax	200,616,410	144,501,197	136,131,821	138,103,700	165,076,524
Business tax	56,772	27,604	9,416	—	—
Business profit tax	54,286,406	37,904,278	35,282,349	36,124,923	44,225,189
Capital interest tax	15,651,846	14,770,665	14,253,351	14,961,260	14,443,418
Inheritance tax	32,904,624	30,160,882	30,216,086	26,017,260	28,781,666
Travelling tax	—	—	—	—	—
Mining tax	4,997,553	3,751,774	3,054,349	2,878,443	3,296,762
Tax on issue of bank notes	7,439,373	8,998,010	13,831,136	—	—
Tax on saké	218,854,670	188,798,530	177,395,900	180,459,356	218,571,876
Tax on soy	—	215	—	—	—

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Sources of revenue	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34 (Budget)	1934-35 (Budget)
Table water tax	3,639,910	3,266,374	3,030,649	3,172,529	3,409,195
Sugar excise	77,889,447	77,386,223	72,654,205	74,145,443	74,429,432
Textile consumption tax	33,884,188	33,743,169	29,149,519	30,099,336	30,669,690
Kerosene oil consumption tax	—	—	—	—	—
Tax on bourses	9,123,622	11,755,984	14,958,443	11,896,058	17,462,343
Customs duties	105,879,643	114,274,206	105,875,066	113,667,897	114,273,178
Tonnage dues	2,280,912	2,235,059	2,146,885	2,250,827	2,328,569
Other taxes	—	—	—	—	—
Stamp receipts	69,704,464	65,433,562	66,633,502	67,317,988	73,607,645
Receipts from Government undertakings and properties:	487,860,048	472,706,101	466,741,279	461,192,870	254,923,745
Postal, telegraph and telephone services	229,263,789	229,139,387	243,019,626	242,439,355	—
Forests	38,810,223	35,143,501	31,157,804	31,224,675	35,126,571
Profits on monopolies	198,339,282	190,461,252	177,906,626	178,317,203	188,155,406
Other receipts from Government undertakings and properties	21,446,753	17,961,960	14,657,221	14,211,637	31,641,768
Payment by the Bank of Japan	—	—	—	—	78,000,000
Transferred from Special Account for Deposits	—	—	—	27,343,311	25,298,761
Transferred from Special Accounts for Deposits Bureau, Ministry of Finance	6,000,000	8,700,000	8,700,000	8,700,000	—
Transferred from Special Accounts of Funds for educational improvement and agrarian development	7,085,797	7,491,954	7,726,458	8,437,576	8,044,757
Other miscellaneous receipts	16,358,187	25,076,167	41,400,583	27,163,822	33,405,281
Total	1,422,059,549	1,314,911,859	1,287,038,893	1,292,195,287	1,248,543,502
EXTRAORDINARY:					
Proceeds of sale of State property	4,400,640	3,645,716	4,446,878	3,918,100	5,779,357
Miscellaneous receipts	17,229,505	14,390,285	11,327,967	19,027,612	21,003,44
Local payment toward expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	2,696,149	2,725,883	5,670,880	7,858,227	6,299,145
Local contributions to expenses incurred by the State for the benefit of certain prefectures	4,619,110	8,736,650	11,940,383	12,004,717	7,182,022
Funds belonging to Special Accounts transferred	14,235,796	6,870,023	7,234,501	8,745,765	9,589,689
Receipts from the issue of public loans	38,000,329	120,272,407	659,592,654	919,084,226	811,189,439
Payment from insurance companies	3,390,817	3,595,110	3,438,472	3,520,788	3,520,788
War profits tax	215	8,180	234	—	—
Transfer of the surplus of the preceding year	90,127,696	39,108,436	54,206,777	23,304,003	19,427,688
Receipts under the Export Credits Guarantee System	14,912	93,259	133,675	796,000	796,000
Other miscellaneous receipts	197,946	16,724,229	244,252	30,049,500	9,247,000
Total	174,912,618	216,170,183	758,236,675	1,028,308,938	893,984,577
Total revenue	1,596,972,168	1,531,082,042	2,045,275,568	2,320,504,225	2,142,528,079

EXPENDITURE

(in yen)

Branches of expenditure	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34 (Budget)	1934-35 (Budget)
ORDINARY:					
Imperial Household	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000	4,500,000

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Branches of expenditure	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34 (Budget)	1934-35 (Budget)
Foreign Affairs:	16,152,205	15,221,321	15,653,651	16,602,999	16,954,613
Department proper	3,220,628	3,127,719	3,184,236	3,569,389	3,826,819
Embassies, Legations and Consulates abroad	12,552,758	11,747,422	12,010,395	11,810,811	11,807,540
Other expenses	368,818	346,179	459,019	1,622,808	1,320,254
Home Affairs:	45,718,707	44,546,207	49,823,408	51,012,168	49,651,515
Department proper	793,009	707,040	668,159	741,573	765,050
Prefectures (Do, Fu and Ken)	11,548,550	10,563,654	10,112,656	10,455,971	10,403,018
Other expenses	33,377,147	33,275,511	39,042,592	39,814,624	38,483,447
Finance:	313,913,022	251,453,075	326,517,411	441,472,367	435,604,222
Department proper	911,667	890,292	919,052	997,170	965,492
Interest on deposits and charges for its payment	—	—	—	—	—
Cabinet and Privy Council	1,095,200	989,117	1,041,818	1,063,670	1,058,857
House of Peers and House of Representatives	4,015,284	3,208,631	3,705,057	3,511,733	3,515,559
Court of Administrative Litigation and Board of Audit	582,410	535,224	545,883	576,559	589,275
Customs houses	4,362,604	4,178,130	4,493,043	4,396,515	4,392,166
Expenses for collection of inland tax	13,145,401	16,375,551	16,258,269	15,210,882	15,729,535
Transferred to National Debt Depreciation Funds	272,517,093	213,844,134	241,490,375	376,897,540	378,950,119
Other expenses	12,353,360	11,411,992	58,073,909	38,818,298	30,403,219
Army:	174,546,262	163,679,857	148,266,001	172,119,220	168,656,052
Department proper	690,285	652,677	611,021	613,191	613,191
Expenses for military affairs	173,034,526	162,029,480	146,499,049	170,755,835	167,219,177
Other expenses	821,350	997,696	1,155,930	750,204	823,684
Marine:	6,867,986	138,913,635	140,740,137	176,822,411	199,337,475
Department proper	557,285	521,334	485,551	485,575	485,575
Expenses for naval affairs	145,699,175	137,705,946	139,554,189	177,798,596	198,813,660
Other expenses	710,478	685,904	700,406	538,240	538,240
Justice:	33,848,715	31,764,748	31,840,213	34,603,396	33,344,999
Department proper	350,591	442,476	418,065	521,264	522,064
Judicial Courts	19,246,651	17,964,764	17,714,021	18,800,702	18,911,504
Prisons	14,202,286	13,301,551	13,651,234	15,156,036	13,788,461
Other expenses	48,936	55,956	56,892	125,394	122,970
Education:	131,207,607	129,224,601	128,031,939	129,280,973	129,639,771
Department proper	3,116,096	2,596,711	2,750,269	2,526,620	2,468,685
Educational institutions and libraries	31,297,188	30,596,509	29,490,412	30,680,475	31,061,816
Other expenses	96,794,323	96,031,380	95,791,257	96,073,878	96,089,770
Agriculture and Forestry	31,777,449	28,133,809	28,085,979	28,880,947	29,784,897
Department proper	1,413,822	1,362,002	1,328,401	1,405,261	1,502,413
Forestry expenses	24,822,431	21,128,380	20,045,972	20,822,064	20,742,434
Other expenses	5,541,195	5,642,426	6,711,605	7,153,622	7,490,050
Commerce and Industry:	5,002,153	4,735,517	4,616,857	5,284,451	5,346,489
Department proper	1,439,098	1,377,524	1,370,333	1,544,676	1,562,556
Patent Bureau and Mining Inspection Office	1,374,334	1,257,861	1,241,721	1,227,236	1,244,549
Other expenses	2,188,225	2,100,130	2,004,802	2,512,539	2,539,384
Communications:	296,218,812	297,306,346	302,665,987	319,163,199	172,820,376
Department proper	1,566,319	1,401,217	1,406,936	1,493,202	1,038,435
Communications expenses	143,868,457	140,312,670	139,438,036	143,340,392	1,287,317
Pensions and annuities	149,116,208	153,957,904	160,153,798	168,545,693	169,101,343
Other expenses	1,667,341	1,636,554	1,667,216	1,783,912	1,443,281
Overseas Affairs:	2,579,811	2,343,024	2,121,029	1,954,106	1,971,825
Department proper	796,872	739,869	707,090	717,254	718,454
Other expenses	1,582,988	1,603,154	1,413,939	1,236,852	1,253,371
Total	1,202,152,685	1,111,824,193	1,182,862,616	1,374,696,347	1,247,562,234

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Branches of expenditure	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34 (Budget)	1934-35 (Budget)
EXTRAORDINARY:					
Foreign Affairs	3,317,370	3,248,457	20,081,925	13,385,047	10,905,941
Home Affairs	90,369,495	92,883,933	170,043,107	188,851,145	127,469,058
Finance	21,564,107	15,528,098	15,278,609	42,062,262	31,992,166
Army	26,278,021	63,808,368	225,309,400	276,004,139	281,069,094
Navy	95,147,008	88,214,904	172,069,156	224,948,927	288,617,153
Justice	902,824	1,041,345	1,230,969	1,784,224	2,315,189
Education	12,112,394	8,014,654	20,051,303	22,891,587	23,486,018
Agriculture and Forestry	27,077,934	26,897,852	71,348,614	93,934,464	78,800,486
Commerce and Industry	5,921,673	5,656,570	6,651,695	8,720,061	8,220,983
Communications	39,277,095	31,508,725	41,242,255	44,965,811	17,008,141
Overseas Affairs	24,743,120	23,248,161	23,970,968	28,200,211	25,081,586
Total	355,711,046	365,051,071	767,278,007	945,807,878	894,965,84
Total expenditure	1,557,863,732	1,476,875,265	1,950,140,623	2,320,504,225	2,142,528,079

Budget for 1935-1936

The gist of Mr. Korekiyo Takahashi's explanation of the Budget for 1935-36 made for the 67th Session of the Diet on January 22, 1935, is taken in the following as giving a general trend of the finance of the country.

The total amount of the estimates of ways and means during 1935-36 is over ¥2,193,000,000 on both sides of revenue and expenditure. The estimate of revenue covers over ¥1,335,000,000 in ordinary account and a little over ¥857,000,000 in extraordinary account, while that of expenditure covers over ¥1,293,000,000 in ordinary account and a little over ¥900,000,000 in extraordinary account. Compared with the general budget of the previous year there is an increase of over ¥87,000,000 in the ordinary revenue and a decrease of over ¥107,000,000 in the extraordinary, which means a decrease of over ¥20,000,000 in revenue. As for expenditure, there was an increase of over ¥45,000,000 in the ordinary account, whilst there was a decrease of ¥65,000,000 in the extraordinary account, which means a decrease of over ¥20,000,000 in the total expenditure. As compared with the previous year, receipts from land, liquor and stock exchange taxes decreased while that from the income tax increased by ¥30,800,000, the business profit tax by ¥6,200,000, the import tariff by ¥15,600,000 showing an increase of over ¥53,400,000 in the aggregate tax revenue. As for the receipts other than taxes there is an increase of over ¥8,500,000 from stamps, of over ¥5,900,000 from forests, of over ¥7,500,000 in the profit of the Monopoly Bureau and of ¥4,800,000 in the receipts from dividends and the net increase in the ordinary revenue amounts to over ¥87,000,000.

In making up the expenditure budget for 1935-36 the principle was that of cutting in nearly all items. Yet the outlay due to the Manchurian incident and that due to the changed exchange rate of yen reached to a considerable amount in continuation from the previous year. The present situation of international politics makes it imperative to spend an increasingly large amount for the replenishment of national defence. Various disasters occurring in many parts of the country in 1934 necessitated the expenditure of no small amount for relief purposes. It is due to all such unavoidable needs that the outgoing budget reached ¥2,193,000,000.

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Outlays for the Manchurian incident comprise in the general account ¥3,600,000 under jurisdiction of the Foreign Department, ¥162,300,000 under the War Department and ¥9,600,000 under the Department of Marine and ¥5,000,000 as a reserve fund under the Finance Department, bringing about a total of ¥180,600,000, in addition to ¥3,700,000 from special accounts of the Chosen Government-General and the Kwantung Bureau. The grand total of the money which is to be expended in 1935-36 for the Manchurian trouble thus reaches ¥184,300,000, an increase of ¥25,000,000 over the previous year. This increase is chiefly due to the need of strengthening aerial forces. As for the outlay for the improvement of naval and military armaments, it totals ¥366,300,000, of which ¥228,400,000 is the amount already anticipated in the 1934-35 budget. The new demand which amounts to ¥137,800,000 is itemized as follows: ¥16,200,000 in the ordinary section and ¥20,000,000 in the extraordinary section both under the Department of War and ¥7,800,000 in the ordinary section and ¥93,700,000 in the extraordinary section both under the Department of Marine.

As regards the disbursements required to meet the emergent need arising out of the flood, typhoon and other calamities that occurred in various parts of the country in 1934 ¥66,100,000 is appropriated as a portion to be required in the fiscal year 1935-36. As for the outlays due to the changed exchange rates appropriation has been made for ¥74,500,000 in the general account and ¥12,300,000 in the special accounts making a total of ¥86,800,000.

Temporary profit tax. Under the present circumstances certain industries are realizing increased profits, and it was decided to impose a temporary profit tax upon a part of their profits, the estimated revenue from this tax for 1935-36 is ¥30,000,000.

As regards the deficit in revenue for the fiscal year under review, it will be covered by loans. Bonds providing revenue for the General Account are ¥7,400,000 in the form of the earthquake disasters reconstruction loan, ¥5,500,000 in the name of the road construction loan, ¥170,700,000 in the name of the Manchurian incident loan and ¥565,800,000 for the revenue deficit, that is, ¥749,600,000 in the aggregate; for the Special Accounts, ¥24,000,000 for the Chosen Government-General, ¥38,000,000 for the State Railways and ¥14,500,000 for the communication works, i. e. a total of ¥76,500,000. The new floatation will, therefore, reach ¥826,100,000, a decrease of ¥150,900,000 as compared with the last fiscal year.

Bonds issued since 1932 are already colossal in amount, but so far results have been successful, most of them having been well consumed, evil effects have been averted, and new bonds may meet the same speedy digestion.

BUDGET FOR 1935-1936

(in yen)

ORDINARY REVENUE

I	Taxes	Total 828,741,889
	Income tax	195,888,036
	Land tax	57,922,397
	Business profit tax	50,499,989
	Capital interest tax	14,903,819
	Inheritance tax	28,983,788
	Mining tax	3,903,194
	Tax on liquors	212,562,359
	Tax on soft drinks	3,587,498
	Sugar excise	78,029,335
	Consumption tax on textile fabrics	33,467,822
	Tax on bourses	16,526,126
	Customs duties	129,955,969
	Tonnage dues	2,511,607
II	Stamp receipts	82,205,016

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III Receipts from public undertakings and state property	Total	276,410,031
Forests		41,074,606
Monopoly Bureau		195,711,493
Printing Bureau		2,084,587
Senju Woollen Factory		5,420
Capital profit of Navy Factories		1,240,000
Profit of Navy Fuel Factory		350,000
Rent of State property		555,099
Dividend receipts		26,540,116
Prisons' receipts		8,848,710
IV From special account for communications		78,000,000
V From the Bank of Japan		25,364,568
VI Miscellaneous receipts	Total	38,634,521
Certificates and fees		566,073
Penal fees and confiscated money		1,928,100
Indemnification and forfeit		412,395
Custom houses, miscellaneous		1,211,589
Receipts according to the Pension Regulations		2,780,319
Allotments according to the Pension Regulations		1,571,838
Charges according to the Pension Regulations for Special Accounts		20,932,485
Receipts from privately supported boys in the Military Preparatory School		87,960
Local receipts from Bonin Islands		1,288
Interests		148,465
Other miscellaneous receipts		8,999,009
VII Transferred from Special Account of Funds for Educational Improvement and Agrarian Development		6,281,819
Total		1,235,587,844

EXTRAORDINARY REVENUE

I Proceeds from the sale of State property	Total	10,599,886
Proceeds from the sales of lands		21,815
Proceeds from the sales of goods		4,181,041
Proceeds from the sales of livestock		237,030
Proceeds from the sales of Government owned silk		6,160,000
II Miscellaneous receipts	Total	22,075,561
Receipts from building and repairing works in trust		745,129
Receipts from investigations in trust		108,578
Money paid back		755,621
Share of the sale of fur-seal fur		62,183
Repayments of advances per the earthquake note settlement law		12,801,920
Reimbursement of advances for the reconstruction works clearance fund		65,633
Repayments of the earthquake advances		2,442,324
Contributions for national loans reimbursement fund		10,000
Receipts by treasury notes from the Kosai R.W.		1,530,000
Receipts from the South Manchuria Railway Co.		1,460,723
Receipts from the Oriental Development Co.		92,529
Receipts from the Nippon Iron Foundry		1,263,356
Amounts received from the Special Fund for cultural work for China		1,000,000
Balance of running expenses for the League of Nations' office		227,253
III Payments by public bodies for repairing and construction of harbors		5,262,557
IV Shares assumed by public bodies for local public works	Total	8,496,892
For river-improvement works		5,490,484
For harbour equipments		669,908
For road-improvement works		1,516,500
For public works in agricultural communities as well as for urgent purposes		820,000
V Receipts for encouragement of scholarly researches	Total	30,000
Imperial donation		12,000
Contributions		18,000
VI Transferred from Special Accounts	Total	10,124,282
From Special Account of fund for the adjustment of State property		5,629,267
From Special Account of the Monopoly Bureau		524,134
From Special Account of the Mint		131,053
From Special Account for Deposit Bureau, Finance Department		100,000
From Special Account for Printing Bureau		80,000
From Special Account of Senju Woollen Factory		63,769
From Special Account of fund for schools and libraries		50,000
From Special Account of Communication works		2,429,448
From Special Account of Post Office Life Insurance		1,146,630
VII Payment by insurance companies		3,520,788
VIII Receipts under the Export Credits Guarantee System		796,000
IX Receipts from Manchoukuo for defence expenditures		9,873,000
X Extraordinary profit tax		30,395,799
XI Receipts from the issue of public loans	Total	749,651,680

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Earthquake loans and temporary loans from Special Accounts	7,454,339
Road loans and temporary loans from Special Accounts	5,574,943
Manchurian incident loans and temporary loans from Special Accounts	170,754,797
Revenue deficiency loans and temporary loans from Special Accounts	595,997,601
XII Forwarded from the surplus of previous year	7,000,000
Total	857,826,445
Grand Total of Revenue	2,198,414,289

ORDINARY EXPENDITURE

Imperial Household:		4,599,000
Department of Foreign Affairs		
I Department proper	Total	3,243,410
Salaries		498,925
Office expenses		628,720
Salaries of foreigners		45,000
Telegrams		312,813
Entertainments		2,000
International allotments		24,176
Contributions for various organs of the League of Nations		160,614
Expenses of resident students abroad		69,788
For secret services		1,501,374
II Offices in foreign countries	Total	12,236,142
Salaries		5,476,766
Office expenses		2,643,568
Travelling expenses		1,493,041
Salaries of foreigners		40,849
Law court and registering expenses		41,376
Detention expenses		127,119
House and land rent		1,185,449
Telegrams		390,770
Entertainments		327,204
III Protection of resident Japanese abroad	Total	1,235,190
Salaries		222,961
Office expenses		1,012,229
IV Miscellaneous expenses		115,269
Total		16,830,011
Department of Home Affairs		
I Isé shrine		230,000
II Other State shrines		771,360
III Department proper	Total	353,792
Salaries		361,300
Office expenses		451,735
International allotments		9,475
Secret expenses		31,282
IV Bureau of Social Affairs		418,035
V Imperial Office of the International Labour Organization		142,530
VI National Juvenile Correction School		45,645
VII Wounded Soldiers' Hospital		123,733
VIII Employment Bureau		186,963
IX Police Training Institute		21,837
X Hygienic Laboratory		1,047,589
XI Aliment Research Institute		60,333
XII National Leper Asylums		379,972
XIII For Qualification Examinations for Physicians and Pharmacists		28,599
XIV Prefectural Offices	Total	10,429,601
Salaries		7,101,690
Office expenses		3,069,842
Protection and Relief of the Ainu		37,858
Imperial attendance		65,540
For Bonin Islands		53,408
Police expenses in the Seven Islands of Izu		19,214
Secret expenses		82,049
XV Conscription expenses		1,619,070
XVI Military relief expenses		2,074,902
XVII Joint payment for police expenses		22,675,825
XVIII Grants to social works	Total	6,721,898
Prevention of epidemics		1,470,284
Juvenile protection		144,440
Insane hospitals		238,217
Labour exchanges		284,395
Local social works		1,689 336
Relief works		2,834,776
Prevention of parasites		10,000
Prevention of ill-treatment of children		50,000
XIX Charges to the State Treasury for health insurance		2,796,434
XX Miscellaneous expenses		115,540
Total		50,743,151
Department of Finance		
I Department proper	Total	965,775
Salaries		428,539
Office expenses		510,292
International shares		1,062
Custom house investigation committee		25,882
II Cabinet expenses	Total	1,028,543
Salaries		298,557
Office expenses		499,337
Rewards		94,225
Examination for high officials		54,000
Punishment of officials		1,570
Official service limitation committee		8,186
Contribution to international statistics association		1,000
Secret expenses		76,550
III Privy Council expenses		197,069
IV House of Peers		1,465,753
V House of Representatives		1,676,625
VI Board of Audit		478,485
VII Court of Administrative Litigation		107,191
VIII Bureau of Repairing and Property Overseeing		92,695

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IX Custom-houses		4,653,720
X Tax collecting expenses in Japan proper	Total	16,309,852
Salaries		5,665,300
Office expenses		3,177,866
Committee meetings		213,199
Disposing expenses		282,294
Stamps, etc.		56,607
Aid to local public bodies		6,098,328
Aid to textile associations		365,266
Aid to saké brewers' associations		450,992
XI Miscellaneous rebates, repayments and compensations		11,739,588
XII Transferred to the national debt adjustment fund		389,228,175
XIII Payment to Special Account of Deposit Bureau of the Department		2,500,000
XIV Miscellaneous expenses		426,726
XV State Reserve Fund		14,000,000
Total		444,870,197

Department of War

Total		179,803,775
(for details see Chapter VII.)		

Department of Marine

Total		215,917,830
(for details see Chapter VII.)		

Department of Justice

I Department proper	Total	521,464
Salaries		219,215
Office expenses		173,555
International allotments		4,161
Aid to protection work of ex-convicts		83,575
Judicial Investigations		31,268
Aid to the Prison Police Training Institute		9,690
II Court expenses	Total	19,069,075
Salaries		11,520,470
Office expenses		4,994,251
Judicial and registering expenses		2,159,839
Adjudication expenses		241,253
Detention		72,608
Secret expenses		80,654
III Prison expenses	Total	16,232,944
Salaries		604,178
Office expenses		6,277,384
Detention expenses		9,351,382
IV Miscellaneous expenses		61,074
Total		35,884,557

Department of Education

I Department proper	Total	2,390,072
Salaries		399,786
Office expenses		563,911
Scientific investigations		353,226
Physical investigations		115,446
Protection of national treasures		190,000
International allotments		29,859
Expenses of investigators despatched abroad		594,435
Council of Aeronautics meetings		4,823
Investigation and preservation of important historical places and natural monuments		89,802
Adult education		98,784
II Meteorological observatories		734,835
III Latitude observatory		45,410
IV Common education		90,497,047
National share of elementary school teachers' salaries		85,000,000
Aid to elementary education expenses		1,950,000
Aid to normal school education		2,800,000
Salaries of elementary school teachers called to military service		395,817
Committee for qualification of special municipalities, towns and villages		3,352
Miscellaneous expenses		347,878
Encouragement of school attendance		500,000
V Business education		658,388
VI Social education		2,143,832
VII Thought guidance		279,586
VIII Deaf and dumb education		159,614
IX Aid to additional salaries of public school teachers for long service		1,213,320
X Aid to pension fund of private middle schools		129,600
XI Disbursements for universities and libraries	Total	31,332,316
Imperial universities		12,634,919
Government universities		6,182,141
Schools and Libraries		12,515,256
X Miscellaneous expenses		3,955
Total		129,587,975

Department of Agriculture and Forestry

I Department proper	Total	1,502,413
Salaries		434,293
Office expenses		389,172
International allotments		29,798
Supervision of fisheries		358,070
Castration of horses		167,625
Encouragement of improvement and increase of horses		96,248
Inspection of stud-horses		27,207
II Forestry expenses		21,474,773
Salaries		2,199,455
Office expenses		1,164,436
Enterprises		18,110,882
III Experimental stations		1,596,693
IV Raw Silk Conditioning Houses		1,666,071
V Stud and pasture		1,916,029
VI Fisheries Institute		455,505
VII Subsidies	Total	1,772,850
To agricultural associations		122,744
To experiments and lecture meetings		26,496
To the creation and maintenance of landed farmers		1,215,083
To fishery associations		20,664

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To prevention of silk-worm diseases		83,283
To the local expenses for taking statistics		804,580
VIII Miscellaneous expenses		209,006
Total		80,593,340

Department of Commerce and Industry

I Department proper	Total	1,597,215
Salaries		617,505
Office expenses		697,167
International allotments		16,878
Investigation committee of dumping		3,052
Weights and measures		210,294
Geological investigation		52,319
II Patent Bureau		805,774
III Mine Supervision Bureau		546,491
IV Experiment Stations and Research Institutes		1,442,628
V Direction Stations and Inspection Stations		908,715
VI Subsidy for local investigations of commercial and industrial statistics		164,515
VII Miscellaneous expenses		22,926
Total		5,488,264

Department of Communications

I Department proper	Total	1,055,874
Salaries		455,653
Office expenses		593,339
Aid to the international navigation conference		2,000
International allotments		4,882
II Communication expenses		1,250,404
III Electro-technical Laboratory		411,292
IV Lighthouse Bureau		1,107,309
V Annuity and Pension	Total	173,026,692
Annuities		12,065,399
Pensions		160,961,293
VI Miscellaneous expenses		44,525
Total		176,896,096

Department of Overseas Affairs

I Department proper	Total	709,895
Salaries		294,285
Office expenses		368,560
Secret expenses		46,550
II Transferred to Special Account of Karafuto Government from the profits of tobacco monopoly		1,252,966
III Miscellaneous expenses		5,284
Total		1,967,645
Grand Total of Ordinary Expenditure		1,293,082,841

EXTRAORDINARY EXPENDITURE

Department of Foreign Affairs

I Building expenses	252,028
II Expenses for removal of legations	50,747
III Establishment of a new legation	103,000
IV Subsidies to educational bodies	566,920
V Protection and overseeing of resident Japanese abroad	1,447,915
VI Disbursements for various committees of the League of Nations	215,000
VII Protection of emigrants	430,000
VIII Measures for the development of foreign trade	120,000
IX International cultural enterprises	1,000,000
X Manchurian incident	8,656,472
XI Extraordinary diplomatic works	1,520,000
XII Investigation on resident Japanese abroad	35,000
XIII Relief expenses	510,000
XIV Extraordinary increase of salaries	2,914,500
Total	12,821,582

Department of Home Affairs

I Subsidies to local public bodies for water-works, river improvement, port construction, public works, etc.	10,205,421
II River improvement works	16,236,052
III Harbor improvements	7,690,557
IV Road improvements	5,333,333
V Promotion of farm-villages	14,447,610
VI Aid for the improvement of smaller rivers	4,443,199
VII Aid for improvement of smaller harbours	1,541,400
VIII Investigation on public works	58,504
IX Investigation on city plans	38,004
X Subsidies for public road improvements and city plans	300,000
XI Improvements in Hokkaido	23,490,000
XII Buildings and repairs	174,527
XIII Isé Shrine Construction Office	35,184
XIV Investigations on works relating to the Ise Shrine	9,000
XV Extraordinary expenses for shrines	849,000
XVI Training of Shinto priests and the investigation on shrines	11,066
XVII Investigation of shrine system	15,403
XVIII Special institutions for police	1,352,939
XIX Supervision of election	670,000
XX General election	1,024,330
XXI Prevention of epidemics	1,360,429
XXII Investigation and encouragement of sanitary works	422,452
XXIII National parks	84,389
XXIV Medical treatment relief fund	1,800,000

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XXV Promotion of public welfare of Loochoo Islands	399,678
XXVI Promotion of public welfare of Ōshima Island, Kagoshima	96,000
XXVII Promotion of fisheries at Bonin Islands and Seven Islands of Izu	31,897
XXVIII Sand banks at Kamitsujima	7,196
XXIX Supervision of land cultivation	107,422
XXX Investigation on local institution and finance	13,330
XXXI Investigation on the prevention of snow damages	18,000
XXXII Investigation on colonization works in Hokkaido	10,000
XXXIII Investigation and encouragement of social works	207,850
XXXIV Encouragement of public granaries	771,400
XXXV Improvements of local districts	554,484
XXXVI Investigation and encouragement of prevention of factory and mine disasters and hygienic equipments	32,729
XXXVII Unemployment relief committee	18,000
XXXVIII Official expenses for housing associations	13,981
XXXIX Emergency expenses for unemployment	3,443,604
XL Urgent measures for local improvements	680,000
XLI Promotion of farmer-resuscitation movement	50,000
XLII Travelling expenses of delegates to the International Labor Conference	215,531
XLIII Clearances of residual matters of the Reconstruction Works	51,350
XLIV Aid to the Reconstruction Works	800,000
XLV Earthquake Rehabilitation Works	105,000
XLVI Enforcement of the Building Law in the cities affected by the Earthquake	61,415
XLVII Earthquake rehabilitation works in the districts of Izu and Sagami	70,000
XLVIII Aid to the sand-bank works in the Sanriku districts	118,685
XLIX Rehabilitation works of the Hakodaté fire disasters	1,048,935
L Special increases of salaries	63,728
LI Expenses for disasters in 1934	
Total	10,058,022
Travelling expenses for the investigation of suffering prefectures	150,000
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Kyoto Prefecture	200,000
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Hyogo Prefecture	1,315,500
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Niigata Prefecture	200,000
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Nagano Prefecture	868,100
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Akita Prefecture	200,000
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Ishikawa Prefecture	200,000
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Toyama Prefecture	557,500
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Tottori Prefecture	2,792,600
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Shimané Prefecture	400,000
Aid to the rehabilitation public works in Okayama Prefecture	2,145,300
Aid to other rehabilitation public works	874,580
Aid to sanitary measures and flood and typhoon disaster rehabilitation works	60,442
Miscellaneous expenses for flood and typhoon disasters	94,000
Total	110,641,536

Department of Finance

I Buildings and repairs	11,180,692
II Miscellaneous investigations	739,710
III Covering deficits of running expenses of the Special Accounts	1,947,412
IV Library of the Cabinet	8,205
V Readjustment of State property	427,819
VI Compensation of principal and interest of the 4% Chinese loan	3,845,616
VII Extraordinary expenses of the Board of Audit	59,003
VIII Earthquake reconstruction works	1,297,220
IX Extraordinary examination of lawyers	5,988
X Remaking of the list of decoration holders	11,397
XI Compiling of the financial history of the Meiji and Taisho Eras	20,102
XII Aid to advances to shipbuilding works by the Industrial Bank of Japan and other banks	185,290
XIII Clerical work concerning reparations	148,072
XIV Residues of bonds given to lords instead of their feuds	505
XV Urgent expenses for the unification and utilization plans of natural resources	170,705
XVI Special increase of salaries	49,172
XVII Extraordinary financial and economic adjustment expenses	126,179

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XVIII Control of foreign exchanges	103,753
XIX Extraordinary supervision of custom houses	67,286
XX Rewards in connection with Manchurian incident	786,602
XXI Extraordinary adjustment of slided lands	35,554
XXII Control of the exports of cotton fabrics	10,899
XXIII Collection of extraordinary profit tax	682,063
XXIV 1934 disaster rehabilitation works	1,604,709
XXV Treasury reserves	5,000,000
Total	28,513,903
Department of War: Total	313,155,204
Department of Marine: Total	313,765,604

Department of Justice

I Investigations on laws	28,010
II Buildings and repairs	557,669
III Earthquake reconstruction works	43,019
IV Extraordinary earthquake official works	46,726
V Special measures for the prevention of thought-crimes	165,890
VI Officiating debt arbitration cases	798,058
VII Extraordinary prison expenses	226,459
VIII Flood and typhoon disasters	117,558
IX Judicial system investigation committee	10,000
X Inspection of national and local elections	183,231
Total	2,296,120

Department of Education

I Buildings and repairs	344,385
II Establishment and enlargement of higher schools	308,123
III Editing of a history of the Meiji Restoration	68,100
IV Special Institutes for the Training of Teachers	8,374
V Training of meteorologists	21,084
VI Investigations	124,585
VII Special lectures	199,680
VIII Travelling expenses of delegates to international scientific conferences	32,600
IX Subsidies to various educational and cultural works	1,266,310
X Earthquake rehabilitation works	2,221,640
XI Extraordinary disbursements for university and school libraries	1,967,305
XII Social educational measures	190,000
XIII Preservation of national treasures	128,041
XIV Extraordinary measures for the preservation of historical places	27,847
XV Control and investigation of important art products	19,200
XVI Extraordinary measures for elementary school education	9,837,693
XVII Extraordinary measures for the training of young men	400,000
XVIII Extraordinary measures for the thought guidance	47,000
XIX Improvement of the meteorological stations	300,000
XX Rehabilitation works of the Central Meteorological Observatory and branch observatory at Osaka, etc.	174,422
XXI Preservation of national treasures at places affected by typhoon and flood disasters in 1934	279,101
XXII Preservation of famous places and natural monuments in disaster districts	29,187
XXIII Aid for the reconstruction of public elementary school buildings destroyed by the typhoon in 1934	123,667
XXIV Special allowances to stuents abroad	502,564
Total	18,630,908

Department of Agriculture and Forestry

I Subsidies for agricultural and fishery enterprises	19,601,810
II Promotion of farm-villages	3,293,644
II Investigations and researches	858,890
IV Buildings and repairs	1,246,215
V Prevention of live-stock plagues and noxious insects	991,058
VI River improvement enterprises	2,000,000
VII Public forestry enterprises	2,049,415
VIII Encouragement of private forestry works	986,688
IX Protection of fur-seals	180,295
X Fishery registration	7,000
XI Adjustment of coastal fishery grounds	34,662
XII Control of fisheries in foreign seas	40,706
XIII Enforcement of the Russo-Japanese Fishery Treaty	49,846
XIV Preparation for the revision of the Russo-Japanese Fishery Treaty	40,000
XV Inspection of Tsingtao meat	37,525
XVI Superintending of game preserves	17,723
XVII Transfer to the Special Account for cattle reinsurance	60,841
XVIII Economic recovery of farm-villages	2,106,397

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XIX Irrigation and drainage works	84,000
XX Disaster rehabilitation works	25,309,984
XXI Aid to works for restitution of industries and others in the districts damaged by disasters	672,687
XXII Industrial encouragement of Loochoo Islands	776,076
XXIII Industrial encouragement of Oshima, Kagoshima	345,000
XXIV Prevention of tidal-wave disasters at Sanriku districts	106,353
XXV Special increase of salaries	22,678
Total	60,919,353

Department of Commerce and Industry

I Subsidies for the encouragement of industries	3,301,177
II Promotion of industrial arts production	175,194
III Promotion of foreign trade	1,434,407
IV Control of foreign trade	88,190
V For the self-supplying of liquid fuel	1,931,025
VI Promotion, guidance and unification of medium and small-scaled industries	86,767
VII Investigations and experiments	287,358
VIII Buildings and repairs	131,576
IX Extraordinary outlays for Mine maps and Patent Bureau materials	54,223
X Enforcement of the new weights and measures law	10,247
XI Examinations and dispositions at the Patent Bureau	204,576
XII Industrial development works in Loochoo Islands	7,720
XIII Industrial development at Oshima, Kagoshima	14,884
XIV Extraordinary expenses of the Industrial Rationalization Bureau	220,156
XV Expenses for the iron industry valuation committee	7,000
XVI Residual works of the Iron Foundry	5,000
XVII Travelling expenses of delegates to the International Weights and Measures Conference	8,000
Total	7,967,500

Department of Communications

I Subsidies and encouragements	12,057,424
II Light houses	208,125
III Buildings and repairs	31,510
IV Investigation on shipbuilding iron materials	36,779
V Special researches at the Electro-technical Laboratory	22,791
VI Improvement of ships	47,468
VII Inspection of ships, etc.	33,245
VIII Establishmet of aerial routes	344,563
IX Installation of machines and machinery	169,000
X Travelling expenses of delegates to the International Committee on Electricity and Light Observation	7,644
XI Special increase of salaries	1,125
XII Repairs of Muroto Light House, etc.	14,462
XIII Repair of light-houses, etc., damaged by the typhoon in 1934	13,540
Total	12,987,676

Department of Overseas Affairs

I Training institute of emigrants	148,943
II Subsidies for encouragement and protection of emigration and colonization works	4,964,079
III Emigration to Manchuria	484,526
IV Subsidies to the Cotton Association and the Sheep-raising Association	200,000
V Replenishment to the Special Account of the Chosen Government-General	12,825,822
VI Special increase of salaries	8,692
Total	18,632,062
Total of Extraordinary Expenditure	900,331,448
Grand Total of State Expenditure	2,193,414,289

CONTINUATION EXPENDITURE

In Extraordinary Expenditure is included a number of items derived from Continuation Expenditure from which sums are annually earmarked for various expenses, the budget for Continuation Expenditure being spread over a period of years. The following are items with their total and the 1935-36 allotments.

Changes in totals as compared with the totals given in the Japan Year Book, 1934, p. 268 have resulted from additions or discounts according to decisions in the Extraordinary Session of the Diet in November, 1934, and the 1935 Ordinary Session.

Department of Home Affairs

(II) River improvements	
Total amount	¥667,780,482
The amount already expended	515,211,189
1935-36	16,286,052
(XI) Land improvement in Hokkaido	
Total amount	47,494,774
1935-36	2,554,923
River improvements in Hokkaido	
Total amount	75,725,777
1935-36	3,259,080
Repairs of harbours in Hokkaido	
Total amount	92,400,648
1935-36	2,332,761

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Department of Finance

(VIII) Earthquake reconstruction works and new buildings

Total	92,380,771
1935–36	1,297,220

Department of War
(Chap. VII)

(II) Replenishment of national defence

Total	876,666,454
1935–36	116,196,559

(XVI) Recomposing of air units and others

Total	66,960,715
1935–36	16,176,779

Department of Education

(X) Earthquake Reconstruction works; the Tokyo Imperial University building and other buildings

Total	72,600,836
1935–36	2,221,640

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
Foreign Affairs	Cultural Work for China	8,699,705	2,957,466
Home Affairs	Health Insurance	28,295,924	128,295,924
„	Labour Accident Legal Insurance	2,710,231	2,710,231
Finance	Mint Bureau	13,219,187	8,936,376
„	Mint Bureau, Fund Section	9,438,747	21,595,609
„	Printing Bureau	9,198,331	7,113,744
„	Monopoly Bureau	373,380,735	181,371,977
	(Transfer to General Account)		524,134)
„	Deposits Bureau	174,813,288	124,134,183
	(Transfer to other accounts)		10,039,000)
„	Educational Fund	22,380	—
„	National Debt Readjustment Fund	4,281,659,668	4,281,659,668
„	National Loans	826,151,080	826,151,680
		(Transfer to other accounts)	
„	State Property Readjustment Fund	5,629,495	5,629,267
		(Transfer to General Account)	
„	Educational Improvement and Farm-villages Economic Development Funds	5,308,486	6,231,819
„	Kwantung Bureau	24,738,165	24,738,165
War	Arsenal	120,789,258	120,789,258
„	Senju Woollen Factory	6,098,225	6,092,805
Marine	Navy-arsenal	90,344,099	89,560,003
„	Powder-mill	8,246,733	8,246,733
„	Fuel House	24,791,413	24,441,413
Education	Imperial Universities (6 in number)	28,552,765	28,552,765
„	Imperial Universities Endowment Funds	2,018,092	4,477,342
„	Government Colleges	12,398,398	12,398,398
„	Government Colleges Endowment Funds	497,783	1,235,449
„	Schools and libraries	17,377,954	17,377,954
„	Schools and Libraries Endowment Funds	883,695	1,281,142
Agriculture and Forestry	Rice trade control	282,733,651	282,733,651
„	Cattle re-insurance	467,773	467,773
Communications	Communication business, funds	51,368,320	51,368,320
„	Communication business, necessaries	43,033,007	43,033,007
„	Communication business, business operations	296,010,162	274,599,780
	(Transfer to General Account)		78,000,000)
„	Post Office Life Insurance	250,517,178	147,840,562
„	„ „ Annuity	15,629,125	6,271,125
Railways	State railways, capital account	141,287,532	161,111,532
„	„ „ , necessaries a/c	204,723,000	204,723,000
„	„ „ , earnings a/c	749,159,887	647,872,355
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General	288,348,664	288,348,664
„ „	Chosen railways, necessaries	20,335,460	20,335,460

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Ministry	Special Account	Revenue	Expenditure
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Post Office Life Insurance	7,801,786	4,531,871
,, ,,	Taiwan Government-General	118,980,495	118,980,495
,, ,,	Taiwan Government Railways, equipment funds	6,600,000	6,600,000
,, ,,	Karafuto Government	28,536,753	28,536,753
,, ,,	South Seas Government	5,977,696	5,977,696

Note: The Kwantung Government was abolished, and the account was transferred to the Kwantung Bureau, Finance Department in March, 1935.

CONTINUATION EXPENDITURES IN SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

Ministry	Item	Total Amount	1935-36 Amount
Communications	Telephone and telegraphic equipments	600,176,985	39,558,460
,,	New post office buildings	5,387,687	1,407,219
Railways	Construction and improvement of railways and opening of bus lines	3,936,788,726	139,308,000
Overseas Affairs	Chosen Government-General:		
	Repairs and improvements of roads	50,619,840	1,833,000
	Repairs and improvements of harbours and bays	14,000,000	1,500,000
	Construction and improvement of railways	538,692,412	24,000,000
	Construction of salt fields	3,340,000	1,180,000
	Taiwan Government-General		
	Harbours and bays	85,563,703	3,162,509
	River improvements	28,065,438	3,303,839
	Repairs of main railway lines	13,523,329	1,037,318
	Opening of the Medical College, Taihoku Imperial University	2,053,252	5,18,313

SUPPLEMENTARY BUDGETS, 1934-35 and 1935-36

First Supplementary Budget, 1934-35

(Dec. 10, 1934)

General account	(In yen)
Extraordinary revenue (from loans, etc.)	71,002,513
Ordinary expenditure	
Ministry of Finance	114,337
Extraordinary expenditure	
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	187,536
Home Affairs	38,950,182
Finance	992,534
War	8,500,000
Marine	555,000
Justice	262,442
Education	2,068,489
Agriculture and Forestry	24,023,582
Commerce and Industry	251,670
Communications	96,741
Total	70,888,176
Grand total of ordinary and extraordinary expenditures	71,002,513

Second Supplementary Budget 1934-35

(Published on March 14, 1935)

General Account	Item	Amount in yen
	Ordinary revenue	
	Government business undertaking Section	1,285,200
	Extraordinary revenue	
	Balance transferred from the previous year	8,960,425
	Total revenue	10,245,625
Ordinary Expenditure		
Foreign Affairs	Telephone charges and salaries	423,829
Home Affairs	Conscription, military relief and police expenses	1,829,187
Finance	Parliamental office and various disbursements	1,503,270
War	Military expenses	382,325
Marine	Military expenses	572,339
Justice	Trial registration, and detention	1,394,633
Communications	Annuity and pension payments	1,411,994
	Total	7,517,577

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	Item	Amount in yen
Extraordinary Expenditure		
Foreign Affairs	Disbursements in connection with Manchu Emperor's visit	15,000
Home Affairs	Disaster investigating travelling expenses, and disbursements in connection with the escort to Manchu Emperor and by-election of members of the House of Representatives	134,000
Finance	Disbursements in connection with Manchu Emperor's visit	9,745
War	Imperial grants in recognition of merits and temporary increments in the allowances and salaries	87,809
Marine	Imperial grants in recognition of merits and temporary increments in the allowances and salaries	65,512
Agriculture & Forestry	Prevention of cattle plagues and insects	108,915
Communications	Amount transferred to the Special Account of communications works	2,307,067
	Total	2,728,048
	Total expenditure	10,245,625
Special Account		
Home Affairs		
Health Insurance		
Revenue premiums		2,914,755
Expenditure		2,768,235
Finance		
Kwantung Bureau	Revenue, Surplus of previous year,	168,484
Ordinary expenditure	Communication outlays	83,223
Extraordinary expenditure	Escorting the Manchu Emperor	85,261
Overseas Affairs		
Chosen Government-General		
Revenue	Revenues from governmental business undertakings and public property	15,305,676
Ordinary expenditure	Prison, monopoly bureau and railway outlays	11,254,961
Extraordinary expenditure	Subsidies and encouragements, relief measures, and escorting the Manchu Emperor	400,905
	Total expenditure	11,655,866
Chosen railway necessaries funds		
Revenue	Revenue from necessaries	428,284
Expenditure	Outlays for necessaries	428,284
Taiwan Government-General		
Revenue	Revenues from Government business undertakings and Government property	2,094,781
Ordinary expenditure	Communications Bureau and Monopoly Bureau	1,305,253

First Supplementary Budget, 1935–36

(Published on March 27, 1935)

General Account		
Revenue	From deficit loans	551,668
Ordinary Expenditure		
Finance	Transfer to the national debt readjustment fund	7,482
Extraordinary Expenditure		
Foreign Affairs	Outlays in connection with the visit of Manchu Emperor	27,000
Home Affairs	" " " "	368,851

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Ministry	Item	Amount in yen
Finance	Outlays in connection with the visit of Manchu Emperor	48,235
Marine	" " " "	100,000
	Total	544,186
	Grand Total of expenditure	551,668
Special Accounts		
Finance		
Revenue	Receipt to the National Debt Readjustment Fund	7,482
Expenditure	Disbursement from the National Debt Readjustment Fund	7,482
Loan		551,668
Revenue		
Expenditure	Transfer to the General Account	551,668
Kwantung Bureau		
Revenue (Extraordinary)	Transfer from the surplus of the previous year	90,022
Expenditure (Extraordinary)	Outlays in connection with the visit of Manchu Emperor	90,022
Overseas Affairs		
Chosen Government-General		
Revenue (Extraordinary)	Surplus of the previous year	23,000
Expenditure (Extraordinary)	Outlays in connection with the visit of Manchu Emperor	23,000

Second Supplementary Budget, 1935-36
(March 29, 1935)

	(In yen)
Extraordinary revenue	
Loans	21,447,852
Ordinary expenditure	
Ministry of Home Affairs	3,166
Finance	15,627,894
Justice	28,168
Education	898,045
Agriculture and Forestry	648,189
Communications	1,010
Overseas Affairs	5,734
Total of ordinary expenditure	17,212,205
Extraordinary expenditure	
Home Affairs	1,848,275
Finance	93,073
Justice	186,562
Education	707,948
Agriculture and Forestry	1,313,200
Commerce and Industry	8,000
Communications	78,589
Total of extraordinary expenditure	4,235,647
Grand total of ordinary and extraordinary expenditures	21,447,852
Special Accounts	
Finance	
National Loan Adjustment Fund	
Revenue	290,894
Expenditure	290,894
Loan money	
Revenue	24,947,852
Expenditure	24,947,852
Kwantung Bureau	
Revenue	1,866
Expenditure	1,866
Education	
Imperial universities	
Revenue	47,305
Expenditure	47,305
Government universities	
Revenue	463,845
Expenditure	463,845
Endowment Fund disbursement	117,000
Railways	
State railways	
Capital account	
Revenue	3,500,000
Expenditure	3,500,000
Overseas Affairs	
Chosen Government-General	
Revenue	1,895,750
Expenditure	1,895,750
Taiwan Government-General	
Revenue	1,155,586
Expenditure	1,155,586
Karafuto Government	
Revenue	166,300
Expenditure	166,300

A General Survey of the Budget, 1935-36

In the budget for the fiscal year, 1935-36, two items attract attention. The one is the appropriation of a large sum for replenishment of defence work and for the readjustment services of the Manchurian incident. The other is the charge

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for relief of disasters caused by the flood and typhoon, the unseasonable cold or the dry weather. Together with these a third factor is to be noticed. It is the indication that the revenues from taxes is falling, although certain industries are realizing enormous profits on account of the international situation.

The features of the 1935-36 budget may be summarized as follows:

1. Creation of the extraordinary profit tax.
2. Confinement of disbursements for the improvement of armaments to the most urgent need.
3. Cut in the outlays under the item Manchurian Incident and an increase in the outlays for air corps and other military undertakings in Manchoukuo.
4. Appropriations for the disaster-relief works.
5. Appropriations for river and harbour improvements and other public works.
6. Reduction as far as possible of appropriations for new items other than unavoidable and inevitable outlays due to the decline in the exchange value of the yen for the reimbursement of principals of loans and the payment of interest thereon.
7. Covering of revenue deficits by means of loans.

The total budget for the fiscal year, 1935-36, is as follows (in yen):

	Revenue	Expenditure
Ordinary	1,335,587,844	1,293,082,841
Extraordinary	857,826,445	900,331,448
Total	2,193,414,289	2,193,414,289

THE BUDGET FOR 1935-36, COMPARED WITH THAT FOR 1934-35

(In yen)

Division	1935-36	1934-35	Comparison In.	Comparison De.
Revenue				
Ordinary	1,335,587,844	1,248,543,502	87,044,342	—
Extraordinary	857,826,445	964,987,090	—	107,160,645
Normal receipts	101,174,765	64,450,950	36,723,815	—
Loan receipts	749,651,680	881,108,452	—	131,456,772
Forwarded from the previous year's balance	7,000,000	19,427,688	—	12,427,688
Total	2,193,414,289	2,213,530,592	—	20,116,303
Expenditure				
Ordinary	1,293,082,841	1,247,666,571	45,416,270	—
Extraordinary	900,331,448	965,864,021	—	65,532,573
Total	2,193,414,289	2,213,530,592	—	20,116,303

Note.—Figures given under the heading, 1934-35, include supplementary budget amounts voted for in the 66th Diet convened in November, 1934.

REVENUE BUDGET FOR 1935-36 IN COMPARISON WITH REVENUE BUDGET FOR 1934-35

Ordinary revenue	1935-36	1934-35	Comparison In.	Comparison De.
Tax	827,741,889	77,263,313	53,478,576	—
Income tax	195,888,036	165,076,524	30,811,512	—
Land Tax	57,922,397	58,265,471	—	343,074
Business profit tax	50,499,989	44,225,189	6,274,800	—
Capital interest tax	14,903,819	14,443,418	460,401	—
Inheritance tax	28,983,738	28,781,666	202,072	—

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	1935-36	1934-35	Comparison In.	Comparison De.
Ordinary revenue				
Mining tax	3,903,194	3,296,762	606,432	—
Liquor tax	212,562,359	218,571,876	—	6,009,517
Soft drinks tax	3,587,498	3,409,195	178,303	—
Sugar excise	78,029,335	74,429,432	3,599,903	—
Textiles comsumption tax	33,467,822	30,669,690	2,798,132	—
Tax on bourses	16,526,126	17,492,343	—	966,217
Customs duties	129,955,969	114,273,178	15,682,791	—
Tonnage dues	2,511,607	2,328,569	183,038	—
Stamp receipts	82,205,016	73,607,645	8,597,371	—
Revenues from Government undertakings and Government property	276,410,031	254,923,745	21,486,286	—
From forests	41,074,606	35,126,571	5,948,035	—
Earnings of the Monopoly Bureau	195,711,493	188,155,406	7,556,087	—
Dividends	26,540,116	21,661,991	4,878,125	—
Receipts in prisons	8,848,710	5,771,162	3,077,548	—
Others	4,235,106	4,208,615	26,491	—
Dues from Special Account of communications business	78,000,000	78,000,000	—	—
Payment by the Bank of Japan	25,364,568	25,298,761	65,807	—
Miscellaneous receipts	38,634,521	33,405,281	5,229,240	—
Total	1,329,356,025	1,240,498,745	88,857,280	—
Transfer from the Special accounts of the educational improvement fund and that for the promotion of farm villages	6,231,819	8,044,757	—	1,812,938
Total of the Ordinary Receipts	1,335,587,844	1,248,543,502	87,044,342	—
Extraordinay revenue				
Proceeds of sales of State property	10,599,886	5,779,357	4,820,529	—
Miscellaneous receipts	22,075,561	21,003,449	1,072,112	—
Payments from public bodies for public works	5,262,557	6,299,145	—	1,036,588
Shares of public bodies for public works	8,496,892	8,034,671	462,221	—
Receipts of donations for the encouragement of scholarly researches	30,000	147,000	—	117,000
Transfer from Special Accounts	10,124,282	9,770,540	353,742	—
Dues from insurance companies	3,520,788	3,520,788	—	—
Receipts for export compensation	796,000	796,000	—	—
Receipts of Manchoukuo's share for the joint defence work	9,873,000	—	9,873,000	—
Extraordinary profit tax	30,395,799	—	30,395,799	—
Transfer of balances of Special Accounts	—	9,100,000	—	9,100,000
Total	101,174,765	64,450,950	36,723,815	—
Loans	749,651,680	881,108,452	—	131,456,772
Balance of the previous year	7,000,000	19,427,688	—	12,427,688
Total of the Extraordinary Receipts	857,826,445	964,987,090	—	107,160,645
Grand Total of Revenue	2,193,414,289	2,213,530,592	—	20,116,303

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The Extrordinary Profit Tax (Ordinance No. 37; March 29, 1935) While the general economic trend of the country is not yet quite entirely free from the effects of depression, certain industries are recording a substantial boom, owing evidently to the unstabilized international situation. The creation of the extraordinary profit tax was undertaken in order to make these industries pay a part of their profits. The outline of the tax follows:

(1) As regards corporations, their entire profits come under the taxation, while as regards individuals, their profits accruing from their business enumerated under Business Profit Tax, are liable to this tax.

(2) The profits liable to this tax are calculated, in case of corporations, by subtracting the average earning of the three successive business years prior to 1931 from the earning realized in the current year and, in case of individuals, by subtracting the average earning of the three successive business years prior to 1931 from the earning realized in the current year. When there is no such average earning or the average business earning or, when it is too small in amount, calculation is done by subtracting an amount equivalent to 7 per cent. per annum of the capital (including reserve funds) in case of corporations and ¥3,000 in case of individuals.

(3) Earnings liable to this tax are limited to sums over ¥2,000 per year.

(4) In case of individuals earnings below ¥6,000 are exempt from taxation.

(5) The rate is ten-hundredths.

It is estimated that the receipts from the profit tax will be ¥30,395,799 for the current year and ¥41,099,987 for each of the following years.

DISBURSEMENTS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF ARMAMENTS

(in yen)

Ministry	Appropriations already provided for	New increase	Total
Finance			
Extraordinary	204,844	—	204,844
War	83,495,894	36,322,082	119,817,976
Ordinary	7,285,058	16,265,534	23,550,592
Extraordinary	76,210,836	20,056,548	96,267,384
Marine	144,780,867	101,562,507	246,343,374
Ordinary	29,186,867	7,816,574	37,003,441
Extraordinary	115,594,000	93,745,933	209,339,933
Total	228,481,605	137,884,589	366,366,194

Manchurian Incident Appropriations Appropriations under the heading of Manchurian Incident are ¥180,627,797 in all for the year 1935-36 and are constituted of the following four items: ¥3,656,472 under jurisdiction of the Foreign Ministry, ¥5,000,000 under the Finance Ministry (from the 1st Reserve Fund), ¥162,359,274 under the War Ministry and ¥9,612,051 under the Marine Ministry.

Disaster Relief and Reconstruction Appropriations Natural disasters that struck almost all parts of the country in 1934 compelled the Government to take prompt relief and reconstruction measures for which disbursements were decided to be made in the following way: ¥70,691,259 for 1934-35, ¥66,105,116 for 1935-36 and ¥79,279,968 for

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1936-37 and after, bringing up a total of ¥216,076,343. The itemization of this continuous disbursement follows (in yen):

Ministry	Total	1934-35	1935-36	1936-37 and for years following	Remarks
Home Affairs	121,712,172	38,950,182	31,945,696	50,816,294	
Aid to public works	37,379,000	20,500,000	8,879,000	8,000,000	Until 1936
River improvement	25,168,025	1,230,815	3,764,386	20,172,824	Until 1950
Aid to restituting works of the Osaka harbor	10,994,250	700,000	700,000	9,594,250	Until 1946
Urgent public works for farm-villages	27,787,610	13,840,000	14,447,610		
Encouragement for building local storages	1,636,800	865,400	771,400		
Other purposes	18,746,487	2,313,967	3,383,300	13,049,220	Until 1955
Finance	2,606,869	983,153	1,553,716	70,000	Until 1936
War	5,500,000	3,500,000	2,000,000	—	
Marine	555,000	555,000	—	—	
Justice	380,000	262,442	117,558	—	
Education	16,588,919	2,068,489	4,725,377	9,795,053	
School-buildings	8,317,044	19,000	123,667	8,174,377	Until 1952
Aid to the emergent outlays of schools in the affected districts	3,000,000	—	3,000,000	—	
Encouragement of school-attendance of children in the affected districts	935,867	549,318	386,549	—	
Other purposes	4,336,008	1,500,171	1,215,161	1,620,676	Until 1938
Agriculture and Forestry	68,272,180	24,023,582	25,649,977	18,598,621	
Restitution works	37,036,568	8,315,031	10,337,781	18,383,756	Until 1939
Various readjustment works in the affected districts	21,585,612	11,179,851	10,190,896	214,865	Until 1963
Various measures for cocoon-raising districts	9,650,000	4,528,700	5,121,300	—	
Commerce and Industry	350,000	251,670	98,330	—	
Communications	111,203	96,741	14,462	—	
Total	216,076,343	70,691,259	66,105,116	79,279,968	

Fluctuation of Exchange Appropriations Outlays necessitated by the adverse fluctuation of exchange rates of yen are: ¥3,590,741 for reduced money value of yen in exchange for foreign currencies; ¥56,904,315 for reduced money value of yen for the payment of principals and interest of loans; and ¥14,062,916 for the increase in the residential allowances and salaries and the increase in other commodity expenses of officials staying abroad, thus bringing the total up to ¥74,557,972.

Balance of 1934-35 The revenue surplus that arises out of the 1933-34 budget is ¥77,097,358. When, out of this amount, the sum of ¥44,016,311, which is the amount necessary to be used for the revenue resources for the 1934-35 budget, is subtracted, the net surplus is ¥33,081,046. This sum of ¥33,081,046 is constituted of the following:

¥19,427,688	Balance unused of the surplus of the 1932-33 budget
13,653,358	Surplus to grow anew in the 1933-34 budget

Of the above amount the following is the amount already disbursed in the next year's budget or the amount which is to be used in the present fiscal year.

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Amount used as a revenue in the fiscal year 1934-35	¥19,427,688
Amount to be used as a revenue source in the fiscal year 1935-36	7,000,000
Balance	6,653,358

This surplus of ¥6,653,358 will be used as a source of revenue for the supplementary budget of the fiscal years, 1934-35 and 1935-36.

The 1935-36 Budget and After

The View expressed by Dr. Shigeyoshi Hijikata, of the Tokyo Imperial University, in "Contemporary Japan", March, 1935, is worth reproducing

The Japanese budget, which was smaller from 1929 to 1931 owing to retrenchment and the financial and economic depression, suddenly showed an increase of more than ¥470,000,000 in 1932. While the appropriations required after the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident contributed to this sudden increase, the change in the financial policy of the Government, from retrenchment to inflation, brought about incidentally by the Manchurian outbreak, is also partly responsible.

Those who were astonished by these figures following the abrupt change from retrenchment to inflation became extremely anxious over the situation arising from necessity of balancing the budget through the issue of loans, and feared that Japan might find herself in just such a predicament as that of Germany in 1923. The situation, however, has developed comparatively quietly without having recorded any remarkable rise in the prices of commodities.

The continued increase in the budget which amounted to some ¥350,000,000 for the fiscal year 1933-34 over the figures for the previous year. While the budget for the fiscal year 1933-34 was being widely discussed, the Government authorities stated in effect that "the Manchurian incident appropriations" would be reduced to some ¥70,000,000 in the budget for the following year. Moreover, they held out hopes that, in addition to an expected natural increase in taxes and receipts from the various Government enterprises, it would be possible to work out a plan to increase general taxes and other revenues, and that the question of seeking new resources to make good the deficits in the revenues would be solved.

However, when the time came for the compilation of the 1935-36 budget expectations of a return to normal were frustrated. The estimated expenditure aggregated more than ¥2,190,000,000, which shows an increase of some ¥48,000,000 as compared with the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35. It should be borne in mind, however, that the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35 would have amounted to over ¥2,210,000,000, if the additional relief budget had been included. Thus the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 may be taken to show a decrease of some ¥20,000,000.

Characteristic of the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 is the reflection of the so-called "international crisis of 1935-36" in the military expenses. The estimates of the War Ministry amount to upwards of ¥490,000,000 and those of the Navy Ministry come to some ¥530,000,000. In short, slightly over 46 per cent. of the total budget is covered by military appropriations which total upwards of ¥1,000,000,000.

In the absence of a "follow-up" to the three-year plan of relief enterprises which was initiated in the fiscal year 1931-32, the ordinary expenses of both the Department of Home Affairs and the Department

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of Agriculture and Forestry were increased to a certain extent. On the other hand, decreases of ¥56,000,000 and of some ¥44,000,000 respectively, were made in the special expenses of these Departments. This is why the special expenses in the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 show a decrease of some ¥66,000,000, as compared with those in the budget for the preceding fiscal year, while the ordinary revenues are made to defray some ¥40,000,000 of the special expenses in addition to meeting the ordinary expenses. In other words, the special revenues in the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35 were barely able to defray the special expenses, while in the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36, some ¥40,000,000 of the special expenses are to come out of the ordinary revenues. Though this is a characteristic of the present budget, no clear line of demarcation is drawn between the special and ordinary items in the Japanese budget.

A third characteristic of this budget may be found in the fact that a natural increase of some ¥87,000,000 in taxes and receipts from the various Government enterprises is calculated, while the loan issue in the ordinary accounts is reduced to ¥750,000,000, or ¥130,000,000 less than similar figures in the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35. Further, a special profits tax amounting to some ¥30,000,000 is calculated in the revenues, and a tendency, slight as it is, toward the so-called "sound finance" is manifested by the intended gradual reduction of the "budget deficit" loan issue through defraying the ordinary expenses from the ordinary revenues.

The relief budget amounting to ¥70,690,000 may be more properly regarded as a part of the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 rather than the budget for the preceding fiscal year in view of the relations of time. This would mean that the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 is virtually larger in volume than the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35. Similarly, the loan issue included in the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35 as a part of the relief fund may be regarded as a part of the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36, thereby augmenting it still further.

In view of these facts, not only can we remark no tendency toward a gradual restoration of the so-called "normal finance" that existed prior to the Manchurian outbreak, but it may be observed that the budget is likely to remain near the ¥2,000,000,000 mark for some time to come.

The principal appropriations confirm the above remarks. An examination of the nature of the military expenses which head the list of appropriations in the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 would lead to the conclusion that the decision reached in the previous fiscal year, far from being reduced, may even show some increase until the fiscal year 1937-38 in the appropriations for the construction of auxiliary vessels included in the so-called second naval replenishment programme. As regards the appropriations for the re-equipment of ships and the maintenance of armaments, a new item amounting to some ¥100,000,000 is included in the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36. This is in addition to ¥145,000,000 previously agreed upon.

No sudden decrease can be looked for in the appropriations for the War Ministry in view of the additional plan to expand and equip the air force. In compiling the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36, the new demand of the Navy Ministry was reduced from ¥300,000,000 to ¥130,000,000 and that of the War

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Ministry from ¥246,000,000 to ¥207,000,000, but it is most probable that the two departments will make efforts, as opportunity arises, to obtain the amounts reduced. Likewise the Department of Home Affairs and the Department of Agriculture and Forestry, whose claims were reduced by 27 per cent. and 39 per cent. respectively, in view of the existing conditions of the rural districts, will probably seek some means or other to cover the deficits. Thus it is almost certain the ¥2,000,000,000 mark of the budget will remain pending some definite changes in the situation.

Just as any sudden increase is to be avoided, so care must be taken in pruning amounts which have already been augmented. Not only does any reduction in an enlarged budget meet with opposition from various quarters, but such action is apt to cause unwished-for repercussions. There is room for argument over the advisability of the Government's policy in starting public works in rural districts as a relief measure, but a sudden discontinuance of such works, once started, would be stubbornly opposed. . . .

Is there, then, any sign of the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 being likely to cause an abnormal rise in the prices of commodities and bring about difficulties in the digestion of loans ? As a rule, the bankers who control the vast sums involved in loans and the people of moderate means who deposit small sums are opposed to a decrease in the purchasing power of the currency and a rise in the prices of commodities. Of late, however, Japanese banks have invested heavily in the munitions industry, while the influence of the people of moderate means is too weak to restrain inflation. Since the autumn of 1934, deposits have not continued to increase, while bankers have taken up fresh loans. In view of the information that many of the leading banks of the country are in possession of national loan bonds at the rate of between 20 and 30 per cent. of the deposits and that the proportion of the national loan bonds to the negotiable papers in their possession is more than 50 per cent., it is impossible to deny the threat of a dangerous degree of inflation. There is no certainty that difficulties will not be brought about by vigorous investments in the exportation business, an abnormal rise in the prices of commodities and failure to digest national loans, if there appear signs of better business in the United States and Great Britain, etc.

I have maintained the opinion that the issue of loans should be limited to ¥400,000,000 or ¥500,000,000 at the most, against the total incomes of individuals that are estimated at some ¥10,000,000,000, calculating that, on the average about 15 per cent. of the earned incomes of the people in Japan is set aside for savings or investment. The loan issue included in the general account of the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 alone amounts to ¥750,000,000. Including the loan issue of the special accounts of the budget and the unissued amount of the loan issue of the budget for the fiscal year 1934-35, the national loans will reach the prodigious figures of ¥1,200,000,000 or ¥1,300,000,000 at the end of the next fiscal year. This amount is too large, even if the incomes of individuals have been increased to ¥13,000,000,000 or ¥14,000,000,000.

Nevertheless, it is impossible to say with any certainty that the economic world will be disturbed by a sudden rise in the prices of commodities and difficult absorption of the national loan on account of

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these issues. In the event of reluctant absorption of the national loan, in all probability the Government will not hesitate in compelling the life insurance companies and trust companies, which are considered to be able to hold more loan bonds, to subscribe to them. Such compulsion is not impossible of realization so long as consciousness of the extraordinary situation remains. It also is likely that the Government will consider means of controlling exorbitant speculation on the exchanges and curbing excessive investment in new enterprises. The present conditions show that there will be no great inflation during the fiscal year 1935-36 in spite of many predictions to the contrary.

Where lie the defects and unsound factors in the 1935-36 budget? In answering this question, we have to consider whether or not the budget is excessive when compared with the national economy. As a criterion for such consideration, a comparision is made here of the changes in the volume of the budget and the earnings of the people.

	Earnings of the People	Expenditure in the General Account	Percentage
1919	10,657,190,000	1,172,328,000	11
1920	9,436,270,000	1,359,978,000	14
1921	9,982,593,000	1,489,856,000	15
1922	10,649,559,000	1,428,466,000	13
1923	10,627,532,000	1,521,050,000	14
1924	11,495,897,000	1,625,024,000	14
1925	12,353,623,000	1,524,989,000	12
1926	12,048,510,000	1,578,826,000	13
1927	12,040,327,000	1,765,723,000	15
1928	12,424,165,000	1,818,855,000	15
1929	11,918,833,000	1,736,317,000	15
1930	10,470,500,000	1,557,864,000	15
1931	9,421,424,000	1,476,875,000	16
1932	—	1,950,141,000	—
1933	—	2,309,415,000	—
1934	—	2,213,531,000	—
1935	—	2,193,414,000	—

The figures for the earnings of the people are my own calculations and it is a matter for regret that materials for such calculation after 1931 are still unavailable. It is understood that the earnings of the people are closely related to the incomes of individuals. The above table shows that the proportion of the expenditure in the general account to the earnings of the people increased from 11 per cent. to 16 per cent. between 1919 and 1931. Suppose that the incomes of the people have remained unchanged since 1931, the percentage of the expenditure in the general account of the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 would be more than 20.

However, it is clear that the earnings of the people have increased to some extent, although exact figures cannot be given now. If the same proportion of the annual expenditure to the earnings of the people, as was given in the table for 1919 to 1931 has been maintained, the earnings of the people in 1935 will amount to something between ¥13,700,000,000 and ¥14,900,000,000. This means that the expenditure in the general account is between 14 and 15 per cent. of the earnings of the people, which cannot be regarded as out of proportion.

As a matter of fact, however, individual incomes are always affected by the annual expenditure of the Government, which fact renders it impossible to decide whether the annual expenditure is in excess when compared with the earnings of the people.

During the sixteen years beginning in 1919 and ending in 1935, an annual increase of some ¥63,000,000 on the average was recorded in the expenditure, which is by no means abnormal as compared with the average increase of some ¥70,000,000 that was recorded during the nine years beginning in 1919 and ending in 1928 prior to the en-

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forcement of the retrenchment policy.

That the annual expenditure increased suddenly following 1932 is to be regarded as a reaction against the sudden reduction amounting to some ¥340,000,000 that was made during the three years following 1929. In days of liberalism, it is normal for the public finance to increase or decrease along with private economy. Nations, however, found that reduction of public expenditure would aggravate the depression because of the decrease in private economy caused by the post-war depression, especially the world-wide depression following 1929. Therefore, retrenchment naturally changed into inflation. It follows that the budget for the fiscal year 1935-36 cannot be characterized as excessive or unsound simply because the total expenditure amounts to upwards of ¥2,000,000,000.

The question concerns the nature rather than the figures of the budget. The military expenses, which form about 46 per cent. of the total expenditure in the general account of the budget, certainly are not a small sum, but it should be borne in mind that Japan did not participate in the European War to such an extent as other European countries. In consequence, Japan missed the early opportunity to improve her aircraft and other weapons of war when the European countries spent enormous sums. Later, Japan kept pace with the world-wide tendency towards the reduction and limitation of armaments. Then changes in the international situation made Japan feel the necessity of replenishing her armaments. This fact, which accounts for the sudden increase of military expenses, should not be overlooked.

As Shinya Uchida, now Minister of Railways, pointed out during the sixty-fifth session of the Imperial Diet, when he was chairman of the budget committee of the House of Representatives, the appropriations required by the first and second naval replenishment programmes to make good the defects in national defence arising from the conclusion of the Washington and London naval treaties, amounted to upwards of ¥1,200,000,000, but the greater part of these appropriations accumulated after 1932. The special expenses of the Navy Ministry which amounted to ¥120,000,000 in the fiscal year 1929-30, were reduced to ¥88,000,000 in the fiscal year 1931-32 and then suddenly increased to ¥172,000,000 and to ¥288,000,000 in the two subsequent years.

After all, the military expenses in the budget, enormous as they are, have increased on account of the specific conditions as mentioned before and as such they will tend to decrease to a certain extent sooner or later. It also is to be observed that military expenses are decided by the international situation and the conditions of the relative armaments of the various countries. Since it is inevitable that each country will maintain sufficient armaments to guarantee security, the reduction of military expenses depends to a great extent upon co-operation between nations and the course of diplomacy in the future.

To leave the international side of the question, there is no gainsaying the fact that the budget has what are to be regarded as unsound factors, in that the increased expenditures benefit the heavy industries too much and the impoverished agricultural districts too little. This fact also explains the statement that the present situation is a "lame prosperity." The authorities of both the War Ministry and the Navy Ministry also are greatly concerned

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in this connection and are working for wider distribution of the munitions industry, direct purchase of munitions and employment of youths from agricultural districts. Due to the nature of the industry, the direct contribution toward the prosperity of the agricultural districts is nevertheless comparatively small. What is regarded as a possible contribution by the Navy Ministry during the fiscal year 1934-35 towards remedying the situation are the enterprise fund amounting to ¥153,000,000, the cost of material amounting to ¥70,000,000. The budget for the same fiscal year also enables the War Ministry to contribute through its enterprise fund amounting to ¥119,000,000 and estimated costs of labour amounting to ¥32,500,000. But what proportion of these sums will be spent in the interests of rural districts? It is clear that the above-mentioned expenses of the Navy Ministry will benefit the heavy industrial circles directly. As for the expenses of the War Ministry, ¥22,808,000 is to be spent in the interests of the rural districts through the supply of rabbit fur, floss-silk (or silk-wadding), and horses as well as upon rice, wheat, fodder, cowhide and clothing materials. Of course, much of the money spent by the heavy industries profit rural districts indirectly in the form of wages. From the standpoint of maintaining the peasantry, however, subsidiary occupations of the farmers should be further encouraged. In short, greater efforts must be made in the future to harmonize military expenses and the economy of rural districts.

There are various measures that will help in the relief of rural districts, including the lowering of the costs of production, and encouragement of subsidiary occupations in addition to the promotion of export business, the munitions industry and public works. All these measures are being employed, but it is essential to see that the farmers are able to live by farming. For the realization of this purpose, the first thing to be done is to reduce or abolish various kinds of taxes, especially local taxes, for the farmers. For this purpose the Government will have to aid the local governments concerned or increase the allowance for compulsory education. An increase in the burdens of the urban consumers also will be unavoidable. In order to have the taxes in the agricultural districts reduced or abolished while increasing the burden of the urban consumers, it is necessary to effect a fundamental reform of the taxation system. Besides doing away with the practice of struggling for larger shares in the budget on the part of the various departments of the Government, it also will be necessary to effect a sweeping reform of the administrative organs.

When all the Powers concerned have perfected respective armaments in conformity with the actual conditions in their respective territories and avoided a useless race in armaments through the conclusion of an international agreement, the military expenses in the Japanese budget will gradually decrease and be restored to normal. It will then be easier to relieve the rural districts of their difficulties by means of farming or enterprises other than the munitions industry. It is earnestly hoped that such a day will not be long in coming.

Taxes and Duties

The land tax constituted the principal and largest tax of all during the feudal days of the Tokugawa Shogunate. The revenue then came direct from the tax on the territory under direct control of the Shogun, and that of provincial feudal clans was made independent of the Cen-

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tral Government. Centralization of the country's financial system was the chief aim of the Meiji governments, and taxes were imposed by the Central Government to cover the whole country. The land tax was divided into two kinds, that is, payments in cash, and payments in produce such as rice and beans. Land certificates were issued by the Meiji Government in 1872 and in the following year the land tax act was revised and enforced. This brought about a very important and radical change in the payment of the land tax, for it was decreed that tax must be paid in money, payments in kind were abolished. The tax was fixed at 3/1,000 of the legal land value, or the value mentioned in land certificates. In 1875 the urban land tax was fixed at 3/100 of the legal land value. By a tax revision conducted in the same year nine kinds of taxes such as those on saké, soy, ships, cattle trading, silk, hunting, mining, oil pressing and ship anchoring were included in the national taxes and at the same time new taxes on patents, servant employment, carriages, rickshas, palanquins, horse riding, boat excursions, certificate stamps, business corporations, tobacco, weights and measurements and others were introduced. Miscellaneous taxes of the Tokugawa Shogunate numbering 1,553 were abolished. Estimates of tax revenue were formulated for the first time in 1875 and the amount for the year totalled ¥59,000,000, as follows:

TAX REVENUE

Land tax	¥50,345,327
Customs tax	1,718,732
Mine-lot tax	7,430
Government salary tax	92,625
Hokkaido marine products tax	342,526
Saké tax	2,555,594
Tobacco	206,748
Certificate stamp tax	498,228
Legal suit tax	63,714
Ship tax	128,514
Cart tax	213,192
Hunting tax	46,920
Cattle trading tax	90,833
Weights and measurements tax	2,019
Copyright tax	5,198
Open-port tax	2,774
Loochoo Clan's contribution	48,189
Capitalized pension and honours tax	2,075,118
Raw silk, stamp and other taxes	28,913
Ship anchorage tax	28,020
Total	59,194,031

Revision of Tax System The revision of the tax system of the Central Government was followed by a revision of that of the tax system of provincial governments, thereby drawing a clear line of distinction between the two kinds of taxes. It was announced that the provincial governments might levy a land tax, but this must not exceed 20 per cent. of the land tax of the Central Government. The customs duty of Japan originated in commercial treaties concluded by the Tokugawa Shogunate with Foreign Powers several years previous to the Meiji Restoration. Until 1898, the 30th year of Meiji, when the customs tariff was consolidated the regulations regarding customs duties were incomplete though they provided the second largest amount of income. Revenue from the land tax and customs duty for the first 10 years of Meiji was:

		Land tax	Customs revenue (In ¥1,000)
1st period		2,009,013	72,866
2nd	,,	3,355,965	502,807
3rd	,,	8,218,969	648,453
4th	,,	11,340,983	1,071,650
5th	,,	20,051,917	1,381,560
6th	,,	60,604,242	1,685,974
7th	,,	59,412,428	1,498,257
8th	,, (Jan., 1876-June, 1876)	67,717,946	1,038,103
1876	(July, 1876-June, 1876)	50,345,327	1,718,732
1877	(July, 1877-June, 1878)	43,023,425	1,988,667
1878	(July, 1878-June, 1879)	39,450,551	2,358,653

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1 Income Tax

The Income Tax Law, first instituted in 1887 under Imperial Ordinance, imposed a tax of from 1 to 3 per cent. on persons whose income from either property or business was ¥300 or more per annum. This law was subjected to a thorough revision in 1899 and was partially altered in 1901, 1905, 1913, and 1918. In 1920 it was subjected to a general revision, and was again revised thoroughly in 1926. The fundamental points are given in the following paragraphs :

Payers of the Tax Those coming under the following clauses are under obligation to pay the tax :—

(1) Those who have a domicile or have a temporary residence for one year or over within the territory where the Income Tax Law is in force.

(2) Those who, though not having a domicile or a temporary residence for one year or over within the territory where the Income Tax Law is in force, derive income coming under any of the following items :

(a) When having assets or doing business within the territory where the Law is in force ;

(b) When interest on public bonds, debentures, or fixed deposits in banks or deposits of a corresponding nature is received in payment within the territory where the Law is in force ;

(c) When receiving from a corporation having a head office or a principal office within the territory where the Law is in force profit, dividend, a share of "excess or surplus income," or bonus incidental to the disposition of the profit or the "excess or surplus income," or gratuitous payment corresponding to such bonus.

The Law is applicable only to Japan proper and is not in force in Chosen, Taiwan and Karafuto. Even in Japan proper, the Ogasawara Islands and the seven islands of Izu are exempted for the present from the operation of this Law.

Classification of Incomes The Income Tax is assessed on the following classes of incomes :

Class I

A. Ordinary income of a Corporation. The balance remaining in each accounting period after deducting the gross losses from the gross profits for the said period.

B. Excess profits of a Corporation. When the ordinary income of a corporation for any accounting period exceeds 10% of the average net assets at the end of each month in the said period, that is to say, the average amount of paid-up capital and reserves, any excess over 10% is taxed.

C. Net assets of Corporations at liquidation or amalgamation. In the case of dissolution of a corporation, an excess of the value of remaining assets over the paid-up capital or the invested fund at the time of dissolution ; in the case of amalgamation of corporations, an excess of the sum of the paid-up amount for shares and the amount of money, acquired by the shareholders or partners of the amalgamated corporations from the amalgamating corporations or a corporation created as the result of the amalgamation, over the paid-up capital or the invested fund of the amalgamated corporations at the time of amalgamation.

D. Undivided profits of a Family Corporation. Undivided profits in each accounting period of a family corporation, i. e., a corporation with half or more of its capital or invested fund consisting of shares owned by a shareholder or a partner and those who have special relations with

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the said shareholder or partner such as his relatives or his employees, provided that such undivided amount comes under either of the following clauses (when there is a conflict between them the one that concerns the greater amount is applied); and the Government decides all questions relating to the scope of the application of these provisions.

(1) Amount retained out of the ordinary income of each accounting period in excess of 3/10 of the ordinary income of the said period.

(2) The sum total of the reserves at the end of each accounting period and the amount retained out of the ordinary income of the said period, exceeding one-half of the amount of the paid-up shares of capital or the invested fund; but that part of the reserves at the end of such accounting period which exceeds one-half of the paid-up shares of capital or the invested fund is deducted from the said total.

E. Income of a Corporation without head office or principal business office in the territory where the Income Tax Law is in force. Income derived from assets owned or business done within the territory where this law is operative by a corporation whose head office or principal business office is not situated within such territory.

Class II

A. Interest on public bonds, debentures, fixed bank deposits, or bank deposits of similar nature receivable in places where the Law is in force. This applies also to profit on trust funds employed in loans by a trust company.

B. Distribution of profit or dividends, distribution of surplus money, or bonuses given by way of distributing profits or surplus money or allowances similar in nature to bonuses, as received by those who have neither domicile nor residence for one year or more in places where the Law is operative from corporations maintaining head or principal business offices in places where the Law is operative.

In the foregoing two cases, the amount received shall constitute the assessable income.

Class III

Incomes of individuals not coming under Class II are calculated as follows:

(1) Interest on loans made on a non-business basis and interest on public bonds, debentures and deposits that do not come under Class II—calculated on receipts during the preceding year;

(2) Income from forests—on gross receipts during the preceding year less the necessary disbursements made;

(3) Bonuses or allowances similar in nature to bonuses—receipts during the period between March 1 of the preceding year and the last day of February of that year;

(4) The distribution of interest or profit, or allotments of surplus received from a corporation—receipts during the period between March 1 of the preceding year and the last day of February of that year (in the case of dividends on unregistered shares the actual amount received) less 4/10;

(5) Salaries, allowances, annuities, pensions, retiring pensions and other allowances of a similar nature—actual receipts during the preceding year when such incomes have been received continuously from January 1 of the year, or estimated annual receipts when such incomes have not been received continuously from January 1 of the preceding year;

(6) Incomes other than those enumerated above—gross receipts of

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the preceding year less the necessary disbursements made when such incomes have been received from January 1 of the year, or estimated annual receipts when such incomes have been derived from properties, business or professions that have not been practised continuously from January 1 of the preceding year.

When the sum received as repayment from a corporation in consequence of the redemption of shares or in the case of one's retirement from a partnership exceeds the sum actually paid for the said shares or the contribution actually made by the retiring partner, such excess shall be regarded as a dividend of profits from the said corporation.

The following may be deducted as necessary expenses in calculating the assessable incomes of Class III:

Prices paid or expenses incurred in purchasing seeds, silk-worm eggs, manure, feeds for cattle or others, merchandise laid in as stock, raw materials, repair of ground or things, rent, public levy on ground and things or as paid incidental to conducting business, salaries and allowances to employees, and all other necessary disbursements incurred for procuring the incomes. Household and incidental expenses are not to be deducted.

(7) The following revision has been made in this tax:

(a) As regards incomes accruing from trust property, the tax is levied upon the beneficiary considering him as an owner of the trust property.

(b) In case the beneficiary is not specified or not yet in being, the trustee shall be deemed to be the beneficiary and taxed accordingly.

Non-taxable or Free Incomes are non-taxable or free according to the provisions of the Income Tax Law or to provisions of other laws.

Those exempted from taxation by the Income Tax Law are as follows:

Hokkaido, fu and ken (Prefectures), cities, towns, villages, other public corporations specified by an Order, Shinto and Buddhist temples, and associations incorporated in accordance with Article 34[1] of the Civil Code are exempted from Income Tax. The public corporations specified by the Order as mentioned above are as follows:

Unions of fu and ken (Prefectures); unions of cities, towns and villages; unions of towns and villages; wards or property-owning sections of cities, towns or villages; Hokkaido Local Expenditure; school unions of cities, towns and villages; school districts of cities, towns or villages; irrigation associations; federations of irrigation associations; farms readjustment associations; federations of farms readjustment associations; Hokkaido public works associations; staple commodities producers' associations; federations of staple commodities producers' associations; forestry associations; saké brewers' associations; federations of saké brewers' associations; marine products associations; federations of marine products associations; foreign waters marine products associations; federations of foreign waters marine products associations; stock-breeders' associations; federations of stock-breeders' associations; agricultural associations; chambers of commerce and other public corporations of a corresponding nature. Also, those public corporations in Chosen, Taiwan, Kwanto-shu (Kwantung Province) and Karafuto, which are exempted from income tax by laws or orders of the respective regions.

1 Judicial persons regarding Shinto religion, other religious sects, charity, science, art and others for public good, organized under sanction of the Minister concerned.

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Class III incomes coming under any of the following items are exempted from taxation:

(1) Salaries and allowances of officers and privates of the Army and Navy while engaged in war;

(2) Allowances to widows and orphans and pensions to the sick and wounded;

(3) Money received for travelling or school expenses and legal allowances received for support;

(4) Interest on deposits in the postal savings bank, industrial associations and savings banks;

(5) Occasional incomes derived from undertakings not conducted for profit;

(6) Incomes of aliens as derived from trade, business or profession in places where the Income Tax Law is not in force.

Those who manufacture certain staple commodities that are specified by Imperial Orders are exempted, in accordance with provisions of an Order, from the income tax on the income derived from such manufacturing for the first four years of operation of a factory.

Those exempted from taxation by laws or regulations other than the Income Tax Law:

Persons or corporations exempted from the Tax are:

(1) Industrial associations, federations of industrial associations, the Central League of Industrial Associations, and their federations (Art. 6, Industrial Association Law).

(2) Fishers' associations; federations of fishers' associations (Art. 45, Fishery Law).

(3) Persons engaged in the agricultural warehousing business (Art. 14, Agricultural Warehousing Law).

(4) A corporation with head office or principal business office in Chosen (Korea), Taiwan (Formosa) or Kwanto-shū (Kwantung Province) (Art. 12, Law No. XII, 1920).

(5) Central Chest for Industrial Associations in Japan (Art. 8, Central Chest for Industrial Associations Law).

(6) Housing associations (Art. 16, Housing Associations Law).

(7) Exporters' associations (Art. 33, Exporters' Associations Law).

(8) Associations of producers of staple articles of export and federations of associations of producers of staple articles of export (Art. 38, Associations of Producers of Staple Articles of Export Law).

Items exempted from the Tax are:

(1) Interest on National Bonds (Law No. VII, 1909).

(2) Interest on Savings Bonds (Law No. XIX, 1905).

(3) Money or gifts in kind received in accordance with the Military Relief Law (Art. 17, Military Relief Law).

(4) Income derived from the iron foundry business as specified in the Iron Foundry Encouragement Law (details mentioned in the said Law and the rules pertaining to it).

(5) Incomes derived from industries producing certain important goods specified in the Imperial Ordinance; but such exemption is allowed for the first four years only of operation of a factory (Art. 19, Income Tax Law).

(6) Incomes derived from certain industries in colonies where such industries are exempted from the imposition of the income tax (Art. 7, Law No. XII. 1920).

(7) Interest on Reconstruction Savings Certificates (Art. 6, Reconstruction Savings Certificates Law).

Abatement from Incomes

A. Abatement from incomes from service.

Assessable incomes as under Class III are determined after making abatement at the under-mentioned

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rates from the earned incomes, i.e. salaries, wages, allowances, annuities, pensions, retirement allowances, bonuses and allowances of similar nature to a bonus;

(1) When the total income under Class III is less than ¥6,000 —2/10 of the income earned by personal service.

(2) When the total income under Class III is less than ¥12,000 provided that the unearned portion exceeds ¥6,000—1/10 of the earned income.

(3) When the total income under Class III is less than ¥12,000 provided that the unearned portion is under ¥6,000—2/10 of that part of the earned income which, if added to the unearned income, amounts to ¥6,000; and 1/10 of the other part of the earned income.

B. Special abatement for aged or juvenile members of the family and disabled or invalid dependants.

Those whose total income is below ¥3,000 (after making deductions as provided for in A in the case of the earned incomes) are allowed abatement at the rate of ¥100 per capita upon their application, if, on March 1st of the year, the head or any members of the family are under 18 years or over 60 or disabled or invalid. The amount remaining after this abatement is made is their assessable income.

C. Abatement of life insurance premium.

Premium paid on a life-policy by a person for the benefit of himself, his family or heir may be deducted in accordance with the Order and on his own application within the limit of ¥200 a year.

Minimum Liable to Taxation

A. Class I and II. All income is taxed.

B. Class III. Income under Class III not exceeding ¥1,200 is exempted from taxation, as is also income when the taxable portion is made less than ¥1,200 as a result of abatements made for the earned income, certain family dependants and life insurance premiums.

Tax Rates

Class I

A. Ordinary income of a Corporation.

A corporation that has its head office or principal business office within the territory where the Income Tax Law is enforced.....5%

B. Excess profits of a Corporation.

Excess profits of a corporation are divided into three classes with a separate rate for each class:

That portion of the income in excess of 10% and under 20% of the capital.....4%

That portion of the income in excess of 20% and under 30% of the capital 4%

That portion of the income in excess of 30% of the capital 20%

C. Net assets of Corporations at liquidation or amalgamation.

Net assets of corporations at liquidation or amalgamation are divided into two classes with separate rates:

The total of reserves and income exempted by law from the income tax 5%

Others 10%

D. Undivided profits of a Family Corporation.

In fixing the rate of the tax, an annual income is calculated on the basis of ordinary income of the accounting period. To 10% of the portion under ¥50,000 of such annual income is added, 15% of the portion from ¥50,000 to ¥100,000, 20% of the portion from ¥100,000 to ¥500,000, 25% of the portion from ¥500,000 to ¥1,000,000, and 30% of the portion in excess of ¥1,000,000; and the percentage that the total

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bears to the ordinary income is the rate of the tax.

E. Income of a Corporation having no head office or principal business office in the territory where the Income Tax Law is in force....10%

Class II

A Interest on public bonds..4%
Other interest 5%
B Profits on dividends.....7%

Class III

Income under this class is divided into the following categories and the progressive rates are applied to the respective categories; but income from forests is assessed separately by multiplying the amount obtained by applying the following rates to one-fifth of such income by five.

Income not exceeding	¥ 1,200	0.8 %
Income exceeding	1,200	2
" "	1,500	3
" "	2,000	4
" "	3,000	5
" "	5,000	6.5
" "	7,000	8
" "	10,000	9.5
" "	15,000	11
" "	20,000	13
" "	30,000	15
" "	50,000	17
" "	70,000	19
" "	100,000	21
" "	200,000	23
" "	500,000	25
" "	1,000,000	27
" "	2,000,000	30
" "	3,000,000	33
" "	4,000,000	36

The tax for the head and each of the other members or inmates of the family living together, if any, is determined by applying the rates to the total of their incomes and then working out the amount thus obtained in proportion to their respective incomes.

The above provision applies also to the incomes of two or more than two members of the family living together but not with the head.

Prevention of Double Taxation In order to avoid double taxation in Class I and Class II income tax, there is a provision which allows the deduction of the amount of the Class II income tax paid by a corporation for each accounting period from the amount of the Class I income tax for the same period and this provision is applied in the same way to the net assets of corporations at liquidation or amalgamation.

Time of Payment

Class I

Income tax under this class is collected at the end of every accounting period. The tax on the income at liquidation or amalgamation is collected when the liquidation or amalgamation has been effected.

Class II

The tax is collected by the payer of the money coming under this class at the time of its payment, and he in turn transmits the tax to the Government by the 10th of the ensuing month.

Class III

Income tax under this class is divided into four equal parts which are paid respectively at the following four periods:

1st period	Between July 1 and 30 of the current year
2nd "	" October 1 " 30 " " " "
3rd "	" January 1 " 31 of the following year
4th "	" March 1 " 31 " " " "

Protests and Petitions

(1) Inquiries. In case a person liable to taxation has any objection regarding his taxable income as notified by the Government, he may within twenty days from the notification apply in writing for an inquiry to the Revenue Superintendent

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through the Chief of the Taxation Office, stating the points of objection and attaching documentary evidence.

When the aforesaid application is submitted, the Government gives judgment according to the decision reached by the Committee of Inquiry on Incomes consisting of three tax collectors appointed by the Minister of Finance and those who have been elected by mutual vote from among the members of Incomes Investigation Committees in the prefectures or Hokkaido within the jurisdiction of the Revenue Superintendence Office, one for each prefecture and four for Hokkaido.

(2) Decrease against estimated income. When the actual income of a person liable under paragraphs 5 and 6 of Class III decreases by more than one-half of the estimate, he may apply to the Government for a revision of the amount of his income, but such application should be made before January 31 of the ensuing year. This provision, however, is not applied to decreases brought about by succession, donations or continuation of a business after the amount of income has been determined by the Government.

(3) Petition and suit in the Court of Administrative Litigation. A person who is dissatisfied with the decision of the Committee of Inquiry on Incomes or the revision as defined in the foregoing provision may file a petition or bring a suit in the Court of Administrative Litigation.

Taxation as regards National and Local Loans In the following cases the interest on the bonds, whether domestic or foreign, is exempted from taxation:

(1) When the Japanese national bonds issued abroad are owned by foreigners;

(2) When domestic Japanese national bonds are owned by foreigners;

(3) When the Japanese national bonds issued abroad are imported into Japan.

In the following cases the interest received within the territory where the Law is in force is taxable:

(1) When the Japanese local bonds issued abroad are imported into Japan;

(2) When domestic Japanese local bonds are owned by foreigners.

Exemption on the Profits from Foreign Shipping A foreign person or foreign corporation who has no domicile in this country is exempted from income tax on the profits from shipping of a foreign nationality, provided that the country, to which such shipping belongs, extends similar exemption to the profits of Japanese shipping.

With respect to a reciprocal exemption from income tax on the profits of shipping, agreements were made with the following countries:

United States of America	June 8, 1926
Denmark	October 15, 1927
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	August 10, 1929
Canada	September 21, 1929
France	May 5, 1931
Norway	December 23, 1931
Netherlands	February 8, 1933
Brazil	May 9, 1933

2 Land Tax

The land tax has hitherto been levied on the basis of the assessment of 1873. In view, however, of the fact that after that year there was only a partial revision in the assessed value which, with the progress

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of economic conditions, became unadapted to actual circumstances and in many cases caused unfairness in the incidence of taxation, fundamental amendments were effected in 1930 in this tax, whereby the rental value was taken as the basis of tax assessment. At the same time, part of the surplus revenue arising out of the conclusion of the London Naval Treaty was devoted to the reduction of this tax.

Basis of Assessment The land tax is imposed on the basis of the rental value of land entered in the cadastre. From 1930 to 1937, it is to be levied according to the rental value assessed during the two years 1926 and 1927, but after that period it will be levied according to a rental value to be amended every ten years. The first amendment will be made in 1938.

Payers of Tax All landowners are liable for this tax. In the case of land under mortgage, however, the tax is collected from the mortgagee; and in the case of land under superficies of more than one hundred years, it is collected from the superficiary.

Rates of Tax Formerly, the land tax was imposed according to the value of land, and the rates were 2.5% on residential land, 4.5% on rice and other fields and 5.5% on other lands. With the amendment of this tax by which the rental value was taken as the basis of tax assessment, however, the tax is levied on all categories of land at the rate of 3.8% with the exception of 4% in 1931.

Tax Reduction and Exemption Reduction is made for a fixed period in the case of developed land (land sold or transferred by the Government under an agreement previously made to the effect that, after the completion of its clearing, it should be sold or transferred in accordance with Art. XXI, State Property Law, and become taxable land), land under cultivation (land converted from waste, forests, etc., into rice-fields, lots for building purposes, etc.) and land the classification of which was interchanged. Reclaimed land, waste land and land damaged by calamities are exempt from the tax. There is also a regulation providing that petty independent farmers owning rice or other fields within the city, town or village where they are domiciled or within the neighbouring cities, towns or villages, should be exempt from the land tax in cases where the rental value of rice or other fields is under ₹200, including that of the fields owned by other members of their families. The rice or other fields tenanted are, however, not exempted from the land tax.

3 Business Profits Tax

The business tax of 1896 was based upon external valuation of a business and the tax burden was not necessarily borne by tax-payers in proportion to their ability. In order to remedy this inequality, the business tax law was thoroughly revised and the Business Profits Tax Law, enacted for the purpose of imposing a tax on the net profits of a business, was promulgated in March, 1926 and put into effect on and after January 1, 1927. The important points of this law are given below:

(1) Persons liable to the Business Profits Tax.

A A commercial corporation with head office, branch office or any business office in the territory where the Business Profits Tax Law is in force.

B A person who engages in any of the following businesses in the territory where the Business Profits Tax Law is in force:

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(1) Sale of goods,
(2) Banking,
(3) Mutual loan business (Mujin),
(4) Money-lending,
(5) Renting of goods,
(6) Manufacturing (including the generating and supplying of gas and electricity, and the repairing of articles),
(7) Transportation (including transportation agencies),
(8) Warehousing,
(9) Contracting,
(10) Printing,
(11) Publishing,
(12) Photography,
(13) Renting assembly rooms,
(14) Inn-keeping (including boarding-house keeping, but excluding doss-house keeping),
(15) Restaurant keeping,
(16) Commission agency (in transactions outside of what are defined as commercial transactions by the Commercial Law),
(17) Representation (of merchants in the transaction of regular business),
(18) Commission agency (in commercial transactions defined by the Commercial Law),
(19) Commission business.

Basis of Assessment The tax is assessed on net profits, viz., in the case of a corporation, the balance remaining in each accounting period after deducting the total losses from the gross profits for the period and, in the case of an individual, the balance remaining after deducting necessary expenses from the gross profits for the preceding year.

General and Temporary Exemption

(a) No business profits tax is levied on the profits of the following businesses:

(1) Dealing in postage and revenue stamps issued by the Government;

(2) Manufacture, repairing and sale of scales, weights and measures;

(3) Sale of minerals mined or extracted by the seller himself;

(4) Publishing under the Newspaper Law;

(5) Business transacted in offices outside of the territory where the Business Profits Tax Law is in force;

(6) Theatrical performances and fisheries when conducted by a corporation;

(7) Sale of, or manufacturing processes carried out on products of agriculture, forestry, live-stock breeding or marine industries; but such sale or manufacture in a place specially prepared for the purpose is not exempted.

(b) Net profits derived from industries producing certain important goods specified by the Imperial Ordinance are exempt from the business profits tax under the provisions of the Ordinance during the first four years of operation of a factory.

Minimum Net Profits Assessable The minimum net profits assessable are ¥400 in the case of an individual, but there is no such exemption in the case of a corporation. The rate of the tax follows:

Corporation	3.4 %
Individual	
Less than ¥1,000 of net profit	2.2 %
Exceeding ¥1,000 of net profit	
Fractions less than ¥1,000	2.2 %
Fractions exceeding ¥1,000	2.6 %

The tax has hitherto been levied at the rate of 3.6% on corporation and 2.8% on individuals, but a part of the surplus revenue arising out of the London Naval Treaty was, as previously mentioned, used to reduce the rates. For corporations this reduction was effective from the business year ending on and after April 1, 1932, and for individuals from 1931. The rate for individuals was, however, in 1931 only 2.5% for

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fractions less than ₹1,000 and 2.8% for those exceeding ₹1,000.

Prevention of Double Taxation In order to avoid the double imposition of supplementary direct national taxes,

(a) in the case of a corporation, the amount of the land tax or the capital interest tax paid by a corporation for each accounting period is deducted from the amount of the business profits tax assessable on the profits of such a corporation for the said period;

(b) in the case of an individual, the amount of the capital interest liable to the capital interest tax is deducted from the net profits in calculating the basis of the business profits tax, while the amount of the land tax that has been paid on the land used for the business is also deducted from the amount of the business profits tax assessed on the net profits of the business.

Time of Payment In the case of a corporation, the tax is to be paid at the end of each accounting period and semi-annually in the case of an individual.

The first payment is to be made between the 1st and the 31st of August of the year and the second between the 1st and the 30th of November.

Exemption of Foreign Shipping Provided their country extends similar exemption to Japanese shipping, foreigners or foreign corporations having no legal domicile in Japan are, after May 11, 1928, not only exempt from the income tax but also from the business profits tax on the earning and profits of their foreign owned shipping. The agreements mentioned above in Section II, of Income Tax, regulate the exemptions from this tax also.

Extraordinary Business Profit Tax (Imperial Ordinance No. 37 issued on March 29, 1935) See "A Survey on the Budget for 1935-36, p. 283.

4 Capital Interest Tax

The capital interest tax was put into force on April 1, 1926, with a view to supplementing, together with the land tax, the business profits tax and the income tax, Japan's primary direct national tax. Thus, one of the defects of our system of taxation, viz., the unfair distribution of the burden of taxation between income from invested capital and that from personal service, has been eliminated. The important points are as follows:

Persons liable to the capital interest tax are the receivers of interest on capital in the territory where the capital interest tax law is in force.

Basis of Assessment

Class A

Interest on public bonds, on debentures issued by ordinary business corporations or the Central Chest for Industrial Associations in Japan, or on bank deposits; or profits from trust funds employed in loans by a trust company.

Class B

Interest on loans made on a non-business basis or on deposits as classified among the incomes under Class III, received during the previous year by a person liable to pay tax on income under Class III; and in this case the income of a former owner is considered to be that of his heir.

Exemption from Taxation No capital interest tax is levied on the following capital interest under Class A:

(1) Interest received by persons exempted from Class II income tax under the provisions of the Income Tax Law, etc.

(2) Interest on Savings Bonds

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or the Reconstruction Savings Certificates.

The rate of the tax is 2% of the amount of capital interest and the time of payment is :

For the capital interest under Class A :
At the time of payment of such interest.
For the capital interest under Class B :
Semi-annually, viz., the first payment between the 1st and 31st of August and the second payment between the 1st and 30th of November.

5 Succession Tax

The Succession Tax Law was promulgated in January, 1905, and put into operation on April 1st of the same year. Since then it has been revised several times, the last revision being undertaken in April, 1926. According to this law, when a succession occurs, irrespective of the question whether the place of its occurrence lies within or without the Empire, or whether the predecessor or the heir is or is not a Japanese subject, the tax is imposed upon the descendible property which lies in a place where the aforesaid law is in force. But the kind of descendible property subject to the succession tax and the method of valuation of the property differ according as the predecessor has or has not a domicile in a place where the said law is in force.

The following are taken as descendible property subject to this tax :

A When the predecessor is domiciled in a place where the said law is in force :

(1) Movable or immovable property in a place where the said law is in force ;

(2) Rights existing in respect of immovable property in a place where the said law is in force ;

(3) Property-rights other than those specified in the foregoing two items.

B When the predecessor is not domiciled in a place where the said law is in force :

(1) Movable or immovable property in a place where the said law is in force ;

(2) Rights existing in respect of immovable property in a place where the said law is in force.

Exemption In the following cases the property is exempted from the succession tax :

(1) The value of a property which does not amount to ¥5,000 in the case of succession to the headship of a house is not subject to the succession tax ;

(2) The value of a property which does not amount to ¥1,000 in the case of succession to property is not subject to the succession tax ;

(3) When a succession occurs through death in a battle, or through death caused by wounds or sickness incurred in a battle, of officers and privates of the Army or Navy and others attached thereto, the property of the deceased is not subject to the succession tax ;

(4) When a succession occurs again within five years to the property upon which the tax has been imposed, the amount of succession tax corresponding to the amount of tax previously collected is remitted ;

(5) When a succession occurs again within seven years to the property upon which the tax has been imposed, half the amount of succession tax corresponding to the amount of tax previously collected is remitted.

The Rate The succession tax is, after the value of assessment has been classified, imposed by applying the proper rate of tax in the proper degree in each case according to the kinds of successors.

The tax-rates vary, in the case of succession to the headship of a family, from 0.5% to 16% and in the case of succession to property,

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from 1% to 21%, according to the amount of the property and to the kind of successors.

The lowest rate is applied to an estate under ¥5,000 in the case of succession to the headship of a family and to a legacy under ¥1,000 in the case of succession to a property, while the highest rate is applied to that portion of an estate or legacy exceeding ¥5,000,000.

With respect to successions occurring in accordance with the laws of a foreign country the tax-rates of the succession to property shall correspondingly apply.

When a donation, over ¥1,000 in value, of other properties than real estate within the territory where this law is in force or vested, is made in the following cases, it is considered to be a legacy and the succession tax applies:

(1) On donations to relatives.

(2) On donations made by the head or a member of the main family to the head or a member of a branch family at or after the time of setting up such branch family.

The Revision The following revision has been made in this tax:

(1) When a creator of a trust causes another person to possess the right to get the benefit accruing from the trust, that right shall be deemed to have been given or bequeathed at the time of such transfer, and the new possessor shall be taxed in conformity with the provisions of the Succession Tax Law.

(2) When, in the case stipulated in the preceding paragraph, a beneficiary is not specified or does not exist at the time of creation of the trust, a direct descendant of the creator of the trust is considered to be the beneficiary and the trustee to be an administrator.

(3) The right to receive the benefit from a trust shall be appraised by the Government at its discretion.

6 Tax on Liquors

Tax on Saké According to the law now in force, the tax is imposed upon persons brewing saké, which is divided into five classes, namely, Seishu (refined saké), Dakushu (unrefined or muddy saké), Shirozaké (white saké), Mirin (sweet saké) and Shóchu (distilled saké).

The tax is levied at the following rates for the year commencing on the 1st of October and ending on the 30th of the following September:

1st kind	Dakushu containing not more than 23° of alcohol	36 yen per koku
2nd kind	Seishu and Shirozaké containing not more than 23° of alcohol; Mirin and Shochu containing not more than 30° of alcohol	40 yen per koku
3rd kind	Shochu containing more than 30° and not more than 45° of alcohol	1.50 yen per koku for each additional 1° over the rate for the 2nd kind, i.e., 40 yen
4th kind	Seishu, Dakushu and Shirozaké containing more than 23° of alcohol; Mirin containing more than 30° of alcohol; Shochu containing more than 45° of alcohol	1.80 yen per koku for each 1° of alcohol

By the quantity of alcohol in the above table is meant the percentage of alcohol with a specific gravity of 0.7947, contained in the original fluid at the temperature of 15° C. (59° F.).

The number of koku of saké and the basis of assessment are inspected and assessed when the brewing is finished.

Beer Tax The beer tax, created in 1901, is levied upon brewers of beer at the rate of 25 yen per koku on the quantity brewed.

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Tax on Alcohol and Alcoholic Liquors Upon revision of the saké tax in 1901, the tax on alcohol and alcoholic liquors was separated from the saké tax. It is imposed upon alcohol and alcoholic liquors, except those subject to saké or beer tax, and wine at the rate of 1.80 yen for each per cent. of pure alcohol contained in 1 koku of the original fluid. In no case, however, may the rate of the tax fall below 42 yen per koku.

No tax is levied upon wine or other alcoholic liquors made from fruits of any kind.

7 Sugar Excise

Sugar excise, introduced in 1901, is imposed in respect of sugar, molasses and syrups, which are taken delivery of from manufactories, custom-house compounds, bonded warehouses, customs temporary depots and in other places where the storage of foreign goods is permitted by laws and ordinances, for the purpose of domestic consumption. The rates vary from ¥0.9 to ¥9.5 per picul according to the kinds of articles. As a part of the surplus revenue realized by the conclusion of the London Naval Treaty was applied to the reduction of this tax, the former rates which were from ¥1 to ¥10 were thus reduced. These rates are effective from January 1, 1932.

8 Table Water Tax

The table water tax was established in April, 1926, and is levied on the consumption of all kinds of aerated drinks like "citron" or soda water, except those that contain less carbonic acid gas than 5/10,000 of the gross weight, or those that contain more alcohol than 1% of the gross weight. Manufacturers of aerated water are liable to pay the tax.

The rates of the tax are as follows:

Class I Tama-ramuné (Aerated water sold in bottles with round glass stoppers suitable for permanent use).. .. .. .. ¥7 per 1 koku.

Class II Aerated water sold in bottles other than those mentioned above.. .. .. .. ¥10 per 1 koku.

Class III Aerated water sold in receptacles other than bottles .. .. 3 yen per 1 kilogramme of carbonic acid gas used.

The tax is ordinarily collected at the time of dispatch of the goods, the manufacturers furnish declarations as to quantities and the Government uses these as the basis of calculating the amount of tax payable; the tax of the preceding month is due by the end of the next month.

9 Mining Tax

The mining tax is imposed upon persons holding mining rights under the Mining Law of 1905. The rates of the tax are as follows:

I Tax on mining sets:

(a) 30 sen for each 1,000 tsubo per annum in the case of prospecting.

(b) 60 sen for each 1,000 tsubo per annum in the case of mining.

II Tax on mining products:

1 per cent. of the value of products (gold, silver, lead and iron ores are exempted from this tax).

10 Placer Tax

The placer tax is imposed upon persons engaged in recovering gold-dust. The rates of the tax are as follows:

Alluvial .. .. 30 sen per annum per cho of placer area.

Non-alluvial .. .. .. 30 sen per annum per 1,000 tsubo of placer area.

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11 Tax on Bourses

The tax on bourses has hitherto been levied upon bourses according to the amount of transactions carried on in such bourses; but in the revised tax law which came into force in September, 1914, this tax is subdivided into the bourse business tax and bourse tax.

The bourse business tax is levied upon bourses unless they are organized as corporations, at the rate of 15 per cent. of the total sale commissions received by such bourses.

With the revision in April, 1922 of the Bourse Law, the bourse tax was revised as follows:

(1) In respect of marginal bargains carried on at a bourse the bourse tax is levied at the following rates according to the amount of the transaction:

Class I Local loans and company debentures.

A Bargains to be settled within the limit of 7 days 0.6/10,000

B Others 1/10,000

Class II Negotiable paper.

A Bargains to be settled within the limit of 7 days 1.5/10,000

B Others 2.5/10,000

Class III Merchandise 2.5/10,000

(2) Bargains cancelled are not exempt from the tax.

12 Tax on the Issue of Bank Notes

A tax has hitherto been imposed on the issue of convertible bank notes against Government bonds and other specific securities. In June, 1932, however, amendments were made in the Convertible Bank Note Regulations, whereby both the issue against the securities up to the legal limit of ¥1,000,000,000 and the additional issue over this limit which is not to continue beyond fifteen days have been exempt from the payment of the tax during and after the second half of 1932. Instead of the payment of the tax formerly imposed, a system of payments to the Government by the Bank of Japan has been newly created. For the system of payments to the Government and the tax on the additional issue over the legal limit which is to continue beyond fifteen days, see note on the Bank of Japan in Chapter IX.

13 Textiles Consumption Tax

The textiles consumption tax established in 1905 is levied at the rate of 9 per cent. of the value upon persons taking delivery, at the time of such delivery, of textiles from factories, custom-house compounds, bonded warehouses, temporary customs depots and other places where the storage of foreign goods is permitted by laws and ordinances. Formerly the tax was levied at the rate of 10%, but a part of the surplus revenue realized by the conclusion of the London Naval Treaty was applied to reduce the rate to 9%. Cotton fabrics and other fabrics of low grade defined by law are exempt from the tax.

The above amendment has been effective since December 1, 1931.

14 Tonnage Dues

Tonnage dues were introduced in 1899. Vessels entering a Japanese port from a foreign country must pay tonnage dues of 7 sen per registered ton or per ten koku of actual capacity; but by the payment of 21 sen per registered ton or per ten koku, they are for one year exempt from all further tonnage dues at that port.

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15 Customs Duties

This subject is dealt with in the Chapter on Foreign Trade to which the reader is referred.

Stamp Receipts

Taxes and fees belonging to this category at present exceed fourscore, chief among them are: the registration tax, stamp duties on legal documents, playing cards tax, shooting license tax, civil suit stamps, examination fees, and charges and dues levied according to the customs law and other regulations connected therewith. Of these, the registration tax is levied, by means of adhesive stamps, on the registration of real estate, ships, the mass of mortgage properties, commerce, lawyers, doctors, veterinary surgeons, mariners, copyrights, industrial patents, mining rights, alluvial mineral rights and fishery rights; and such registrations are charged either with an ad valorem or a fixed duty. The stamp duty is imposed, by means of adhesive or embossed stamps, upon legal documents and books certifying the acquisition, forfeiture and transfer of property, and a graduated or fixed duty applies thereto.

The registration tax was, however, revised by Law No. 63 promulgated on April 24, 1929, and it was decided that the registration of the premises of foreign embassies, legations and consulates in Japan should, upon condition of reciprocal agreements, be exempt from the registration tax.

Receipts from Government Enterprises

1 Tobacco Monopoly

In 1876 the Tobacco Regulations were for the first time promulgated and a tax was levied on tobacco; but in 1898 this tax was abolished and the Leaf-Tobacco Monopoly Law was put into operation. In 1904 with a view to enforcing stricter control by introduction of a complete monopoly system on the one hand and from considerations of financial requirements on the other, the Leaf-Tobacco Monopoly Law was replaced by the Manufactured Tobacco Monopoly Law, which is the law still in force. According to the provisions of this law, the cultivation of leaf-tobacco is permitted to private individuals who have obtained the permission of the Government therefor; the leaf-tobacco gathered by them is taken over by the Government and payment is made according to quantity and quality; it is manufactured at Government factories and the manufactured article is sold at fixed prices by dealers licensed by the Government. Foreign tobacco cannot be imported except by the Government or persons appointed for the purpose by the Government, while tobacco can be exported only by persons who have been specially permitted to do so by the Government.

The wholesale tobacco business was placed under the direct management of the Government on and after July 1, 1931.

2 Salt Monopoly

The Government, from considerations of financial requirements and of the salt supply, issued the Salt Monopoly Law in January, 1905, which came into operation in June of the same year. According to the provisions of this law, salt can only be manufactured by persons licensed by the Government and all salt produced is taken over by the Government at prices varying with its quality. Formerly, the price at which the Government sold it was the cost price plus a fixed rate of profit and

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expenses, but as referred to below, no profit is at present added in arriving at the selling price. Salt is sold only by persons licensed by the Government. Foreign and Taiwan salt cannot be imported except by the Government or persons appointed for the purpose by the Government, while for the purpose of exportation, salt is sold by the Government at a specially reduced price and can be exported by anybody. Salt intended for use in industry, agriculture, mining and fishery of some kind receives special treatment and is sold at a specially reduced price. A considerable amount of profit was annually obtained from the salt monopoly up to the financial year 1917-18, but, in and after the financial year 1918-19, the idea of realizing profit was done away with from the view-point of social policy. Further, with a view to controlling the overproduction of salt resulting from the improvement in salt manufacture in Japan proper and the colonies and reducing the salt price, the Government promulgated in April, 1929 the Law regarding the Adjustment of Salt-fields. Thus it prohibited some domestic salt producers from manufacturing salt on two occasions during 1929 and 1930.

3 Camphor Monopoly

The Camphor Monopoly Law was first put into force in Formosa only; but the Government issued in June, 1903, and carried into effect in October of the same year, the Crude Camphor and Camphor Oil Monopoly Law to be operative both in Japan proper and Taiwan, which provides that the manufacture of crude camphor and camphor oil shall be confined to those persons who have obtained the permission of the Government therefor, and the article so manufactured shall be taken over by the Government in return for suitable compensation according to quality. Formerly, the domestic consumption of camphor was confined to a small quantity, and a large portion of the Japanese camphor was exported to Europe and America. The rapid progress in the celluloid industry, however, has caused, of late, an increase in domestic consumption, which has resulted in the absorption of a large quantity of the camphor produced both in Japan proper and Taiwan.

4 Railways

From 1872 when the first railway in Japan (Tokyo-Yokohama) was laid as a Government undertaking, till 1905, the total length of railways, State and local lines combined, reached 7,687 kilometres, showing how steadily the railway net had extended throughout the country. The local lines aggregating 5,224 kilometres were distributed among 38 companies. This state of affairs was fraught with grave inconveniences, for even the ownership of trunk lines was divided between the State and private companies. The service lacked system, the work involved unnecessary expense, while the rolling-stock did not admit of common use. These resulted in a high freight tariff, delay in delivery and so forth. The Russo-Japanese War and the opportunity its termination afforded for expanding the State economic undertakings demanded the unification of the railway service in order to have it carried to a state of greater efficiency. In March, 1906, the Nationalization of Railways Law was enacted and the Government effected in the fiscal years 1906 and 1907 the acquisition of 4,540 kilometres of railways belonging to 17 companies. For the State railways that were thus suddenly

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expanded, a Special Account was established.

Under the Imperial Railways Special Account Law revised by Law No. 6 of 1909, the receipts and expenditures of the Imperial Railways were set apart, as they are now, as a purely special account and independent of the General Account. The Imperial Railway capital, and funds for materials required for the Imperial Railways, and all moneys to be invested are made the capital of these railways and a special account is established by applying the annual revenue therefrom to the annual expenditure. The amounts required for the construction and improvement of railways are defrayed out of railway profits; and in the event of a deficit, or in case of consolidating or redeeming public or temporary loans chargeable to this account, the Government is authorized to issue, as a charge on the same account, public loans or make temporary loans from other special accounts or other sources. The public and temporary loans above referred to are the public loans already issued to defray expenditure required for carrying on the railway enterprise, the public loans already issued or to be hereafter issued for the consolidation or redemption of the loans last-mentioned, the public loans issued under the provisions of the Railway Nationalization Law, and the debts chargeable under the same Law to the Government which have not yet been completely repaid, all these loans are chargeable to the special account under consideration; and the amount required in each financial year for their redemption or payment of interest thereon is to be transferred to the Special Account for the National Debt Consolidation Fund. The Railway Special Account is subdivided into the Capital Account, the Revenue Account, and the Stores Account. The Capital Account has for its revenue the moneys transferred from the railway profit, proceeds of public and temporary loans, proceeds of sale of its property, receipts from materials and structures for railway use, and miscellaneous receipts belonging to it, and for its expenditure the cost of the construction and improvement of railways, redemption of its debts, cost of materials and structures for railway use, and other miscellaneous expenses chargeable to it. The Revenue Account has for its revenue various receipts from the working of railways, charges for the loan of articles forming part of its capital, interest on deposits and miscellaneous receipts belonging to it, and for its expenditure various expenses required for the working of railways, expenses for the upkeep, repair, and replacing of articles forming part of the capital, interest on debts, and miscellaneous expenses chargeable to it. Any balance of the total annual revenue over the total annual expenditure in the Revenue Account forms the profit, while what remains after deducting therefrom the amount to be transferred to the Reserve Account is to be transferred to the Capital Account. The Stores Account has for its capital the capital outlays hitherto expended and those to be expended hereafter and has for its revenue the revenue from the Railway Stores and Workshops and miscellaneous receipts, while expenditure consists of the expenditure on and in the Railway Stores and Workshops and miscellaneous expenses chargeable thereto.

Public Debts

The Japanese Government issued its first public bonds in London in April, 1870, to the amount of £1,000,000 (¥9,763,000) at a price of

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98, bearing interest at 9 per cent., and maturing in 1882. In 1873 a 7 per cent. loan of £2,400,000 was issued at a price of 92.5 to mature in 1897. No other foreign loans were paid at maturity. Prior to the issue of the first bonds, frequent borrowings were made by the Government from wealthy merchants in Osaka and Kyoto. Also to redeem borrowings from France the Tokugawa Shogunate borrowed $500,000 Mex. from the Oriental Bank, Yokohama, a British institution. The first internal bonds were issued in March, 1873, for the purpose of covering the whole debts inherited from the feudal clans. The amount of issue was ¥10,972,725, followed a little later by another issue of ¥12,422,825. In 1874 capitalized pension bonds were issued to the total amount of ¥16,565,850 and were distributed to those who returned their land to the Government. These bonds were replaced by hereditary pension bonds, which were issued in 1876, to the amount of ¥173,902,900. War debts issues by the Government were in the form of borrowings from the Fifteenth National Bank to the amount of ¥15,000,000 in connection with the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. At the end of that year the outstanding funded debts of the Government totalled ¥236,000,000, a fairly large amount at that time. In 1878 the Enterprise Bond Act was promulgated and the first bonds of the kind were issued to the amount of ¥12,500,000 with an interest rate of 5 per cent. and issue price of ¥80. Finance Minister Masayoshi Matsukata undertook the readjustment of bonds in 1886 and in October of the same year the Readjustment Bond Act was promulgated. The outstanding funded debts with interest rate of more than 6 per cent. at the beginning of 1886 totalled ¥175,000,000, and this amount was converted into readjustment bonds for redemption in the next 12 years and the interest rate was lowered to 5 per cent. thereby saving the Government about ¥3,000,000 a year. The national debt of ¥260,000,000 before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War (1894) increased to ¥350,000,000 in 1895 and ¥500,000,000 in 1899. A rapid increase was experienced through the Russo-Japanese War and in 1910 the outstanding debts totalled ¥2,600,000,000. This was due to the fact that money used to pay the expenses of the Russo-Japanese War was obtained through bond issues to the amount of ¥1,400,000,000. The taking over in 1906, of 17 of the principal private railways under nationalization was also responsible for a large increase. Bonds worth ¥476,000,000 at 5 per cent. were delivered to the private railway companies in payment for their undertakings being taken over by the government. Bonds during the Russo-Japanese War were frequently issued at home and abroad. In Great Britain and America, Japan issued the 1st 6 per cent. sterling bonds, £10,000,000; the 2nd 6 per cent. sterling bonds, £12,000,000; the first 4.5 per cent. sterling bonds, £30,000,000; and others totalling altogether £82,000,000, or about ¥800,000,000. In connection with Japan's sending of expeditionary forces to Tsingtao and Siberia on the Allies' cause, the Government issued bonds eight times with an aggregate of ¥499,000,000 between 1919 and 1922. Besides, "delivery" bonds of ¥115,000,000 were issued for conferment of war bonus. At the end of the Kiyoura Cabinet foreign loans involving ¥550,000,000 were raised to meet the great earthquake and fire reconstruction work.

After the Russo-Japanese War, the total indebtedness increased slowly until 1910 and then declined

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slightly in the years immediately before the World War. The extent of the improvement in the government's credit is evidenced by the fact that in 1910 the government floated a 60-year loan of £11,000,000 in London, and another 60-year loan of 450,000,000 francs in Paris, both bearing interest at 4 per cent. and selling at 95 and 95.5 respectively. These loans were floated for the purpose of retiring domestic loans. From the end of 1913 to the end of 1916, the total debt was decreased by about ¥131,000,000. Then, during the next three years, it increased by more than ¥700,000,000. The large budget deficits of the post-war years are reflected in the virtual doubling of the public debt since 1918. Except 1930-1931 the national debt has been on the increase ever since, amounts outstanding at the end of the fiscal year 1932-1933 reaching ¥7,054,195,552.

According to the report of the Finance Ministry, at the end of the fiscal year 1933-1934, or March 31, 1934, the outstanding amount of national debt reached ¥8,139,038,392, an increase of ¥1,084,843,000 as compared with the preceding year. Besides, there is ¥543,645,000 of rice securities which increased ¥323,281,000 on the preceding year as a result of the promulgation of the Rice Control Law.

In the fiscal year 1934–1935 loans amounting to approximately ¥1,000,000,000 was floated, and at the end of March, 1935 the total amount of national debt reached ¥9,090,454,000, increasing ¥951,416,000 as compared with the previous year.

The table on national debts outstanding March 31, 1935, follows :

AMOUNTS OF NATIONAL DEBTS OUTSTANDING

(In ¥1,000)

Internal loans:	
Five per cent. loans	1,869,151
Five per cent. loan (Special)	120,816
Five per cent. loan (Mark "Ko")	896,698
Four per cent. loan (1st series)	164,890
Four per cent. loan (2nd series)	94,468
Four per cent. loan	43,817
Five per cent. Exchequer bonds	2,330,761
Four and a half per cent. Exchequer bonds	715,000
Four per cent. Exchequer bonds	2,051,906
Total	7,687,510
External loans:	
4% Sterling loan of 1899 (1st series)	91,337
5 „ Sterling loan of 1907	222,669
4 „ Franc loan of 1910	160,990
4 „ Sterling loan of 1910 (3rd series)	105,428
6½% Gold bonds of 1924	235,522
6% Sterling loan of 1924	224,901
5½% Sterling loan of 1930	122,036
5½ „ Gold bonds of 1930	142,426
Sterling debenture of the South Manchuria Railway Company	97,630
Total	1,402,943
Grand total	9,090,454
Rice securities	522,390

The particulars of the national debts in 1933-34 are as follows :

GENERAL FEATURES OF THE NATIONAL DEBT IN THE FINANCIAL YEAR 1933-34

Kind of Loan	Rate of Interest	Date of Payment of Interest	Years of Issue
Internal Loans:—			
5% Loan (Mark: "Ka" "Ta" "Re" "So" "Tsu" "Ne" "Na" etc.)	5%	1st Mar., 1st Sept.	1906—1933
5% Loan (Mark: "Sa" "Ki" "Yu" "Me" "Mi" "Hi" etc.)	5%	(1st Mar., 1st Sept.) (1st June, 1st Dec.)	1906—1933
5% Loan (Mark: "Kō")	6%	June, Dec.	1908, 1909
5 „ Loan (Special)	„	„ „	1906
5 „ Loan ("Onshi")	„	(1st Mar., 1st Sept.) (1st June, 1st Dec.)	1910
4 „ Loan (1st Series)	4 „	Mar., Sept.	1911, 1913
4 „ Loan (2nd Series)	4 „	1st June, 1st Dec. 1st Mar., 1st Sept.	1910—1912
4 „ Loan (Mark: "Ho"	„	1st June, 1st Dec.	1933

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Kind of Loan	Rate of Interest	Date of Payment of Interest	Year of Issue
5 „ Exchequer Bonds {Mark: "12th" "18th" "19th" etc.}	5 „	{1st Mar., 1st Sept. 1st June, 1st Dec.}	1924—1933
4½ „ Exchequer Bonds {Mark: "I" Mark: "Ro" "Ha"}	4½ „	{1st June, 1st Dec. 1st Mar., 1st Sept.}	1932—1933
4 „ Exchequer Bonds (Mark "I" "Ro" "Ha")	4 „	1st Mar., 1st Sept.	1933—1934
Total	—	—	—
External Loans:—			
4 % Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	4%	30th June, 31st Dec.	1899
5 „ Sterling Loan of 1907	5 „	12th Mar., 12th Sept.	1907
4 „ Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	4 „	15th May, 15th Nov.	1910
4 „ Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	„	1st June, 1st Dec.	„
6½ „ Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	6½ „	1st Feb., 1st Aug.	1924
6 „ Sterling Loan of 1924	6 „	10th Jan., 10th July	„
5½ „ Sterling Loan of 1930	5½ „	1st Jan., 1st July	1930
5½ „ Gold Bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	„	1st May, 1st Nov.	„
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	{5 „ 4½ „}	{15th Jan., 15th July 1st Jan., 1st July}	{1923 1911}
Total	—	—	—
Grand Total	—	—	—

Kind of Loan	Year of Redemption	Amount outstanding at the beginning of the year	Amount of Issue during the year	Amount of Redemption during the year	Amount outstanding at the end of the year
		(In yen)			
Internal Loans:—					
5% Loan {Mark: "Ka" "Ta" "Re" "So" "Tsu" "Ne" "Na" etc. "Sa" "Ki" "Yu" "Me" Mark: "Mi" "Hi" etc.}	1987	1,820,784,675	33,459,400	2,505,450	1,851,738,625
5 „ Loan (Mark: "Kō")	1963	396,702,750	—	4,400	396,698,350
5 „ Loan (Special)	1935	120,816,950	—	150	120,816,800
5 „ Loan ("Onshi")	1967	17,406,700	—	—	17,406,700
4 „ Loan {1st Series 2nd Series}	1969	259,541,000	—	113,100	259,427,900
4 „ Loan (Mark "Ho")	1967	—	8,145,550	—	8,145,550
5 „ Exchequer Bonds {Mark: "12th" "18th" "19th" etc.}	1953	2,333,501,900	—	2,752,750	2,330,749,150
4½ „ Exchequer Bonds {Mark: "I" Mark: "Ro" "Ha"}	1946	715,000,000	—	—	715,000,000
4 „ Exchequer Bonds(Mark "I" "Ro" "Ha")	1959	—	1,024,457,050	—	1,024,457,050
Total	—	5,663,753,975	1,066,062,000	5,375,850	6,724,440,125
External Loans:—					
4 % Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	1953	91,337,747	—	—	91,337,747
5 „ Sterling Loan of 1907	1947	222,670,989	—	—	222,670,989
4 „ Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	1970	161,036,311	—	40,055	160,996,256
4 „ Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	„	105,428,684	—	—	105,428,684
6½ „ Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	1954	254,322,285	—	11,117,051	243,205,234
6 „ Sterling Loan of 1924	1959	232,605,037	—	3,738,204	228,866,833
5½ „ Sterling Loan of1930	1965	122,036,524	—	—	122,036,524
5½ „ GoldBonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	1965	142,426,000	—	—	142,426,000
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	1936 1948	58,578,000	39,052,000	—	97,630,000
Total		1,390,441,577	39,052,000	14,895,310	1,414,598,267
Grand Total		7,054,195,552	1,105,114,000	20,271,160	8,139,038,392

Note: Besides the national debt there was Rice Purchase Notes amounting to ¥543,645,944 on March 31, 1933.

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AMOUNTS OF THE NATIONAL DEBT RAISED, REDEEMED AND OUTSTANDING

(In yen)

Financial Year	Internal Loans			External Loans		
	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year
1924—25	474,503,825	227,743,275	2,822,958,450	244,075,000	358,693,288	1,506,774,730
1925—26	600,693,050	437,067,350	*3,519,864,225	—	27,462,595	1,479,312,135
1926—27	537,588,725	346,876,625	3,710,576,325	—	18,122,243	1,461,189,892
1927—28	742,749,325	508,582,175	3,944,473,475	—	7,796,785	1,453,393,107
1928—29	689,146,350	253,649,800	4,379,965,700	—	2,097,749	1,451,295,357
1929—30	558,942,975	426,300,400	4,512,608,275	—	4,446,545	1,446,848,812
1930—31	265,608,800	301,424,775	4,476,792,300	264,463,500	232,287,852	1,479,024,460
1931—32	457,583,700	219,297,800	4,715,078,200	—	6,445,186	1,472,579,274
1932—33	1,096,744,000	148,068,225	5,663,753,975	—	82,137,698	1,390,441,577
1933—34	1,066,062,000	5,375,850	6,724,440,125	39,052,000	14,895,310	1,414,598,267

Financial Year	Grand Total				Debt per Head
	Amount issued	Amount redeemed	Amount outstanding at the End of the Financial Year	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) of amount outstanding compared with the preceding Year	
1924—25	718,578,825	586,436,563	4,329,733,180	(+) 132,144,214	51.314
1925—26	600,693,050	464,529,945	*4,999,176,360	(+) 669,443,180	57.803
1926—27	537,588,725	364,998,868	5,171,766,216	(+) 172,589,856	58.945
1927—28	742,479,325	516,378,960	5,397,866,581	(+) 226,100,365	60.789
1928—29	689,146,350	255,747,549	5,831,261,057	(+) 433,394,475	64.735
1929—30	558,942,975	430,746,945	5,959,457,087	(+) 128,196,030	65.263
1930—31	530,072,300	533,712,627	5,955,816,760	(−) 3,640,327	63.601
1931—32	457,583,700	225,742,986	6,187,657,474	(+) 231,840,714	65.450
1932—33	1,096,744,000	230,205,923	7,054,195,552	(+) 866,538,077	84.699
1933—34	1,105,114,000	20,271,160	8,189,038,392	(+) 1,084,842,840	—

Note: * Since the year 1925—26, Special Exchequer Notes have been included.

AMOUNT OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL LOANS REDEEMED OUT OF THE NATIONAL DEBT CONSOLIDATION FUND

(In yen)

Financial Year	Internal Loans	External Loans	Total
1924—25	38,017,225	7,493,185	45,510,410
1925—26	32,880,125	17,699,594	50,579,719
1926—27	48,461,525	18,122,243	66,583,768
1927—28	80,350,375	7,796,784	88,147,159
1928—29	29,247,885	2,097,749	31,345,634
1929—30	97,399,713	4,446,545	101,846,258
1930—31	151,431,835	5,415,233	156,847,068
1931—32	49,952,097	6,445,185	56,397,282
1932—33	8,956,241	23,559,697	32,515,938
1933—34	5,375,850	14,895,310	20,271,160

Note: Exclusive of the loans converted.

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AMOUNT OF NATIONAL DEBTS CHARGEABLE TO THE VARIOUS ACCOUNTS

(In yen)

At the End of	General Account	Imperial Rly. Special Acct.	Special Acct. for Iron Foundry	Special Acct. for Gov. of Chosen
1924—25	2,746,679,392	1,258,728,614	—	212,565,785
1925—26	3,344,394,136	1,311,643,276	—	227,425,919
1926—27	3,446,317,792	1,362,301,876	—	242,434,019
1927—28	3,518,668,630	1,450,267,626	25,604,557	269,780,991
1928—29	3,845,061,419	1,521,673,488	25,604,557	297,072,506
1929—30	3,869,444,820	1,598,941,980	25,604,557	318,451,105
1930—31	3,815,531,809	1,637,625,458	25,280,129	329,665,364
1931—32	3,981,466,829	1,683,838,918	24,954,137	348,671,350
1932—33	4,760,489,568	1,782,814,366	26,393,841	378,781,176
1933—34	5,592,975,453	1,879,614,749	26,298,757	462,495,657

At the End of	Special Acct. for Gov. of Taiwan	Special Acct. for Gov. of Karafuto	Special Acct. for Kwantung Gov.	Special Acct. for Gov. of South Sea Is.	Total
1924—25	88,263,910	22,818,660	1,176,819	—	4,329,733,180
1925—26	91,013,038	22,941,636	1,681,205	77,150	4,999,176,860
1926—27	94,013,038	24,941,636	1,681,205	77,150	5,171,766,216
1927—28	103,746,734	27,039,688	2,681,205	77,150	5,397,866,581
1928—29	109,012,811	29,077,921	3,681,205	77,150	5,831,261,057
1929—30	113,662,664	29,088,448	4,186,363	77,150	5,959,457,087
1930—31	114,205,384	28,870,723	4,561,750	76,139	5,955,816,760
1931—32	113,435,902	30,085,325	5,129,856	75,157	6,187,657,474
1932—33	118,722,040	32,183,976	9,835,739	74,846	7,054,195,552
1933—34	126,530,894	37,736,621	13,811,706	74,554	8,139,038,392

Note: Since the year 1925—26 Special Exchequer Notes have been included in the General Account.

OUTSTANDING NATIONAL DEBTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE OBJECTS FOR WHICH THEY WERE RAISED (March 31st, 1933)

(In yen)

Reorganization of Public Institutions		Economic Undertakings			
Feudal Pensions capitalized		Railway Construction		Harbour, Drainage, Road, Steel-Works, Mining, Telephone, etc.	
5% Loan	4,121,025	5% Loan	342,495,927	5% Loan	14,571,249
		5 „ Loan (Mark Kō)	396,702,750		
4 „ Loan of 1st Series	16,529,115	5 „ Exchequer Bonds	843,163,210	5 „ Exchequer Bonds	200,890,189
		4 „ Loan of 1st Series	20,890,249	4 „ Loan of 1st Series	1,959,169
4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	27,822,890	4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	11,952,905	4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	3,117,309
4 „ Franc Loan	43,074,852	4 „ Sterling Loan of 1st Series	26,826,249	4 „ Sterling Loan of 1st Series	12,267,043
		4 „ Franc Loan	24,800,190		
4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	1,206,218	4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	32,109,139	4 „ Franc Loan	6,503,794
		Sterling Debenture of the South Manchuria Railway Company	58,578,000	4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	10,462,408
Total	92,754,100	Total	1,756,518,619	Total	249,771,060
		Grand Total		2,006,289,679	

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Financial Adjustment

Administrative Readjustment and Limitation of Armament		Redemption of Paper Money		Conversion		Tobacco and Salt Monopoly	
5% Loan	116,657,117	4% Loan of 1st Series	1,652,147	5% Loan	35,190,168	5% Loan	9,559,200
		4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	2,299,760	4 „ Loan of 1st Series	9,411,004	4 „ Loan of 1st Series	5,534,213
		4 „ Franc Loan	5,902,299	4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	7,339,220	4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	586,774
		4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	165,281	5 „ Sterling Loan	12,394,371	4 „ Sterling Loan of 1st Series	1,885,725
				4 „ Franc Loan	14,450,014	4 „ Franc Loan	2,336,451
				4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	10,079,064	4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	65,427
				6½% Gold Bonds	44,077,502		
				6% Sterling Loan	23,865,894		
				5 „ Exchequer Bonds	156,804,707		
				5½% Sterling Loan	30,986,038		
				5½ „ Gold Bonds	36,163,088		
Total	116,657,117	Total	10,019,487	Total	380,761,070	Total	19,967,790
		Grand Total			527,405,464		

Financial Accommodation

Reconstruction works in districts damaged by the Earthquake		Covering of revenue deficits		Export bill financing, etc.		Liquidation of the liabilities of three banks with respect to the loan to China	
5% Loan	417,830,135	4½% Exchequer Bonds	338,375,900	5% Loan	74,407,371	5% Loan	126,822,835
5 „ Exchequer Bonds	124,069,692			5% Exchequer Bonds	321,008,613		
6½% Gold Bonds	9,661,360						
6% Sterling Loan	100,132,653						
Total	651,693,840	Total	338,375,900	Total	395,415,994	Total	126,822,835
				Grand Total			898,159,473

Military Affairs

Financial Ac. (continued)		Completion of Armaments		Wars and incidents	
Compensation for loss sustained by the Bank of Japan in discounting Earthquake Bills and Remedial Measures		4% Loan of 1st Series	5,582,664	5 % Loan	219,137,394
5% Loan	314,451,904	4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	2,943,501	5 „ Loan (Special)	120,816,950
5 „ Exchequer Bonds	61,468,750	4 „ Sterling Loan of 1st Series	50,358,730	4 „ Loan of 1st Series	99,696,289
		4 „ Franc Loan	12,254,740	4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	26,800,589
		4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	7,717,649	5 „ Exchequer Bonds	679,978,663
				5 „ Sterling Loan	210,276,618
				4 „ Franc Loan	37,704,962
				4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	43,217,267
				6½ „ Gold Bonds	200,583,422
				6 „ Sterling Loan	108,606,490
				5½ „ Sterling Loan	91,050,485
				5½ „ Gold Bonds	106,262,912
Total	375,920,654	Total	78,857,284	Total	1,944,127,043
		Grand Total			2,022,984,327

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Development of New Territory

Taiwan		Chosen		Karafuto		Kwantung Province	
5% Loan	28,288,449	5% Loan	122,639,156	5% Loan	8,548,689	5% Exchequer Bonds	1,618,758
4 „ Loan of 1st Series	3,313,298	5 „ Exchequer Bonds	242,469,781	5 „ Exchequer Bonds	21,470,273	5 „ Loan	3,520,756
4 „ Loan of 2nd Series	11,673,651	4 „ Loan of 1st Series	936,352				
4 „ Franc Loan	14,509,009						
4 „ Sterling Loan of 3rd Series	406,231						
5 „ Exchequer Bonds	57,188,364						
Total	115,329,002	Total	366,045,289	Total	30,018,962	Total	5,139,514
Grand Total			516,532,768				

JAPANESE EXTERNAL LOANS AND THEIR BANKERS

Kind of Loan	Place of Issue	Issuing Banks
4% Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	Great Britain	Yokohama Specie Bank Parr's Bank Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation Chartered Bank
5% Sterling Loan of 1907	Great Britain	Parr's Bank Hongkong and Shanghai Bank Yokohama Specie Bank N. M. Rothschilds & Sons
	France	Rothschild Frères
4% Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	France	Rothschild Frères
4% Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	Great Britain	Parr's Bank Hongkong and Shanghai Bank Yokohama Specie Bank
6½% Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	United States of America	J. P. Morgan & Co. Kuhn, Loeb & Co. National City Company First National Bank of the City of New York
6% Sterling Loan of 1924	Great Britain	J. Henry Schroder & Co. Westminster Bank, Limited Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation Yokohama Specie Bank Baring Brothers & Co., Limited Morgan Grenfell & Co. N. M. Rothschilds & Sons
5½% Sterling Loan of 1930	Great Britain	Westminster Bank, Limited Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation Yokohama Specie Bank Baring Brothers & Co., Limited Morgan Grenfell & Co. N. M. Rothschilds & Sons J. Henry Schroder & Co.
5½% Gold Bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	United States of America	J. P. Morgan & Co. National City Company Kuhn, Loeb & Co. First National Bank of the City of New York Yokohama Specie Bank
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	Great Britain	Industrial Bank of Japan

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Kind of Loan	Banks by which the Payment of Principal and Interest will be made	Rate of Exchange at which the Payment will be made
4% Sterling Loan of 1899 (1st Series)	London: Yokohama Specie Bank	—
5% Sterling Loan of 1907	London: Yokohama Specie Bank New York: Yokohama Specie Bank Paris: Rothschild Fréres	New York: The payment is to be made at the current rate of exchange on London. Paris: fr. 25.25 per pound sterling.
4% Franc Loan of 1910 (issued in Paris)	London: Yokohama Specie Bank Paris: Rothschild Frères Tokyo: Bank of Japan	London and Bruxelles: The payment is to be made at the current rate of exchange on Paris. Japan: fr. 258 per ¥100
4% Sterling Loan of 1910 (3rd Series)	London: Yokohama Specie Bank Paris: Rothschild Frères Switzerland: Swiss Bankverein Tokyo: Bank of Japan	Each payment is to be made at the current rate of exchange on London.
6½% Gold Bonds of 1924 (issued in New York)	New York: Yokohama Specie Bank London: Yokohama Specie Bank	New York: The payment is to be made in the gold coin of U.S.A. of the present standard of weight and fineness, or, at the option of the holder, in sterling money, at the fixed rate of exchange of $4.8665 to the pound sterling.
6% Sterling Loan of 1924	London: Yokohama Specie Bank Tokyo: Bank of Japan	The payment is to be made at the current rate of exchange on London ruling on date of presentation.
5½% Sterling Loan of 1930	London: Yokohama Specie Bank New York: Yokohama Specie Bank Switzerland: Swiss Bankverein	New York: $4.8665 per pound sterling
5½% Gold Bonds of 1930 (issued in New York)	New York: Yokohama Specie Bank London: Yokohama Specie Bank	London: $4.8665 per pound sterling
Sterling Debentures of the South Manchuria Railway Company	London: Yokohama Specie Bank Switzerland: Swiss Bankverein	—

Provincial Finance

A uniform financial system was adopted in Japan in July, 1871, when prefectural governments were established to take over the power formerly wielded by the clans, which were then to be abolished. Taxes on people formed the largest source of revenue. The total revenue for prefectural taxes in 1873 was only ¥14,800,000, of which taxes on people totalled ¥14,200,000. Public expenses, school expenses and land tax revision expenses were the principal items of expenditure. In July, 1878, regulations were issued by the Central Government, to the effect that a distinction should be made between the expenses of prefectures and other bodies, such as cities, towns and villages, and the budget of each prefecture for the next fiscal year was to be formulated before February and submitted to prefectural assemblies and then to both the Home and Finance Ministries. With the introduction of regulations concerning cities, towns and villages in 1887, the local self-government

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system was consolidated and a great change in provincial finance was brought about. The self-government system for prefectural administrations was enforced in 1891, and the expenses of these bodies have considerably expanded as years have gone by. In 1914, when the World War broke out, their revenue totalled ¥374,000,000 and expenditure ¥327,000,000. Enterprises such as road and bridge building, harbour construction, public works and others, were undertaken, and disbursements increased proportionately. Expenditure in 1924 totalled ¥1,300,000,000, and the Kato (Tomosaburo) Cabinet tried to bring about retrenchment in provincial finance, but no success was achieved.

Local Expenditures

Local expenditures as a whole have been on the decline since 1927, which was the peak, as a result of the retrenchment policy necessitated by the depression. It has turned, however, to rising tendency in these two or three years as a whole.

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS
(Compiled by the Department of Home Affairs)
(In yen)

Financial Year	Prefectures (Dō, Fu & Ken) Revenue Rates	Revenue Receipts from other sources	Total	Expenditure	Cities Revenue Rates	Revenue Receipts from other sources	Total	Expenditure
1924-25	246,445,717	240,344,435	486,790,152	414,660,681	102,283,009	519,892,037	622,175,046	504,624,581
1925-26	252,436,302	234,269,376	486,705,678	409,657,692	112,180,018	600,461,871	712,641,889	513,442,957
1926-27	263,156,885	259,817,356	522,974,241	449,299,623	111,430,604	706,472,845	817,903,449	571,127,806
1927-28	248,820,435	296,848,724	545,669,159	492,214,055	109,031,256	984,380,468	1,093,411,724	608,746,630
1928-29	262,907,747	303,067,833	565,975,580	491,261,230	115,079,602	854,669,992	969,749,594	621,192,502
1929-30	264,801,968	281,123,097	545,925,065	489,489,861	122,789,419	702,604,925	825,394,344	585,208,106
1930-31	246,946,000	293,250,812	540,196,812	478,238,248	118,842,669	777,745,926	896,588,595	529,609,528
1931-32	221,939,715	317,361,600	539,301,315	502,572,907	107,828,291	638,635,669	746,463,960	556,476,391
1932-33	225,486,706	205,028,188	430,514,894	430,514,894	113,591,840	477,077,759	590,669,599	498,147,570
1933-34	220,734,996	273,963,508	494,698,504	494,696,393	133,242,258	675,063,644	808,305,902	488,987,099
1934-35	—	—	492,378,000	492,377,000	—	—	840,871,000	460,376,000

Financial Year	Towns and Villages Revenue Rates	Revenue Receipts from other sources	Total	Expenditure	Grand Total Revenue	Expenditure
1924-25	269,110,098	235,514,483	504,624,581	439,285,684	1,613,589,779	1,306,100,505
1925-26	269,295,401	244,147,556	513,442,957	451,914,794	1,712,790,524	1,409,196,067
1926-27	279,283,090	291,891,716	571,127,806	500,279,574	1,912,002,496	1,593,997,417
1927-28	267,255,027	341,491,603	608,746,630	540,777,580	2,247,827,513	1,969,306,607
1928-29	841,725,457	278,728,831	342,463,671	621,192,502	560,821,930	2,156,917,676
1929-30	695,547,423	277,877,112	307,330,994	585,208,106	529,609,528	1,956,527,515
1930-31	776,350,757	236,613,665	319,862,726	556,476,391	498,147,570	1,993,261,798
1931-32	634,459,007	199,883,543	340,561,887	540,445,430	488,987,099	1,826,210,705
1932-33	590,575,682	218,170,006	239,097,199	452,267,205	451,982,787	1,473,451,698
1933-34	806,197,698	200,785,074	251,186,729	451,921,803	451,746,992	1,754,926,209
1934-35	840,114,000	—	—	460,376,000	460,139,000	1,793,126,000

Note: Since 1932-33 the figures represent the budget estimates.

Prefectural Finance in 1934-35 In the 1934-1935 fiscal year budget, the total revenue of the prefectures amounted to ¥492,176,000, and the average revenue of a prefecture was ¥10,472,000. The increase was ¥513,000 in the former and ¥11,000 in the latter. The most important source of revenue was taxes which represented 46 per cent. of the total revenue. The supertax on the direct state tax, which amounted to 24 per

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cent., subsidies from State Treasury, and prefectural loans are also other important sources.

Of the expenditures which amounted to ¥492,176,000, 23 per cent. was for public works, 22 per cent. for education, 17 per cent. for police and 14 per cent. for various enterprises.

Of the prefectural expenditures, ¥55,156,000 of Tokyo prefecture was the largest, followed by ¥29,030,000 of Osaka, ¥25,164,000 of Aichi, ¥23,595,000 of Hyogo, and ¥19,870,000 of Fukuoka. The expenditure of Yamagata, Fukushima, Chiba, Kanagawa, Niigata, Nagano, Gifu, Shizuok, Kyoto and Hiroshima was more than 10,000,000 each, while expenditure of most of other prefectures ran between ¥4,000,000 and ¥10,000,000. The expenditure of Nara and Okinawa prefectures was less than ¥4,000,000 respectively.

Outstanding Debts Outstanding funded debts of provincial self-governing bodies which at the end of 1897 amounted to ¥89,266,115, stood at ¥2,728,249,752 on March 31, 1933. Borrowings are mostly for public works, education, hygiene, industrial development, public utility and other enterprises. The list of these outstanding debts on March 31, each year, in ¥1,000, follows :

	Prefectural governments	Cities	Towns and Villages	Others and total
1924	193,204	624,844	81,655	924,532
1925	269,117	727,747	95,597	1,119,189
1926	282,474	839,746	115,699	1,267,942
1927	329,326	1,017,515	131,269	1,513,246
1928	379,488	1,258,941	167,541	1,844,434
1929	425,795	1,371,867	212,097	2,050,383
1930	482,412	1,461,953	235,736	2,221,703
1931	584,349	1,540,897	256,305	2,374,415
1932	580,128	1,596,468	312,832	2,535,086
1933	668,889	1,733,761	279,060	2,728,249

FOREIGN LOANS OF CITIES

Cities	Names of Loans	Outstanding amount (March 31, 1933) (In ¥1,000)	Years of issue	Years of redemption
Tokyo	Loans for consolidation of old debts, city improvement	6,537	1906	1916-1936
,,	Loans for electric enterprise	62,659	1912	1916-1952
,,	Reconstruction Work Loan	95,619	1926-27	1927-1961
Osaka	Harbour Works Loan	2,647	1899-1903	1905-1981
,,	Loan for Electric Railways and Waterworks	17,912	1909	1919-1938
Yokohama	Waterworks Loan (2nd Series)	5,888	1909	1924-1953
,,	6 % Reconstruction Works Loan (dollar)	35,850	1926	1927-1960
Nagoya	Waterworks Loan	3,126	1909	1917-1943
Total		230,241,079		

Deposit Bureau of the Department of Finance

Organization Although the Deposit Bureau of the Department of Finance has been in existence since 1877, it was only after many changes that the present system was established in 1925. The chief of this Bureau is under the control and supervision of the Minister of Finance and he is responsible for its activities and efficency. Its finances are segregated in a Special Account and the Bureau is given control over the expenditure of its entire revenue. The chief business of the Bureau is not merely confined to the control of deposits, but also includes the investment and management of other funds. The deposits, which are made according to laws and ordinances, consist, for the most part, of postal savings deposits received by the

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Government; but the funds of the Deposit Bureau also include other deposits, reserves in the Special Account of the Deposit Bureau and surpluses. All business connected with receipt and payment of cash is transacted on behalf of the Bureau by the Bank of Japan in accordance with instructions from the Minister of Finance.

Investment of the Funds It is laid down by law that the funds of the Deposit Bureau are to be invested solely for the benefit of the State and the public in profitable and safe manner, and that such investments are to be made only after investigation of their purposes and methods in consultation with the Committee on Investments of the Deposit Bureau.

Committee on Investments This Committee consists of the following members: The Minister of Finance, as the chairman, the Parliamental Vice-Minister of Finance, high officials of the Government Offices concerned, one of the Chief Auditors of the Auditing Board, the Governor of the Bank of Japan and other learned and experienced persons. The number of full members is not to exceed fifteen; but in order to meet special needs, temporary members may be appointed. The Committee is placed under the supervision of the Minister of Finance, and its function is to answer the questions of the Minister, after both investigation and study of matters relating to the investment of the funds of the Deposit Bureau. At the beginning of every fiscal year, the Minister of Finance is to draw up the necessary plan to govern the investment of the funds to submit it to this Committee, and the same process is to be undertaken should there be any occasion to supplement or to change this plan. In addition to answering the question of the Minister of Finance the Committee may send him proposals concerning the investment of the funds of the Deposit Bureau. The Minister should present to the Committee, after every fiscal year, a report stating particulars of important matters concerning conditions of investment of the funds of the Deposit Bureau and changes in the funds invested.

Method of Investment As mentioned above, the funds of the Deposit Bureau are to be invested for the benefit of the State and the public welfare in a profitable and the safe manner. Consequently, in conformity with this principle, the investment of funds is to be limited to the following items:

(a) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of national loans or making of loans to the General or Special Accounts of the Government.

(b) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of local loans or health insurance associations.

(c) The subscription to, underwriting or purchasing of bonds issued by corporations organized under special laws or making of loans redeemable within a period not exceeding three years to these corporations.

(d) Loans to banks organized under special laws but not authorized to issue debentures.

(e) The subscription to and purchasing of foreign Government bonds.

(f) Deposits with the Bank of Japan to be held abroad for designated purposes.

These items only indicate the method of the investment of the funds and the question whether any particular investment is for the promotion of the benefit of the State or public welfare or whether it is profitable and safe is left to the joint consideration and decision of

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the Minister of Finance and this Committee.

Local funds representing the funds to be invested for the benefit of local districts to local public corporations, various associations and individuals are advanced from the Deposit Bureau to the borrowers either directly or through special banks and similar institutions. These funds are allotted for the following purposes :—

A Advances to be generally made every year for :

(a) Public utility undertakings of public corporations such as water supply works, prevention of disasters, sanitary arrangements, improvement of roads, rivers and harbours, road making and construction of bridges, reclamation works, construction of school-houses and teachers' dwelling-houses, electric and gas enterprises, and tramway, local railway and car enterprises.

(b) Social works such as housing reform and the establishment of public markets, public pawnshops, day nurseries and intelligence offices and others.

(c) Enterprises by various associations such as land adjustment associations, industrial associations, forestry associations, fishery associations, live-stock breeding associations, manufacturers' associations and commercial associations and those by federations of these associations.

B Advances to be made for urgent needs :

Repair works of disasters, reconstruction works necessitated by the earthquake, accommodation to the silk-raising industry, the relief of the employed, and accommodation to middle and lower class merchants, manufacturers and farmers.

C Advances to be made for :

Such institutions as public corporations and various associations in the colonies. As to the rate of interest paid on the deposits, it is to be noted that the rate was reduced to 3 per cent. annum for the greater part of postal savings. The postal savings amount to about 71 per cent. of the total amount of the funds of the Deposit Bureau. Other deposits are divided into two classes, namely, fixed deposits and ordinary deposits. The rate of interest on fixed deposits is in principle 3 per cent. per annum, but the rate on deposits of such character that the depositing of cash is confined by laws and ordinances to the Deposits Bureau is 3.5 per cent. The rate on ordinary deposits is in principle 2 per cent. per annum, while that on deposits of corporations other than public corporations is 1 per cent. These rates have been effective since October 1, 1932. On the other hand, the rate for the greater part of the funds advanced before October 1, 1932 remains 4½ per cent. and that for the new advances made after that time is 3½ per cent.; but when advances are made through banks and similar institutions, these intermediate institutions gain $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. and the actual borrowers must pay at the rate of 4½ per cent. for the advances made before October 1, 1932 and $3\frac{9}{10}$ per cent. for those after that time.

Accounts of the Bureau Assets and liabilities of the Deposits Bureau at the end of 1933-34 fiscal year (March 31, 1934) totalled ¥4,074,209,662 each, showing an increase of ¥342,891,890 over the same period of the year before.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE DEPOSITS BUREAU March 31, 1934

(In ¥1,000)

Liabilities	
Deposits :	
Postal savings and postal transfer system	2,982,106

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Proceeds of Reconstruction Savings Certificates	76,998
Surplus fund of certain Special Accounts of the Government	325,559
Others	185,742
Reserves	348,641
Miscellaneous receipts	204,629
Checks payable	532
Total	4,074,209
Assets	
Government bonds	1,566,497
Loans to general and special accounts	393,244
Prefectural bonds	870,086
Health insurance association debentures	—
Japan Hypothec Bank debentures	396,059
Japan Industrial Banks debentures	49,772
Hokkaido Colonial Bank debentures	76,998
Agricultural and Industrial Bank debentures	142,268
Oriental Development Co. debentures	54,377
Chosen Industrial Bank debentures	93,243
Central Chest for Industrial Ass. debentures	64,411
South Manchuria Railway debentures	8,112
Earthquake Reconstruction debentures	3,632
Miscellaneous advances	427,667
5% Conversion Loan Bonds of the Chinese Government	2,245
Chinese Government debentures	8,820
4% Internal Chinese bonds	17,584
British Exchequer bonds	5,359
Overseas deposits	1,369
Domestic deposits	11,000
Cash	143,702
Expenditures	121,002
Total	4,074,209

The same at the end of the fiscal year 1934-35 (March 31, 1935) was tentatively given by the Ministry of Finance as follows :

BALANCE SHEET OF THE DEPOSITS BUREAU March 31, 1935

(In ¥1,000)

Liabilities	
Deposits :	
Postal savings and postal transfer system	3,073,774
Proceeds of Reconstruction Savings Certificates	76,199
Surplus fund of Special Accounts	521,131
Reserves	392,884
Miscellaneous receipts	212,242
Total	4,276,232
Assets	
Government bonds	1,717,600
4% Internal Chinese bonds	15,903
British Exchequer bonds	—
Chinese Government debentures	11,066
Prefectural bonds	914,248
Japan Hypothec Bank debentures	358,868
Japan Industrial Bank debentures	47,375
Other debentures	459,478
Loans to public bodies, banks and companies	451,637
Domestic deposits	187,426
Overseas deposits	2,465
Expenditures	110,165
Total	4,276,232

State Property

State property is defined under Article I of the State Property Law, promulgated by Law No. 43 in April, 1921 as follows :

"The State property under this Law includes the State-owned real estate and movable estate and rights provided in the Imperial Ordinance." The value of State property is shown below :

	General Accounts	Special Accounts	Total
	(In yen)		
1924	4,189,793,211	1,942,271,168	6,132,064,379
1925	4,221,005,238	2,122,681,903	6,343,687,142
1926	4,269,586,429	2,301,230,572	6,570,817,001
1927	4,729,822,218	2,527,426,509	7,257,248,723
1928	4,798,480,264	2,704,931,432	7,503,411,696
1929	4,914,642,478	2,922,347,476	7,836,989,955
1930	5,016,980,596	3,094,405,380	8,111,385,976
1931	5,083,477,781	3,228,063,095	8,311,540,876
1932	4,720,478,566	3,280,022,777	8,000,501,343
1933	4,839,306,128	3,353,423,688	8,192,729,816

The value of State property under the jurisdiction of the colonial Governments on March 31, 1933, was as follows :

Government-General of Korea	¥599,387,179
Government-General of Formosa	287,199,877
Government of Karafuto (Saghalien)	48,557,642
Government of Kwantung	158,636,081
Government of South Sea Mandated Islands	16,142,834
Total	1,109,923,616

Estate and Rights The State-owned movable estate and rights are as follows :

(a) Ships, floats, floating piers and floating docks,

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(b) Appendages of real estate or movable estate given in (a).

(c) Machines and important equipment in Government factories such as iron works, shipbuilding yards, arsenals, the mint, tobacco mills, and railways.

(d) Surface rights, servitudes, mining rights, alluvial mineral rights and other rights similar to these rights.

(e) Rights relating to stocks and investments.

The scope of the term "factory" under (c) above is to be determined by the respective Ministers after consultation with the Minister of Finance.

State-owned movable estate and rights, such as, cash, deposits, loans, common fixtures and books, for instance, not mentioned in the above provisions are therefore State property in substance, but do not come under the provisions of this Law.

Four Classifications Article 2 of the State Property Law divides State property into four classes, namely, public property, official property, property used for forestry management and miscellaneous property. Public property is that directly used or to be used for public service by the State; official property is that used or to be used, by the State, for Shinto shrines, or for State services and enterprises or for residences of officials and other personnel; property used for forestry management is that used or to be used, by the State, for the management of forests; while miscellaneous property is that not belonging to these three categories.

The Legal Limitation The Legal limitation of the content of the "State Property Account" and its categories:

Article 26 of the State Property Law requires the Government to make a yearly statement of the increase or decrease in the State property, and, every fifth year, to issue a comprehensive report covering the entire property for the period; and both these statements are to undergo examination by the Auditing Board and then are to be presented to the Imperial Diet.

The following are, however, excluded from the statements:

(a) Movable estate and rights owned by the State but not subject to the provisions of the Imperial Ordinance, that is, State property in reality if not in law (Art. 1, State Property Law; Art. 1, Imperial Ordinance concerning the State Property Law).

(b) State property belonging to the Governments of Chosen, Taiwan, Karafuto, Kwantung, and South Sea Mandated Islands in which the State Property Law has not yet been put into effect.

(c) Public property (Art. 28, State Property Law).

(d) The value of lands used for religious purposes by Buddhist temples, the public land of public corporations, and of sites of Shinto shrines (Art. 2 and 5, Ordinance No. 14, Department of Finance).

The figures given above are based on these official statements of State property, and accordingly, the total value of the property owned by the Imperial Japanese Government including State property mentioned in (a)—(d) above will be much higher than the figures given herein. Paragraph (b) above excludes property in the colonies, but for the purpose of reference this has been added as an appendix to the table of State property. Recognizing that it is expedient to apply the State Property Law to these colonies, the Government is now making preparations therefor, and when this law is put into effect, the property in these

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regions will be included in the statements. Further, as there prevails an opinion that the value and volume of property mentioned in (c) and (d) should be given in the statements, they will be included therein in the near future.

Administration of State Property The administrative service over State property includes both direct management and general administration, the former under the direction of the respective Departments, the latter under the Minister of Finance. Each Minister administers the State property of his Department; but the Minister of Finance also undertakes, as the competent Minister, the general management of all the property and, thus, unifies the direct management by keeping the different Ministers in touch with one another so as to secure the full use of the property.

The Increasing Tendency The tendency of State property to increase is indicated in the table of statistics given above, and is due to the purchase, expropriation and contribution of property, construction of buildings and ships, and the acquisition of rights (acquisition of real estate without owner, acquisition of stocks and of rights due to investment, establishment of surface rights, etc.). Moreover, the revaluation of property made every fifth year causes an increase or decrease in the total value of State property.

Funds from the Adjustment of State Property With the exception of receipts coming under other special accounts and those from the disposition of state forests and plains or of uncultivated places in the Hokkaido, the receipts from the adjustment and disposition of State property and other miscellaneous receipts constitute the funds from the adjustment of State property and the revenue and expenditure are segregated in a Special Account.

These funds are transferred to the General Account and then, in addition to being used for building and repair and other expenditure necessary for the adjustment of State property, are, in case of necessity, used for purposes other than those mentioned above in accordance with the Budget Estimates (Articles 1—4, Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 6, 1922; Exceptions in the Special Account Law for Funds from the Adjustment of State Property by Law No. 15, 1927).

The following are the statistics of revenue and expenditure in the funds from the adjustment of State property for the financial years 1925-26 to 1934-35:

Year	Revenue Yen	Expenditure Yen
1925-26	5,271,904	2,202,806
1926-27	8,802,504	2,566,297
1927-28	12,904,110	15,228,282
1928-29	11,373,386	15,918,470
1929-30	9,349,573	9,102,751
1930-31	6,439,664	6,237,805
1931-32	4,870,211	5,963,898
1932-33	7,700,317	5,906,825
1933-34	6,865,283	6,864,849
1934-35	6,259,334	6,259,077

Japan's National Wealth

The national wealth of Japan proper for 1930, the most recent date for this kind of investigation, was estimated at ¥110,188,000,000, according to the Cabinet Statistics Bureau. This included the following:

	(Estimates in thousand yen)
Land	41,091,348
Mines	6,499,651
Ports, harbour and canals	343,143
Bridges	483,000
Trees	6,706,815
Live-stock and poultry	846,356
Buildings	22,843,300
Industrial machines and apparatus	1,809,381

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		(Estimates in thousand yen)
Railways and tramways (street cars)		3,598,188
Vehicles and aeroplanes		660,294
Shipping		2,060,236
Electric and gas supply equipment		1,905,044
Telegraph and telephone equipment		196,102
Waterworks equipment		352,779
Property in store:		18,847,310
Household property	12,473,201	
Manufactures	5,457,466	
Coins and gold and silver bullion	916,643	
Miscellaneous		2,250,515
Balance of Japan's foreign credit and debt		191,592
Total		110,188,004

The total is classified into Government property 12 per cent., public property 4 per cent. and private property 84 per cent. Land, buildings, trees and mines combined make a total of 81 per cent. in all. Manufactured goods, railways and tramways, shipping, electric and gas equipment and industrial machines and tools combined make a total of 13 per cent. The remainder is 6 per cent. The national wealth for 1930 per household was ¥8,672 and per one man was ¥1,710. The change of national wealth, investigated by Mr. Hideomi Takahashi, a statistical authority in Japan, follows:

Time of	Year	National wealth (in million yen)
Arrival of "Black Ships"	1851	5,085
Sakuradamon Murder Incident	1860	5,769
Meiji Restoration	1868	6,818
Abolition of feudal clans and establishment of prefectural government	1878	7,317
Satsuma Rebellion	1877	8,571
Promulgation of Imperial Constitution	1889	13,043
Sino-Japanese War	1894	16,667
Russo-Japanese War	1904	22,742
First Year of Taisho Era	1912	87,524
	1921	93,026
June,	1924	101,978
March,	1925	105,742

National Income The national income since 1887 in Japan proper has been as follows, according to the Cabinet Statistics Bureau:

Year	National income (in ¥ 1,000)	Index number
1887	233,522	100.00
1890	235,529	100.85
1900	846,080	315.06
1910	2,050,841	878.35
1915	2,342,040	1,003.05
1920	7,653,784	3,406.43
1922	13,391,022	5,735.07
1923	13,255,057	5,676.82
1924	12,882,761	5,517.39
1925	13,382,323	5,731.32
1930	10,635,785	4,554.51

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CHAPTER IX

BANKING AND THE MONEY MARKET

When the Meiji Government announced that all taxes had to be paid in cash instead of rice, (see Chapter VIII, Taxes) which had been the sole substitute for money in tax payment during the Tokugawa régime, there arose a great demand and consequent shortage of money all over the country. The superseding of feudal clans by prefectural governments had necessitated the issue of bonds by the Meiji Government in order to pension off the daimyō and samurai. Furthermore, the Government had to readjust the inconvertible paper notes so recklessly issued toward the latter stage of the Tokugawa Administration. Such was the position when Shigenobu Okuma (the late Marquis), Minister of Justice, in conjunction with Kaoru Inouyé (later Marquis), Vice-Minister of Finance, instructed Hirobumi Ito (the late Prince), who was then visiting New York on his way home from an inspecting tour of England and Germany, to draw up a plan for a financial system for Japan. Ito met New York bankers and listened to their opinions on the adoption of a modern banking system in Japan. The United States at that time had a national banking system, and it was such a national bank system that was recommended to and finally adopted by Japan. The text of the scheme was brought home by Ito and the first difficulty that arose was in connection with the translation of the word "Bank" into Japanese. A new word had to be coined, and though "Ryogayé-ya", money exchange shop, and "Kinko" office to handle gold were suggested, "Ginko", an office to handle silver, was the final selection on account of the country's decision to adopt the silver standard of currency.

National Banks

The Japanese National Bank Act was promulgated in November of the 5th year of Meiji (1872) and this formed the cornerstone of the banking business in Japan. The banks established in accordance with this Act were the First National Bank, Tokyo; the Second National Bank, Yokohama; the Fourth National Bank, Niigata; and the Fifth National Bank, Kagoshima. The First National Bank, founded by Eiichi Shibusawa (the late Viscount), was invested in jointly by the Mitsui-Gumi and Ono-Gumi to the amount of ¥2,000,000 out of the total capitalization of ¥3,000,000. The remaining amount of ¥1,000,000 was offered for public subscription. Due to the lack of knowledge of the people regarding the nature of public subscriptions to shares there is little wonder that only ¥448,000 was subscribed. The bank was opened on August 1, 1873. H. E. Shand, a clerk of the Oriental Bank, a British institution in Yokohama, was engaged by the bank to teach Japanese clerks banking business. With the revision of the National Bank Act in 1876, the number of banks in Japan greatly increased. There were 153 banks with a total capitalization of ¥37,000,000 and with authority to issue notes at the end of 1879. The National Bank Act provided for conversion of the national bank notes

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into specie. An amendment was made in 1883 in the Act, by which the privilege of issuing notes was taken away from the national banks and granted exclusively to the newly-created central banking institution, the Bank of Japan, and suitable measures were taken for redemption of the national bank notes. Meanwhile, private banks and bank-like business companies, which did not come within the purview of the National Bank Act had increased in number, until their total number reached 954 in 1884, and there were no general provisions to control such banks and companies. To bring them under one efficient control, the Ordinary Bank Act and Savings Bank Act were promulgated in 1890 and put into force three years later. Side by side with these private banks, the national banks acted from the first as financial institutions of general trade. When the terms of their respective charters expired, most of them continued business as ordinary banks, and by February, 1899, national banks ceased to exist, so that there was no longer any difference between the economic functions and legal nature of the former national banks and other ordinary banks, all of which are controlled by general banking law. Ordinary banks are placed under control of the Minister of Finance, whose licence is required for the establishment of a new bank or the amalgamation of existing banks ; he is also empowered to order at any time investigation into the business condition and property of a bank. Every bank must every half-year prepare and present to the Minister of Finance a balance-sheet and other business reports, the former to be published in newspapers or by some other means. Provisions are also made in the Act with regard to business hours and holidays.

Bank Act of 1927

Though a few amendments had been made from time to time since its enactment, the greater part of the Bank Act of 1890 became obsolete and inadequate on account of a rapid progress in the financial and economic conditions of the country. A new Act, therefore, was promulgated on March 29, 1927, in place of the old legislation, and was put into effect on and after January 1, 1928. The features of the new Act follow in summary :

(1) Banks as defined in the Banking Act are in principle institutions which carry on the operations of giving as well as receiving credits.

(2) Participation in banking business is confined to joint stock companies having at least the minimum capital[1] prescribed by the Act.

(3) The use of the word "Bank" (Ginko) in the trade name is made compulsory for every bank, and the use of the word is prohibited to businesses not being banks.

(4) Banks are strictly prohibited from engaging in business activities other than those prescribed in the Act.

(5) A bank shall, until the full amount of its capitalization is reached, set aside each time that a dividend is paid on profits 10 per cent. of such profits as a reserve fund.

(6) A strict audit system is established.

(7) Managers or managing-directors while actively engaged as such are not permitted to participate in the management of other companies without sanction of the Minister of Finance.

1 The minimum paid-up capital for a bank in Tokyo and Osaka must be not less than ¥2,000,000; for towns of more than 10,000 population not less than ¥1,000,000; and for smaller communities not less than ¥500,000.

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(8) The Court of Justice shall exercise closer supervision over the liquidation of banks.

(9) The Minister of Finance is empowered to make necessary provisions respecting banks with head offices outside the area, desirous of doing banking business within the area in which the Act is in force.

(10) The power of the Minister of Finance respecting the cancellation of business licences and the giving of various sanctions to banks is greatly increased and the penalties for illegal acts by banks shall be made heavier.

Savings Banks

A Savings Bank Law enacted in 1921 superseded the Savings Bank Act of 1890 and was put into force from June 1, 1922. Certain amendments were made in 1931. The Tokyo Chozo Ginko, or Tokyo Savings Bank, is the only prototype of this kind of bank in Japan. Ten years before the enactment of the law of 1890 concerning savings banks in Japan this bank came into being. As the late Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa was a great benefactor of the present banking system of Japan, so also was the late Rokuro Hara, the founder of the Tokyo Chozo. This bank was founded in 1880 with a small capital of ¥20,000.

Essential points of the Savings Bank Law enacted in 1921 follow:

Savings banks are institutions carrying on the following business:

(1) The receiving of deposits at compound interest;

(2) The receiving of sums of less than ¥10 as deposits at one time;

(3) The receiving of deposits periodically or several times during a certain period and the fixing beforehand of the time of repayment; or

(4) The receiving of money periodically or several times during a certain period under promise to pay a certain amount of money at a certain date. In addition, savings banks are authorized to take up subsidiary business, such as:

(a) The receiving of fixed deposits;

(b) The receiving of valuable articles for custody;

(c) The collection of debts;

(d) The receipt and payment of money as treasurers of public corporations or industrial associations;

(e) The receiving of deposits on demand from public corporations or industrial associations;

(f) The sale on the instalment plan of national bonds, prefectural bonds and debentures of corporations created under special laws; and

(g) The transacting of business in connection with the issue of national bonds and other bonds and debentures referred to above or the payment of their principal and interest.

While no savings bank can carry on business other than that mentioned above, no ordinary bank can carry on the proper business of savings banks. Savings banks shall not carry on transactions requiring the cashing of cheques against the deposits of (1) and (2) mentioned above under the heading of proper business. A savings bank must be a joint-stock company with a minimum capital of ¥500,000 and must obtain a licence from the Minister of Finance. Savings banks are not permitted to invest their funds in ways other than the following:

(1) To subscribe for, take up, or purchase national and provincial bonds and debentures or stocks approved by the Minister of Finance;

(2) To make loans on pledge of national bonds and other securities referred to above;

(3) To make loans on mortgage of real estate;

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(4) To make loans to a depositor up to the amount of his deposits;

(5) To make loans to the amount of his deposits to a person who deposits money periodically or several times during a certain period under promise to pay a certain sum of money at a certain date;

(6) To make loans up to the amount already paid in to a person who receives the securities under a contract made with respect to the sale of securities on the instalment plan;

(7) To make loans redeemable within a period of one year to prefectures, cities, towns and villages;

(8) To make loans redeemable by instalments within a period of two years;

(9) To deposit money with banks or the Deposits Bureau of the Ministry of Finance or the post office;

(10) To deposit money or securities with trust companies in accordance with the Ordinance issued by the Ministry of Finance; and

(11) To purchase bills accepted by banks or trust companies.

Further restrictions on their business are as follows:

(1) Savings banks shall not own or take as security for loans or deposits more than one-fifth of the total stock of a company.

(2) Loans to a person shall not exceed one-tenth of the total amount of the paid-up capital and reserve fund of the bank.

(3) The total amount of loans on mortgage of real estate or the total amount of loans redeemable within a period of one year to prefectures, cities, towns and villages shall not exceed the total amount of the paid-up capital and reserve fund of the bank.

(4) The total amount of loans redeemable by instalments within a period of two years shall not exceed one-fifth of the paid-up capital and reserve fund. In this case, loans to a person shall be less than ¥1,000 and reliable guarantees of more than two persons are required.

(5) The total amount of deposits with any bank and of bills purchased with the acceptance of such bank shall not exceed one-tenth of the amount of the deposits received and one-fourth of the paid-up capital and reserve fund of the said bank.

(6) A regulation given under (5) above is applicable correspondingly to property deposited with trust companies and the total amount of bills purchasable as accepted by the trust companies. Savings banks are obliged to deposit an amount of Government bonds with the Public Deposits Bureau of the Ministry of Justice as guarantee for repayment of the deposits, such bonds to be not less than one-third of the deposits. Savings banks may, however, replace these bonds with the deposits in the Deposits Bureau of the Ministry of Finance. When a savings bank is unable to meet its liabilities with its assets, the directors are jointly under unlimited liability as regards the deposits received before their registration of resignation, and this liability continues for two years after such registration. The above statements refer to ordinary and savings banks, but there exist in addition special banks which are controlled under special laws.

Present Status

In 1932 the number of banks in Japan was 652 with 6,690 branch offices, decreasing 146 and 558 respectively as compared with the previous year. Details of the conditions of banks in Japan proper in 1924-1933 follow:

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BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Number	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	1,798	2,913,035	10,489,064	11,112,892	387,221	172,701	10.5%
1925	1,698	2,896,082	11,089,804	11,710,718	376,973	166,949	9.8
1926	1,572	2,887,539	11,544,858	12,103,944	378,529	170,060	8.9
1927	1,422	2,872,635	11,557,791	11,598,366	347,988	142,053	10.4
1928	1,157	2,691,148	11,841,255	11,076,440	341,020	135,366	7.7
1929	1,001	2,682,782	12,208,008	11,008,455	338,881	136,256	7.6
1930	892	2,536,949	11,731,161	10,973,133	292,302	123,684	7.3
1931	791	2,458,027	11,156,940	10,995,733	266,518	109,779	6.6
1932	645	2,416,397	11,402,489	10,718,675	286,269	107,535	6.6
1933	621	2,359,724	11,946,907	10,442,889	319,074	101,796	6.4

Note: Exclusive of the number of banks in Chosen and Taiwan.

ORDINARY BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Number of Banks	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	1,626	2,405,684	8,039,920	8,224,392	313,630	131,674	9.9%
1925	1,534	2,386,761	8,662,676	8,781,791	302,195	126,950	9.2
1926	1,417	2,361,198	9,120,472	9,158,341	298,148	127,950	9.5
1927	1,280	2,344,990	8,969,985	8,124,813	268,281	104,654	8.3
1928	1,028	2,169,603	9,252,891	7,497,428	231,580	96,871	7.1
1929	878	2,158,687	9,237,697	7,356,710	216,792	94,895	6.9
1930	779	2,021,404	8,687,085	6,969,140	180,781	83,377	6.5
1931	680	1,939,482	8,215,128	6,696,228	163,207	71,769	5.7
1932	535	1,898,352	8,254,736	6,545,701	169,426	67,781	5.6
1933	513	1,843,179	8,749,566	6,453,890	176,059	63,082	5.4

SAVINGS BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Number of Banks	Authorized Capital	Deposits Savings Deposits	Deposits Ordinary Deposits	Total
1924	135	89,451	685,295	104,618	789,913
1925	132	89,921	777,548	122,275	899,823
1926	123	96,941	957,919	103,698	1,061,617
1927	112	96,245	1,010,105	85,176	1,095,281
1928	99	88,145	1,153,656	89,373	1,243,029
1929	94	89,645	1,310,787	103,382	1,414,169
1930	89	87,895	1,481,268	50,369	1,531,637
1931	87	90,895	1,601,723	26,130	1,627,853
1932	86	90,395	1,667,464	11,678	1,679,142
1933	84	88,895	1,803,602	8,013	1,811,615

Year	Advances Loans	Advances Bills accepted	Advances Total	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	152,206	34,028	186,234	12,318	3,746	14.0%
1925	154,164	36,828	190,992	13,839	3,671	13.1
1926	217,815	45,494	263,309	15,543	5,141	10.1
1927	279,816	16,035	295,851	16,393	4,537	10.6

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Year	Loans	Advances Bills accepted	Total	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1928	339,751	7,365	347,116	16,375	4,644	11.5%
1929	395,583	8,472	404,055	15,417	4,099	10.0
1930	470,725	4,276	475,001	16,002	6,157	15.0
1931	463,703	776	464,479	13,147	4,025	9.4
1932	401,887	1,254	403,141	13,775	4,071	9.4
1933	345,503	1,039	346,542	17,288	4,427	9.4

DEPOSITS AND LOANS OF THE BANKS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY ON MARCH 31, 1935.

(In ¥1,000)

Items	Special Banks	Ordinary Banks	Total (Savings Banks included)
Deposits			
Public money	519,448	—	519,448
(State deposits in the Bank of Japan)	(500,786)	—	(500,786)
Current deposits	145,380	999,269	1,144,649
Special Current deposits	144,336	1,785,798	1,930,134
Deposits at notice	29,392	511,112	540,504
Fixed deposits	614,643	5,526,032	6,158,399
Other deposits	76,112	315,064	392,252
Ordinary and special Fixed deposits	—	2,248	1,222,063
Fixed reserves	—	1,849	679,530
Total	1,529,311	9,140,872	12,576,979
As compared with the previous year	in. 56,207	in. 382,385	in. 506,164
Loans			
Loans on bills	212,075	3,578,676	3,790,751
Loans on bonds	2,217,185	816,819	3,357,573
Call-loans outstanding	41,225	762,723	803,948
Discounts	1,093,401	749,878	1,843,279
Call-loans	52,816	353,676	406,492
Total	3,616,703	6,261,772	10,202,043
As compared with the previous year	de. 84,865	de. 126,814	de. 222,830
Negotiable papers in possession			
National loans	967,226	2,119,459	4,067,517
Public loans	29,508	344,181	426,274
Foreign bills	142,628	38,141	180,769
Debentures	106,378	1,176,542	1,603,526
Stocks	36,422	384,121	533,242
Total	1,282,162	4,059,444	6,811,328
As compared with the previous year	in. 122,157	in. 348,540	in. 627,974
Deposits on the day	123,921	324,280	665,366
Cash in hand on the day	290,596	377,386	687,596
Total	414,517	701,666	1,352,962
As compared with the previous year	de. 2,011	de. 50,345	de. 122,675

Note: Banks in Korea, Kwantung and South Seas are not included.

The Bank of Japan

(Nippon Ginko)

The Bank of Japan, the central bank of the Empire, was founded in 1882 as a joint-stock company. Its authorized capital, which was at first ¥10,000,000, was increased three times and now stands at ¥60,000,000, of which ¥45,000,000 is paid up. The Bank is authorized to issue bank notes against gold and silver coins and bullion and further to issue such notes on security of Government bonds and Treasury bills, and other

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bonds and commercial bills of a reliable nature. In June, 1932, amendments were made in the Convertible Bank Note Regulations, whereby the maximum amount of the issue against securities was increased up to ¥1,000,000,000 as from July 1 of the same year. The Bank is also authorized to issue notes against such securities beyond the maximum mentioned above. In case the issue in excess of this limit is to continue beyond 15 days, however, the approval of the Minister of Finance is required, and such issues to be made as from the 16th day are subject to a tax of at least 3 per cent. per annum. The payment of the tax formerly imposed on the issue of bank notes against securities was also replaced by a system of payments to the Government by the Bank of Japan, which was created by Law No. 10 of June 18, 1932. Under this system adopted during and after the second half of 1932, the Bank of Japan is required to pay to the Government for each half year one-half of the remainder of the net profits after deducting such amounts as (1) the amount equivalent to 6 per cent. per annum on the paid-up capital, and (2) the amount equivalent to the minimum to be set apart as reserve fund pursuant to Article 10 of the Bank of Japan Act. When the remainder of the net profits after the deduction of the amounts mentioned in (1) and (2) above and of the amount to be paid to the Government exceeds the amounts equivalent to 4 per cent. per annum on the paid-up capital, the Bank is further required to pay three-fourths of such excess amount to the Government. The payments to the Government under this system are to be effected not later than the last day of August in respect of the first half year and not later than the last day of February of the ensuing year in respect of the second half year, and these payments are counted as losses in computing incomes under the Income Tax Law and net profits under the Business Profits Tax Law. The Advisory Council of the Bank of Japan was also created by Law No. 11 of June 18, 1932 which was put into effect as from July 1 of the same year. Its principal function is to act in consultation with the Governor of the Bank of Japan on the important operations of the Bank. It consists of the Governor of the Bank of Japan as president and not more than five members who are appointed by the Minister of Finance from among persons engaged in finance or industry, or men of learning and experience. Their term of office is three years. The business carried on by the Bank is principally as follows :

(1) To discount or purchase Government bills, bills of exchange and commercial bills ;

(2) To buy or sell gold and silver bullion ;

(3) To make loans on security of gold and silver coins and bullion ;

(4) To collect bills for banks, companies and merchants, who are its regular customers ;

(5) To receive deposits and to accept for custody articles of value, such as gold, silver and other precious metals and documents ; and

(6) To make advances on current accounts, or grant loans for fixed periods on security of Government bonds, Treasury bills and other bonds and shares guaranteed by the Government.

The Bank is, in addition, entrusted with the management of Treasury receipts and disbursements.

On April 7, 1934, there was promulgated the Law concerning Purchase of Gold by the Bank of Japan. According to the provisions of this Law, the Government is authorized,

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for the purpose of keeping gold in the country, to enable the Bank of Japan to purchase and hold gold as prescribed by the Minister of Finance. The Bank of Japan is required to obtain the approval of the Minister of Finance as to the price of gold to be purchased under this Law. It is also required to apply gold so purchased to the reserves for exchange against the convertible bank notes; provided, however, that this does not apply to the case in which the Government orders the Bank of Japan to transfer the gold purchased by the Bank to the account of the Treasury at the Bank at its purchase price for making payments abroad or for meeting other special requirements. In applying, however, the gold purchased by the Bank to the reserves for exchange against the convertible bank notes, the valuation of such gold is made at the legal rate, that is, at the rate of one yen per 750 milligrammes of fine gold, and as a result, the difference between the amount paid by the Bank of Japan for the gold purchased and the amount obtained by the valuation of the same gold at the legal rate will be loss to the Bank of Japan. The Government, therefore, by way of making compensation for the sum representing such difference, assumes an obligation to the Bank for an equivalent sum and delivers to the Bank a certificate of indebtedness therefor. This obligation, however, bears no interest and is not in excess of 100 million yen. When the Bank of Japan transfers, in accordance with the order of the Government, the gold purchased by the Bank to the account of the Treasury at its purchase price, the Bank will apparently realize some profit, and the Bank is required to pay to the Government the sum representing such profit. In the case of any profit arising in respect of the gold purchased and held under this Law, the Bank of Japan is also required, as prescribed by the Minister of Finance, to pay to the Government the sum representing such profit. The Government repays the above obligation out of the payemnts of these two kinds made by the Bank of Japan. As the amount of tax paid by the Bank in respect of the issue of bank notes required for the purchase of gold under this Law becomes loss to the Bank, the Government makes compensation for such loss by delivering to the Bank, as prescribed by the Minister of Finance, the sum representing the tax on such issue. As has been mentioned above, this Law was promulgated on April 7, 1934 and put into effect on the same day, but, when the Government transfers to the Bank of Japan gold actually belonging to the account of the Treasury at the Bank at the time of the coming into operation of this Law, the gold so received by the Bank is considered as having been purchased under this Law.

Among the Governors of the Bank have been the late Baron Shinzen Matsuoka, the late Koichiro Kawada, the late Viscount Yataro Mishima, the late Baron Yanosuké Iwasaki, Mr. Korekiyo Takahashi, Minister of Finance, Baron Tatsuo Yamamoto, former Home Minister, the late Junnosuké Inouyé twice Minister of Finance, Otohiko Ichiki, once Minister of Finance and Hisaakira Hijikata. The present Governor is Yeigo Fukai. The term of governorship is five years, the holder being appointed by the Government. Important figures for the Bank at the end of each year, are:

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THE BANK OF JAPAN

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	60,000	828,896	769,946	10,904	4,500	12.0%
1925	60,000	657,011	719,839	10,348	4,500	12.0
1926	60,000	570,922	609,127	10,358	4,500	12.0
1927	60,000	651,636	915,068	10,357	3,750	10.0
1928	60,000	470,442	870,817	10,366	3,750	10.0
1929	60,000	532,756	701,688	19,815	3,750	10.0
1930	60,000	456,763	779,188	19,865	3,750	10.0
1931	60,000	374,088	989,403	19,761	3,999	10.0
1932	60,000	385,143	819,179	33,256	5,850	13.0
1933	60,000	370,049	880,833	50,379	4,500	10.0

Yokohama Specie Bank
(Yokohama Shokin Ginko)

The Yokohama Specie Bank was founded in 1880 with an authorized capital of ¥3,000,000 with the object of affording financial facilities for foreign trade. Subsequently, its capital was increased several times and now stands at ¥100,000,000, all paid up by June, 1920. This bank heralded the semi-Government banks in Japan, being established two years before the founding of the Bank of Japan. The money market of Japan as regards foreign trade was almost monopolized by foreign banks such as the Oriental Bank, the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation and the Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China, all having branches in Yokohama. Transactions in silver coins were handled almost exclusively by these foreign banks. A movement for restoring the national right and prestige was then gaining momentum among conservatives in Japan because of a rapid importation of Western material civilization in this country. This movement, coupled with a silver absorption policy, spread throughout the country and this culminated in an announcement by the Government of a plan for the establishment of a bank for the exclusive handling of specie in Japan. Michita Nakamura, an influential business man at that time, supported by Yukichi Fukuzawa, founder of Keio University, successfully persuaded the then Finance Minister Okuma to establish the Yokohama Specie Bank. It was planned that the bank should be capitalized at ¥3,000,000 silver, of which ¥1,000,000 was to be subscribed by the Government and the remaining ¥2,000,000 offered for public subscription. The shares were over-subscribed to the amount of ¥500,000. The business carried on by the bank consists of:

(1) Dealing in foreign exchange;
(2) Dealing in domestic exchange;
(3) Making loans;
(4) Receiving deposits of money and the custody of valuable articles;
(5) Discounting and collection of bills of exchange, promissory notes, and other securities; and
(6) Exchange of coins.

The bank also may buy or sell public bonds, gold and silver bullion, and foreign coins, if so required by the condition of its business. It may also be entrusted with matters relating to foreign loans and with the management of public money for international account. The bank has its head office in Yokohama and 36 branches and 8 sub-branches throughout the world. Its president is Mr. Kenji Kodama. During the Russo-Japanese War the bank under-

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took the work connected with the floating of foreign loans for the Government. The bank also played an important part in Japan's economic activities in China after the Russo-Japanese War. Japan joined the Four-Power Consortium consisting of Great Britain, Germany, France and the United States in 1912. In 1913 the Yokohama Specie Bank, representing Japanese syndicate banks, concluded a 5 per cent. loan agreement for China as member of the Six-Power Consortium (Japan and Russia added). During the World War the Japanese syndicate banks lent money to Russia, Great Britain and France and underwrote bonds of these Governments. At America's initiative a new consortium was organized by Japan, Great Britain, America and France in 1919 and the Yokohama Specie Bank represented Japan in the consortium.

THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	100,000	521,117	321,677	18,298	12,000	12.0%
1925	100,000	555,404	312,902	18,388	12,000	12.0
1926	100,000	489,607	298,942	18,336	12,000	12.0
1927	100,000	508,096	334,895	18,081	10,000	10.0
1928	100,000	492,761	291,162	33,628	10,000	10.0
1929	100,000	646,609	344,700	36,153	18,000	18.0
1930	100,000	654,146	367,527	26,290	10,000	10.0
1931	100,000	547,761	363,185	22,815	10,000	10 0
1932	100,000	644,054	391,925	23,387	10,000	10.0
1933	100,000	558,689	368,864	27,517	10,000	10.0

The Hypothec Bank of Japan
(Nippon Kwangyo Ginko)

The Hypothec Bank of Japan was created in 1897 for the purpose of making long-term loans at a low interest rate on mortgage of immovable property. Its authorized capital which was ¥40,000,000 till 1920 has been increased very often following mergers with 22 agricultural and industrial banks, so it now stands at ¥108,750,000, of which ¥84,626,063 is paid up. The business of this bank is mainly as follows:

(1) To make on mortgage of immovable property loans redeemable by annual instalments within a period not exceeding 50 years, or at a fixed time within a period not exceeding five years, provided in the latter case the total amount of such loans does not exceed twice the total amount of the paid-up capital and reserve fund. In the case, however, of loans for the fishery industry, they may be made on mortgage of fishery rights. Railway and tramway foundations shall be regarded as immovable property. The amount of loans made on security of residential land or buildings, other than sites or buildings belonging to factory foundations and factories, which lie in localities where the City Organization Law is in force or on city land to be designated by an Imperial Ordinance or the amount of loans made on pledge of claims secured by these residential land and buildings (including real estate mortgage certificates), and the amount of loans made under the City Planning Law to land re-arrangement associations or federations of such associations shall not exceed one-half of the total amount of the paid-up capital and mortgage debentures issued;

(2) To make loans without se-

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curity to prefectures, cities, towns, villages and other public corporations organized by law;

(3) To make loans without security, redeemable at a fixed time or by annual instalments in the case of the adjustment of arable land under the law for such adjustments;

(4) To make loans without security, redeemable at a fixed time or by annual instalments to industrial, staple export manufacturers, fishery, forestry, stock-breeding or building associations, or federations of such associations;

(5) To make without security loans redeemable at a fixed time within a period not exceeding five years or by mutual instalments within a period not exceeding 10 years to a party of at least 10 persons, combined with joint liability, who are engaged in agriculture, industry or fishery in any prefecture where no Agricultural and Industrial Bank exists;

(6) To make without any security loans redeemable at a fixed time or by annual instalments to land re-arrangement associations or federations of such associations in case they apply to borrow for the re-arrangement of land to be undertaken under the City Planning Law or in case they, combined with joint liability, apply to borrow for the same purpose;

(7) With money obtained by the issue of hypothec debentures with premium, to make loans on security of cultivated fields, salt-pans, forests, pastures, fish-farms or fishery rights or on pledge of claims secured by these items (including real estate mortgage certificates);

(8) To take up debentures issued by the Agricultural and Industrial Banks, Hokkaido Colonization Bank, Central Bank for Co-operative Societies and Chosen Industrial Bank;

(9) To make loans redeemable by annual instalments on security of the claim on loans redeemable by annual instalments that are issued by these agricultural and industrial banks and of the mortgage in security for such loans;

(10) To make on pledge of claims secured by real estate (including real estate mortgage certificates) loans redeemable at a fixed time within a period not exceeding five years, and to buy and sell real estate mortgage certificates;

(11) To take deposits and take custody of gold and silver bullion and negotiable paper, provided that the total amount of deposits other than the fixed deposits and deposits of prefectures or cities shall not exceed the total amount of the paid-up capital.

Finally, the bank may employ the deposits and the money lying idle in the course of its business in the following manner only:

(a) To purchase with a sum equal to not less than one-fourth of the deposits national bonds or negotiable paper approved by the Minister of Finance or to deposit it in the Deposits Bureau of the Ministry of Finance or in banks approved by the Minister of Finance;

(b) To discount bills or make short-term loans on security of the above-mentioned negotiable paper or agricultural or marine products or industrial manufactures;

(c) To discount bills or grant overdrafts to industrial associations, staple exports manufacturers' associations, fishery associations or federations of such associations;

(d) To make short-term loans to public corporations;

(e) To make short-term loans without security to a party of at least ten persons, combined under joint liability, who are engaged in agriculture, industry or fishery in

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any prefecture, where no Agricultural and Industrial Bank exists; and

(f) To use fixed deposits as funds for making on security of real estate or fishery rights or on pledge of claims secured by real estate (including real estate mortgage certificates) loans redeemable at a fixed time within a period not exceeding five years.

The Hypothec Bank is authorized, when at least one-fourth of its nominal capital has been paid up, to issue mortgage debentures to an amount not exceeding 15 times its paid-up capital, provided the amount of such debentures shall not exceed the total amount of outstanding loans redeemable by annual instalments or at a fixed time, and the debentures of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks, Hokkaido Colonization Bank, Central Bank for Co-operative Societies and Chosen Industrial Bank in hand. These mortgage debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings taking place at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount to be redeemed in the same year of the loans redeemable by annual instalments and the debentures of the above-mentioned banks in hand. In case any loans redeemable by annual instalments are repaid before they are due, the bank may with the amount so paid purchase and redeem its mortgage debentures. The present president of the bank is Dr. Eiichi Baba.

THE HYPOTHEC BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Mortgage Debentures
1924	94,000	54,195	709,047	10,984	6,988	10.0	623,975
1925	94,000	59,832	765,692	11,209	6,988	10.0	654,499
1926	94,000	59,089	781,271	11,359	6,988	10.0	688,435
1927	99,000	82,423	816,102	11,819	6,988	10.0	693,451
1928	99,000	89,143	879,808	18,000	7,488	10.0	732,009
1929	100,000	92,314	935,896	19,028	7,588	10.0	752,105
1930	108,750	130,961	1,086,958	20,146	8,100	10.0	853,692
1931	108,750	123,393	1,109,187	20,721	8,463	10.0	896,715
1932	108,750	149,516	1,167,763	20,327	8,463	10.0	915,683
1933	108,750	145,888	1,094,070	19,961	8,463	10.0	852,806

Agricultural and Industrial Banks (Noko Ginko)

The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are prefectural financial institutions for accommodating provincials with long-term loans at a low rate of interest on security of immovable property and, being established in every prefecture, are most useful through their connection with their central institution, the Hypothec Bank of Japan. But with a view to affording further financial facilities to local districts, the law concerning the amalgamation of the Hypothec Bank and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks was enacted in 1921. By virtue of this law the former was allowed to take over the business of the latter on condition that it established its branches in places where head offices and branches of the latter were in existence. The Agricultural and Industrial Banks are joint-stock companies, each having a capital of not less than ¥200,000. Each of these banks has as a general rule for its exclusive business district a prefecture. The business of the Agricultural and Industrial Banks is principally the same as that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan. These

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banks may become agents for the Hypothec Bank or other Agricultural and Industrial Banks. When acting as agents for loans made by the Hypothec Bank, Agricultural and Industrial Banks may guarantee to the bank the solvency of the debtors. They may take charge of the receipt and disbursement of the funds of prefectures or cities. These banks are authorized, when at least one-fourth of the nominal capital has been paid up, to issue agricultural and industrial debentures to an amount not exceeding fifteen times the paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the amount remaining after the deduction of the amount of pledges given for money borrowed from the Hypothec Bank from the total amount of outstanding loans redeemable by annual instalments and at a fixed time. There were 19 of these banks in existence throughout the country at the end of 1933.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL BANKS

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Number of Banks	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1924	27	93,900	140,184	436,600	12,144	7,544	9.6%	277,775
1925	27	95,400	144,714	488,356	13,208	7,590	9.3	336,648
1926	27	105,400	149,778	539,113	14,747	8,231	9.2	377,454
1927	25	102,400	149,425	617,438	13,701	7,999	9.2	442,984
1928	25	104,400	176,926	686,953	21,043	8,488	9.5	468,890
1929	19	104,400	165,899	705,997	21,551	8,799	9.4	506,409
1930	19	88,900	148,654	651,752	19,337	8,125	9.4	469,797
1931	19	88,900	146,030	669,906	17,386	7,523	9.4	483,554
1932	19	88,900	154,383	699,170	16,773	7,432	9.2	506,129
1933	19	88,900	162,775	672,893	17,659	7,449	9.2	496,673

The Industrial Bank of Japan
(Nippon Kogyo Ginko)

The Industrial Bank of Japan was founded in April, 1902. Its authorized capital is ¥50,000,000 fully paid up. Its business is as follows:

(1) To make loans on pledges of national and prefectural bonds and company debentures and shares;

(2) To subscribe for or underwrite national and prefectural bonds and company debentures;

(3) To receive deposits of money and accept articles of value for custody;

(4) To engage in trust business for mortgage debentures;

(5) To discount bills;

(6) To engage in the business of bills of exchange and documentary drafts;

(7) To make loans on security of foundations created as subscribed by law;

(8) To make on mortgage of ships or ships under construction loans which shall be redeemable by annual instalments within a period not exceeding 15 years, or at a fixed time within a period not exceeding five years;

(9) To make loans on security of shipbuilding materials or equipment;

(10) To subscribe for or take up shares which have been approved by the Minister of State concerned;

(11) To subscribe for national or provincial bonds and company debentures, or to act as agent for receiving these instalments payable by general subscribers or paying principal and interest and dividends;

(12) To make call loans for a fixed term on security of sites and

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buildings belonging to factories or of residential land or buildings lying in localities where the City Organization Law is in force or in city land to be designated by Imperial Ordinance, provided, however, that the total amount of such loans shall not exceed two-thirds of the amount of paid-up capital; and

(13) To purchase national or provincial loans or company debentures and shares or gold and silver bullion with available money which the bank may employ for the purpose.

The bank is authorized to issue debentures to an amount not exceeding ten times its paid-up capital, provided, however, that the amount of such debentures shall not exceed the total amount of outstanding loans, discounted bills, and national or provincial bonds, company debentures, shares and gold and silver bullion in hand. Only in the event of funds being required for enterprises for public benefit undertaken in a foreign country, the bank may, with approval of the Minister of Finance, issue debentures irrespectively of the above-mentioned restriction. The bank played an important part in overseas investment. The first of this kind was that in public utilities and loans to private enterprises in Korea in 1906. The bank also became active in investments in China, not only making direct investments, but also indirectly through the Toa Industrial Development Company, Chunichi Industrial Development Company and Chukwa Exchange Bank. One of the most notable investments of the bank was its "political" loans to China in 1918. Loans also were made to Japan's industrial developments in the South Seas. The bank underwrote loans for the Russian and French Governments and also subscribed for shares of the Franco-Japanese Bank and Chukwa Exchange Bank, Peiping, in connection with the establishment of these institutions. The bank features in engaging in trust business in mortgage debentures. Through financial accommodation of the Deposits Bureau of the Ministry of Finance, the bank lent, for industrial rehabilitation, the first-aid loans to districts devastated by the Kanto earthquake and fire. Mr. Toyotaro Yuki is president.

THE INDUSTRIAL BANK OF JAPAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Capital Fund in Trust	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend	Debentures
1924	50,000	71,594	302,746	123,450	6,893	5,000	10.0%	322,227
1925	50,000	64,411	283,816	182,598	5,413	4,000	8.0	286,269
1926	50,000	44,025	282,269	192,003	7,279	4,000	8.0	271,375
1927	50,000	45,891	308,700	174,372	6,195	3,000	6.0	248,498
1928	50,000	49,957	325,085	167,014	6,709	3,000	6.0	273,003
1929	50,000	44,988	380,630	163,492	6,765	3,000	6.0	278,575
1930	50,000	46,858	455,336	165,011	6,491	3,000	6.0	333,303
1931	50,000	52,978	488,003	176,992	6,547	3,000	6.0	343,330
1932	50,000	56,047	476,090	199,982	6,638	3,000	6.0	404,041
1933	50,000	59,236	408,177	354,645	7,800	3,000	6.0	323,840

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank

(Hokkaido Takushoku Ginko)

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank was established with the object of supplying capital for enterprises for colonizing and developing Hokkaido and Karafuto (the Japanese half of Saghalien), and especially for the purpose of facilitating the supply

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of capital by making loans on security of agricultural products and company shares and debentures as well as making long-term loans at low interest rate on immovable property. The bank had at first a capital of ¥3,000,000, but on April 23, 1922, it was increased to ¥20,000,000, of which ¥12,500,000 has been paid up. The business scope is very much similar to that of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and the Agricultural and Industrial Banks. The bank is authorized to issue debentures of not less than ten yen face value to an amount not exceeding 15 times its paid-up capital. Such debentures, however, must not exceed the total amount outstanding of the loans which are redeemable by annual instalments or at a fixed date, and when debentures of not more than twenty yen face value are to be issued by the bank, such issue may also be effected by sale. These debentures must be redeemed by means of drawings at least twice a year in amounts proportionate to the amount of the said loans to be redeemed in the same year.

THE HOKKAIDO COLONIAL BANK

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Deposits	Advances	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of dividend	Debentures
1924	20,000	43,245	162,251	2,050	1,250	10.0%	107,642
1925	20,000	45,933	167,330	2,378	1,250	10.0	106,474
1926	20,000	49,348	171,572	2,759	1,250	10.0	98,649
1927	20,000	55,054	180,499	3,162	1,125	9.0	115,943
1928	20,000	66,106	178,071	3,318	1,125	9.0	103,238
1929	20,000	73,571	178,779	3,360	1,125	9.0	96,938
1930	20,000	75,056	188,282	3,391	1,125	9.0	102,753
1931	20,000	69,759	187,341	2,932	1,000	8.0	102,716
1932	20,000	79,468	215,705	2,687	938	7.5	124,252
1933	20,000	89,089	217,620	2,411	875	7.0	122,909

The Bank of Taiwan
(Taiwan Ginko)

The Bank of Taiwan was founded in September, 1899, four years after Japan's occupation of Formosa, as the result of the Sino-Japanese War. It was capitalized at ¥5,000,000, when it opened. The bank was brought into being largely through efforts of the then Minister of Finance Masayoshi Matsukata, and was given the privilege of issuing notes for circulation in the island. In 1910 its capital was increased to ¥10,000,000, which was doubly increased in 1918. The bank served as the most influential financing organ not only for the island's principal industries such as rice, sugar, camphor, tea, coal and gold, but contributed a great deal toward Japanese industrial development in South Seas countries and business activities in South China. Its reckless business expansion during the World War resulted in a tie-up of a large amount of loans, when the financial panic of 1920 took place. After 1922 the business sphere was narrowed. The great earthquake and fire of 1923 caused the collection of loans difficult. The bank wrote off ¥28,600,000 of its bad assets for the first half of 1925 and partially made good the loss by means of its reserves. In addition, it carried out a reduction of capital by ¥15,000,000. This was not enough. A bill providing for financial aid to the bank was adopted by the Diet and, consequently, the bank was accorded financial accommodation by the Bank of Japan. In November of the same

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year it further cut its capital by ¥30,000,000. Readjustment has been progressing since then. Mr. Jiro Yasuda is its president.

THE BANK OF TAIWAN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Fund	Deposits	Loans	Advances Bills Discounted	Total
1924	60,000	52,500	13,780	224,984	106,608	610,105	716,714
1925	45,000	39,375	1,526	134,380	100,827	570,084	670,859
1926	45,000	39,375	1,766	92,806	181,944	484,543	666,487
1927	15,000	13,125	—	75,375	222,333	318,399	540,732
1928	15,000	13,125	—	76,090	147,751	138,160	285,911
1929	15,000	13,125	—	71,678	148,677	133,538	282,215
1930	15,000	13,125	414	73,661	144,668	128,575	273,243
1931	15,000	13,125	1,214	78,920	131,390	130,252	261,642
1932	15,000	13,125	1,744	95,070	128,160	117,378	245,538
1933	15,000	13,125	2,354	101,457	119,737	108,207	227,944

Profit and Loss Account

Year	Earnings	Expenses	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	98,865	94,148	4,717	3,678	7.0%
1925	110,639	109,982	1,136	986	5.0
1926	76,829	74,429	2,400	1,971	5.0
1927	75,882	76,689	—	—	—
1928	54,827	57,203	—	—	—
1929	47,478	47,948	—	—	—
1930	39,934	39,075	859	—	—
1931	47,145	46,287	858	—	—
1932	45,765	44,700	1,065	395	3.0
1933	40,054	38,758	1,296	395	3.0

The Bank of Chosen
(Chosen Ginko)

The Bank of Chosen was established in March, 1911, by virtue of the Bank of Chosen Act issued by the Government following Korea's annexation to Japan in April, 1910. The bank took over the assets and liabilities of the Bank of Korea, which was founded in October, 1909, following the transfer of the assets and liabilities of the Dai-Ichi (First) Bank. The bank is authorized to issue bank notes. In 1917 the bank's notes were given sole right of legal tender in the Kwantung Leased Territory and along the South Manchuria Railway, and the limit of its guaranteed note issue was increased to ¥50,000,000. The bank greatly increased its activities during the World War and expanded its business sphere to Japan proper, where it commenced foreign exchange business. The financial reaction following the World War caused it to narrow its business activities. It wrote off frozen assets to the amount of ¥36,000,000 for the first half of 1925 and halved its capital to ¥40,000,000. The bank borrowed a large amount of money from the Bank of Japan after 1920 on 10 years' repayment. Through revision of the Bank of Chosen Act in 1924 the right of control of the bank was transferred from the Governor-General of Korea to the Minister of Finance. The bank was unable to collect call loans in connection with the 1927 financial panic, but the extent of harm received was not so severe as that of the Bank of Taiwan.

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THE BANK OF CHOSEN

At the end of each year

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Fund	Deposits	Loans	Advances Bills Discounted	Total
1924	80,000	50,000	11,420	204,624	325,756	88,838	414,596
1925	40,000	25,000	873	132,736	285,975	70,699	356,674
1926	40,000	25,000	821	135,871	294,553	75,233	369,776
1927	40,000	25,000	1,001	197,718	261,041	54,874	315,915
1928	40,000	25,000	1,201	149,919	279,905	39,503	319,408
1929	40,000	25,000	2,101	151,150	290,462	24,260	314,723
1930	40,000	25,000	2,901	98,785	248,758	17,796	266,554
1931	40,400	25,000	3,701	111,462	273,673	23,726	297,400
1932	40,000	25,000	4,501	193,932	303,785	33,683	337,468
1933	40,000	25,000	5,301	215,105	322,950	31,558	354,508

Profit and Loss Account

Year	Earnings	Expenses	Net Profit	Dividend	Rate of Dividend
1924	53,753	50,458	3,294	2,820	6.0%
1925	75,768	75,068	706	587	2.5
1926	30,000	28,462	1,597	1,175	5.0
1927	25,328	23,946	1,382	940	4.0
1928	28,128	26,543	1,585	940	4.0
1929	26,186	24,321	1,865	940	4.0
1930	23,492	21,664	1,828	940	4.0
1931	24,366	22,531	1,835	940	4.0
1932	38,709	36,860	1,849	940	4.0
1933	41,477	39,624	1,853	940	4.0

Financial Panic of 1927

The financial panic that overtook Japan for about a month from the middle of March, 1927, was an unprecedented affair in Japan's financial circles. This incident brought about a revolutionary change in the Japanese financial system and a great banking readjustment followed it during the next year. The financial panic may be divided into three stages. The first period extended from the closing of the Tokyo Watanabé Bank and its sister institution, the Akaji Savings Bank on March 15 to March 23, when the so-called earthquake and fire readjustment bills were adopted by the Diet. The second period was marked by the progress of financial uncertainty spreading over all Japan and lasted from the time of the adoption of the bills to the middle of April. The third period was featured by the opposition raised by the Privy Council against an urgent Imperial Ordinance for the relief of the Bank of Taiwan, when it was submitted to the Council, and the subsequent development of the situation was one of uncertainty in which the financial condition went from bad to worse until, on April 22, a moratorium was enforced throughout the country, to last for 3 weeks.

The Reaction of 1920 The financial panic had sundry causes before it really came to a head. When the financial reaction of 1920 overtook Japan, the country stood in need of carrying out thoroughgoing readjustments. Comparing prices of commodities in 1914 with those in 1920, the average index number was 338 on the basis of 100 taken in 1914. Soon after the financial panic the index number fell back to 280 and this declining trend lasted until the subsequent low point of 180 was

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reached just before the 1927 panic. This heavy drop of prices dealt a severe blow to economic circles. By the drop in the value of mortgages, banks were given no little blow. Refunding of loans advanced became difficult and this caused many banks to incur losses. Following the 1920 reaction no readjustment was carried out.

The Quake-fire The Kwanto earthquake and fire of 1923 aggrandized the losses of banks. Bankers realized that thoroughgoing readjustment was unavoidable, but they lacked enough courage to carry out the reduction of capital or take other drastic steps, fearing loss of public credit. The shiftlessness of the bankers as the economic condition grew worse, aggravated the situation. When the relief bills, that is, the Earthquake and Fire Bill, Readjustment Bill and the Earthquake and Fire Loss Indemnification Bond Bill, were submitted to the 52nd session of the Imperial Diet on January 26, 1927, they provoked a great discussion in the Diet. In debating these bills, interpellations and answers exchanged on the Diet floor went too far, exposing in some cases the weak status of many banks, but on the whole this Diet debate allayed the uneasiness of depositors regarding the credit of the banks. Through a slip of the tongue on the part of Mr. Naoharu Kataoka, the then Minister of Finance, irregularities of the Tokyo Watanabé Bank were exposed to the Diet on March 14. The bank had made a large amount of loans to various business enterprises in which directors of the bank were interested, and the refunding of loans had become difficult. On March 15, the bank had to close its doors and it was similarly followed by its subsidiary institution, the Akaji Savings Bank. This proved an incident leading to the outburst of the great financial panic that ensued. Damaging rumours ran fast and runs on banks increased. On April 19, the Nakai Bank, Tokyo, suspended its business, and on April 22, four second-class ordinary banks in Tokyo and Yokohama, such as the Soda, Eighty-fourth, Nakazawa and Murai banks, closed their doors and announced business readjustments. The total amount of deposits of these six banks reached about ¥200,000,000. Because of the fact that depositors were mostly medium-sized business shops of Tokyo, the extent of damage was fairly wide. Inter-bank transactions were carried on only with great caution and call loan deals were nearly suspended. Instead, many banks asked for loans from the Bank of Japan. As the result of negotiations between representatives of large ordinary banks and the Bank of Japan, the latter finally decided to make emergency loan advances to relieve the situation. A joint statement of the Minister of Finance, Vice-Minister of Finance, and Governor of the Bank of Japan was issued on April 22, declaring that financial stabilization would soon be attained. The two post-earthquake and fire readjustment bills were meanwhile adopted by the House of Peers.

The Bank of Taiwan The panic by that time was mostly confined to banks in Tokyo and Yokohama, because of the fact that it was directly caused by earthquake bills. Effects on the stock market were not very severe, except for shares connected with the closed banks. However, the miserable plight in which one of the special banks, the the Bank of Taiwan, found itself in April, intensified the financial uneasiness. The disposal of earthquake bills held by the Bank of Taiwan was made an object of

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scathing criticism by the public. In accordance with a decision of the House of Peers that a Bank of Taiwan Investigation Commission should be organized, the Wakatsuki Cabinet appointed the members. The first thing done by the commission was to instruct the bank to suspend dealings with Suzuki Shoten, Kobé, on which responsibility mostly rested for the bank's present awkward predicament. New loan making to this great trading concern in Kobé was entirely suspended by the bank. This gave a great shock to Japanese economic circles, because this concern carried on business in a wide sphere, having more than 60 large and small business houses under its control. To the Bank of Taiwan alone the Suzuki's owed the enormous amount of ¥350,000,000. It was greatly feared by the public that the prohibition of new loans to the Suzukis might mean the eventual failure of the Bank of Taiwan. All banks making call loans to the bank began withdrawing loans and this was followed by an active run of depositors on the bank. No matter how strenuously the Government explained that the bank was quite safe it was not heeded by depositors. Business became more difficult daily and the situation forced the bank to ask the Government and Bank of Japan for relief. During the intervening period runs on banks in a mild form spread all over the country. The financial uncertainty grew steadily intense and this resulted in a sudden outburst of great confusion on the stock exchanges. When the Sixty-fifth Bank of Kobé, in which Suzuki Shoten was heavily interested, announced business suspension on April 8, the stock markets of Tokyo, Osaka and other cities were literally thrown into a chaotic condition.

The Cabinet Resigns The aggravation of Sino-Soviet diplomatic relations and a clash of Japanese and Chinese soldiers in Shanghai brought further uneasiness to a turbulent market. The Government was very much concerned that the Bank of Taiwan situation had increased to such serious proportions and debated on relief measures. In consequence, an emergency loan advance by the Bank of Japan and the consequent issue of an urgent Imperial Ordinance for indemnification against loss for the Bank of Japan were approved at an extraordinary Cabinet meeting of April 13. The urgent Imperial Ordinance was submitted to the Privy Council on April 15. The bill provided for the Bank of Japan indemnification against loss to the amount of ¥200,000,000 against its unsecured loans to the Bank of Taiwan. A vigorous opposition was raised by the Privy Council against the urgent Ordinance on the reason that the action of submitting such an important bill within less than two weeks after the closing of the Diet was indiscrete and irresponsible. At a plenary session of the Council on April 17 the bill was shelved. The Wakatsuki Cabinet had to resign as the result. The situation threw financial circles into utter chaos. The Bank of Japan and other large banks could render no more relief to the bank. Eventually the bank closed the doors of its head office and all branches on April 18. On the same day the Omi Bank, one of the influential banks of Osaka, announced the closing of its doors. Financial confusion reached its height. Runs on banks spread throughout the country. One of the Big Five ordinary banks of Tokyo, the Jugo (Fifteenth) Bank, closed its doors on April 21. Foreseeing further spread of panic, all banks in Tokyo voluntarily closed their doors for two days, on April

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22 and 23, to prepare against the runs.

A Moratorium Proclaimed By this time the Tanaka Cabinet had replaced the Wakatsuki Cabinet. A three weeks' Moratorium was proclaimed by the new Cabinet and the urgent Imperial Ordinance was adopted by the Cabinet on April 22. During the time that the moratorium was in force maximum payments were limited to ¥500 per day. An extraordinary Diet session opened for five days commencing May 3 to decide on relief measures. The Bank of Japan Special Loan Bill and Taiwan Financing Organ Relief Bill were submitted to it by the Government. This pacified the turbulent popular mind and the great financial panic came to a halt on April 22 with the enactment of the moratorium.

At that time the total deposits held by ordinary banks were estimated at ¥9,000,000,000, but it was unknown how much of the deposits were withdrawn by the public. Banks closed in connection with the panic were 30, of which 10 were in Tokyo, 3 in Osaka and 17 in other districts. The total deposits in these closed banks were ¥770,000,000 at the end of 1926. Loans of the Bank of Japan, which were about ¥200,000,000 about the middle of March, increased to more than ¥2,000,000,000 on April 20. The highest amount of note issue of the Bank of Japan during the panic was recorded at ¥2,600,000,000. The yen-dollar exchange rate fell back to $46¼ during the crisis. The two relief bills were passed by the Diet on May 8. The bills provided for loss indemnification to the amount of ¥500,000,000 for the Bank of Japan in its financial relief in Japan proper and ¥200,000,000 for the same bank in its relief measures to financial organizations in Formosa. The Bank of Taiwan resumed business on May 9. In both cases the Bank of Japan had to grant loans and the Government guaranteed its loss against these to the maximum amount of ¥700,000,000. The special loans made by the Bank of Japan before the maturity of the one year term of the guarantee, that is, May 8, 1928, amounted to ¥879,000,000, of which ¥687,000,000 was lent to banks in Japan proper and ¥191,000,000 to banks in Formosa. Altogether 90 banks received special loans from the Bank.

Trust Business

It was about 1906 that companies bearing the title of trust companies were first established in Japan, and, since that time the number of these institutions has steadily increased. This has been especially due to the unusual economic activity resulting from the World War and promotion of various new enterprises. The Government laid the projected Trust Law and Trust Business Law before the 45th session of the Imperial Diet and secured its approval. These two laws were effective on and after January 1, 1923. The gist of the Trust Business Law is as follows:

(1) Trust business can be carried on only by a joint-stock company whose capital is one million yen or more and which has obtained a licence from the Minister of Finance.

(2) Though the proper function of trust companies is not definitely laid down in law, it is clear that they are expected to act as trustees for the benefit of other parties, i. e., they must, with the intention of faithful managers, administer or dispose of the right of property established or transferred by the beneficiary for the benefit of the beneficiary or a third party. The properties that a trust company can

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accept in trust are limited to the following items: money, negotiable paper, monetary claims, movables, land and things thereon, and superficies and leases of lands.

(3) The method of administering the trust property is specified in the Imperial Ordinance issued according to the provisions of the Trust Law.

(4) Business which trust companies can carry on as incidental to their main business are limited to the following:

(a) Reception of deposits for safe custody;

(b) Giving guarantees for debts;

(c) Acting as an intermediary in the sale of immovable properties;

(d) Acting as an intermediary in the loans of either money or immovable properties;

(e) Floatation of bonds, debentures or stocks, and receipts of payment from the subscribers;

(f) Payment of principal and interest or dividends of bonds, debentures or stocks;

(g) Execution of a will concerning property;

(h) Auditing;

(i) Acting as agents for the following matters: Acquisition or disposition of properties; Acquisition and liquidation of properties; Collection of claims; Performance of obligations.

Of the above, the guaranteeing of debts is subject to necessary limitation to be specified by Imperial Ordinance.

(5) Trust companies are forbidden to engage in any business other than those mentioned above, excepting business connected with secured debentures.

(6) Trust companies must in conformity with the provisions of ordinance, deposit national loan bonds of not less than one-tenth of their capital as security, and beneficiaries are entitled to preferential rights as regards the national loan bonds thus deposited by trust companies. The rate of legal reserve fund has also been increased, while a certain limit is to be observed by the companies in using their own funds for the purpose of investment. These, together with other provisions for control, are intended to protect the interest of beneficiaries, at the same time preventing the companies from possible mismanagement.

(7) As stated in (5) the companies carrying on general trust business can also engage in similar business connected with secured debentures. Consequently, a revision was effected in this respect in the Secured Debenture Trust Law. Ordinary banks were formerly disqualified from carrying on a general trust business, but this privilege was allowed to the Bank of Taiwan, Industrial Bank of Japan and Hokkaido Colonization Bank. It being deemed necessary to confine the operation of these special banks in the particular line to business connected with secured debentures only, necessary revisions have been made in the laws relating to these banks.

Trust companies established under the provisions of the above-mentioned trust laws numbered 36 and had an aggregate nominal capital of ¥287,000,000 at the end of December, 1933. Before the enactment of the law there were about 500 "trust" companies, most of which were eliminated with the enactment. About 37 trust companies are carrying on business, and several of them, such as the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Yasuda and Sumitomo trust companies, are run by Japan's wealthy families. Details concerning the trust companies in this country are given below:

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TRUST COMPANIES

At the End of Nov.:—	Number of Head Offices	Number of Branch Offices	Authorized Capital	Paid-up Capital	Reserve Funds	Net Profit	Dividend
1927	39	11	¥312,800,000	¥88,425,000	¥10,584,076	¥10,623,572	¥2,287,525
1928	37	12	333,500,000	92,400,000	15,114,111	14,840,973	2,336,439
1929	37	14	333,500,000	92,700,000	19,788,615	14,598,544	2,385,860
1930	37	14	293,500,000	82,700,000	19,654,873	14,700,688	3,295,581
1931	37	14	288,500,000	81,450,000	23,202,866	14,856,542	3,387,781
1932	37	14	288,500,000	81,450,000	25,849,983	15,464,612	3,428,578
1933	36	16	287,000,000	82,076,075	29,536,346	18,019,865	3,689,200

ASSETS

(In ¥1,000)

Companies' Own Account

Year		Unpaid Capital	Advances	Deposits	Securities	Premises	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Assets	Losses	Cash in Hand	Branches Accounts	Total
1927	1st half	192,875	34,218	10,145	40,794	8,249	11,359	3,578	252	1,646	1,886	308,002
	2nd half	224,375	42,100	8,213	48,448	9,491	11,607	5,136	321	1,630	2,090	357,502
1928	1st half	241,450	38,074	14,112	59,244	9,313	11,482	1,632	17	1,398	1,941	378,663
	2nd half	241,100	41,535	11,188	62,506	10,602	11,695	1,342	16	1,804	2,165	383,949
1929	1st half	240,800	38,761	9,055	64,693	10,415	9,819	5,711	322	1,257	2,131	383,164
	2nd half	240,800	40,707	8,017	64,532	11,843	8,476	4,902	362	1,295	1,967	382,901
1930	1st half	240,800	27,721	6,701	63,679	12,737	8,053	4,235	13,572	1,152	3,151	381,801
	2nd half	210,800	29,307	8,164	61,917	13,098	10,262	3,572	434	1,373	3,815	342,742
1931	1st half	207,050	27,103	7,216	63,710	13,136	10,182	503	733	1,401	6,644	337,678
	2nd half	207,050	30,660	8,519	60,584	13,190	7,767	1,780	745	1,416	5,706	337,417
1932	1st half	207,050	33,370	7,507	59,845	13,515	7,965	3,267	821	1,646	4,721	339,207
	2nd half	207,050	33,658	8,902	59,315	13,757	8,403	3,294	867	1,547	5,490	342,303
1933	1st half	206,000	35,755	10,268	60,667	13,405	9,189	3,394	942	2,157	5,604	347,341
	2nd half	204,924	31,206	9,101	67,935	13,292	8,616	3,471	1,239	1,982	5,020	346,786

Trust Account

Year		Securities	Advances	Deposits	Movable and Real Estate	Miscellaneous Assets	Cash in Hand	Branches Accounts	Total
1927	1st half	140,628	529,644	24,188	23,019	39,737	813	19,332	777,363
	2nd half	223,454	614,175	24,985	25,754	36,506	1,236	42,556	968,666
1928	1st half	329,569	689,900	40,948	25,174	3,049	1,887	68,927	1,159,454
	2nd half	415,898	778,066	39,675	26,070	6,087	2,157	100,053	1,368,005
1929	1st half	442,237	831,140	34,690	27,909	34,891	2,126	131,057	1,504,050
	2nd half	447,710	890,989	30,929	28,973	35,287	2,478	136,424	1,572,790
1930	1st half	478,170	890,693	34,839	28,775	8,113	2,431	146,517	1,589,538
	2nd half	460,232	886,431	43,192	30,307	5,640	3,355	148,492	1,577,649
1931	1st half	461,551	879,091	42,654	31,656	26,372	3,259	159,942	1,604,525
	2nd half	478,479	877,754	50,986	32,469	30,394	4,740	167,490	1,642,312
1932	1st half	491,431	870,852	42,014	34,750	8,536	4,125	165,147	1,616,855
	2nd half	486,303	876,081	50,278	36,226	7,946	3,997	167,582	1,628,413
1933	1st half	494,767	875,626	51,427	38,457	27,784	3,448	138,043	1,629,552
	2nd half	568,901	923,807	47,529	40,565	30,758	4,188	149,541	1,765,289

LIABILITIES

Companies' Own Account

Year		Authorized Capital	Reserve Funds	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Liabilites	Net Profit	Branches Accounts	Total
1927	1st half	270,800	8,702	14,359	7,482	4,797	1,860	308,002
	2nd half	312,800	10,584	15,697	10,494	5,884	2,048	357,502
1928	1st half	333,500	12,156	11,482	12,260	7,325	1,940	378,663
	2nd half	333,500	15,114	11,695	13,930	7,545	2,165	383,949
1929	1st half	333,500	17,797	9,819	12,456	7,460	2,131	383,164
	2nd half	333,500	19,739	8,479	12,022	7,197	1,967	382,901

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Year		Authorized Capital	Reserve Funds	Guarantees	Miscellaneous Liabilities	Net Profit	Branches Accounts	Total
1930	1st half	333,500	21,059	8,053	8,602	7,436	3,151	381,801
	2nd hhlf	293,500	19,655	10,262	8,238	7,272	3,815	342,742
1931	1st half	288,500	21,193	10,182	6,359	7,944	3,500	337,678
	2nd half	288,500	23,203	7,767	7,145	6,930	3,872	337,417
1932	1st half	288,500	24,899	7,965	6,318	7,304	4,721	339,207
	2nd half	288,500	25,850	8,403	5,879	8,180	5,491	342,303
1933	1st half	287,000	27,677	9,189	9,331	8,580	5,604	347,381
	2nd half	287,000	29,536	8,616	7,076	9,538	5,020	346,786

Trust Account

Year		Money in Trust	Trust Fund other than Money in Trust	Securities in Trust	Claims in Trust	Real Estate in Trust	Superficies in Trust	Lease of Land in Trust	Branches Accounts	Total
1927	1st half	532,707	12,861	134,332	47,813	21,334	12	114	28,190	777,363
	2nd half	681,732	16,309	156,665	47,701	23,525	12	114	42,609	968,666
1928	1st half	888,256	16,588	179,466	32,675	23,330	12	57	69,071	1,159,454
	2nd half	1,003,784	16,024	197,482	26,095	24,411	12	57	100,141	1,368,005
1929	1st half	1,114,807	14,940	190,968	25,281	26,315	12	57	131,670	1,504,050
	2nd half	1,168,840	14,861	197,364	28,223	27,076	2	—	136,424	1,572,790
1930	1st half	1,168,494	8,409	211,241	28,284	26,591	2	—	146,517	1,589,538
	2nd half	1,178,749	7,051	198,870	16,589	27,896	2	—	148,492	1,577,649
1931	1st half	1,190,800	9,128	199,608	16,042	29,003	2	—	159,942	1,604,525
	2nd half	1,231,851	7,816	189,800	16,087	29,266	2	—	167,490	1,642,312
1932	1st half	1,208,930	11,949	188,016	13,304	29,508	2	—	165,146	1,616,855
	2nd half	1,226,005	9,858	183,009	11,794	30,143	2	—	167,602	1,628,413
1933	1st half	1,258,014	10,903	181,672	9,278	31,630	2	—	188,043	1,629,552
	2nd half	1,378,375	11,641	183,867	9,314	32,536	15	—	146,541	1,765,289

Mutual Loan Companies (Mujin Kaisha)

In addition to the banking institutions, there are at present mutual loan companies (Mujin Kaisha), which are credit establishments peculiar to Japan and are based on mutual credit among the middle and lower classes of people. Mutual credit societies have existed in Japan since olden times. The Mutual Loan Society Law was promulgated in June, 1915, whereby the mutual loan societies acquired a legal standing. In order, however, to enable these societies to perform the function of a financial institution for lower classes and to extend their business operations, fundamental amendments were made in the law in 1931. According to the provisions of the Mutual Loan Company Law, put into effect on and after July 1, 1931, the business of the companies is to make the subscribers pay money in instalments during a fixed period and then to distribute it, in lots, among the subscribers, by drawings, biddings or some similar means, the number of such lots and the sum of money to be thus distributed being previously fixed. Each company must have a nominal capital of more than ¥30,000 and a paid-up capital of more than ¥15,000. No company is allowed to carry on this kind of business without permission of the Minister of Finance. Those so engaged are prohibited from carrying on any other business at the same time and are under obligation to present business reports to the Government. Restrictions also are put on the use of business funds. At the end of 1932 there were 274 Mujin companies with an aggregate of ¥37,665,500 in authorized capital and ¥18,272,199 in paid-up capital. Details bearing upon the status of these companies are found in the following table:

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MUTUAL LOAN COMPANIES

ASSETS

Year	Unpaid capital	Money yet to be paid in instalments	Loans	Total, including others
		(In ¥1,000)		
1923	6,761	14,635	13,468	44,810
1924	10,638	20,847	14,389	62,012
1925	12,772	28,485	19,351	78,237
1926	14,835	34,668	21,899	89,600
1927	17,083	38,437	22,275	97,473
1928	18,719	42,634	25,226	111,342
1929	18,214	47,745	31,789	129,279
1930	18,580	56,512	36,769	149,162
1931	18,702	60,912	42,284	163,406
1932	19,393	71,933	41,728	177,911

LIABILITIES

Year	Authorized capital	Reserves	Net profit	Total, including others
		(In ¥1,000)		
1923	12,255	1,427	758	44,810
1924	18,743	2,014	1,092	62,012
1925	22,388	2,748	1,481	78,237
1926	26,042	5,028	1,708	89,600
1927	29,932	4,814	1,959	97,473
1928	33,289	5,820	1,887	111,312
1929	34,372	6,713	2,154	129,279
1930	36,121	7,868	2,193	149,162
1931	36,400	8,827	1,998	163,406
1932	37,665	9,557	1,922	171,911

Co-operative Credit Associations

Credit Associations acquired a legal standing under a new system as defined by the so-called Co-operative Association Law, promulgated in March, 1900. The business of these associations is to lend money to their members in order to better their economic conditions and to employ their savings. By virtue of the revision of the law in July, 1917, the business of the Credit Associations has been expanded and they may use the savings of the families of their members, public corporations or legal persons who do not aim at profit. Especially, the Credit Associations in cities or city areas designated by the competent Minister of State may, besides the business above described, discount bills for their members and handle savings of persons who are not their members but reside inside the same boundary. Therefore, they may be called the People's Banks in city areas, and are placed under the control of the Minister of Finance and Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The actual number of these associations was 266 at the end of December, 1933.

Year	Money paid	Loans	Savings	Total B S
1930	¥63,361,120	¥136,199,660	163,279,668	269,463,423
1931	61,496,440	143,046,052	165,351,942	272,554,757
1932	58,739,865	138,832,405	160,233,203	271,284,152

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Central Chest for Co-operative Associations

(Sangyo Kumiai Chuo Kinko)

As an institution for regulating the movement of funds of the Federations of Co-operative Associations and of individual Co-operative Associations and for bringing them into close touch with the central money market, the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations was established by law on April 5, 1923. Its capital at present amounts to ¥30,700,000, of which ¥15,000,000 is invested by the Government and the remainder, ¥15,700,000, by the Co-operative Associations throughout the country. The Associations that participated in the investment amounted to more than 80 per cent. of the total number existing. The principal business of the Central Chest for Co-operative Associations is as follows:

(1) To make without security loans redeemable at a fixed time within a period of not more than five years to Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations;

(2) To make loans without security redeemable by annual instalments within a period not exceeding thirty years to the Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations, provided that the total amount of such loans does not exceed one-half of the paid-up capital and debentures issued;

(3) To discount bills for, or allow overdrafts to, Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations;

(4) To undertake exchange business for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations;

(5) To receive money as deposits from Federations of Co-operative Associations, public corporations, or legal persons not engaged in business aiming at profit;

(6) To take securities for safe custody for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations; and

(7) To buy and sell on a consignment basis securities for Federations of Co-operative Associations or Co-operative Associations.

The Central Chest is authorized to issue debentures and is subject to control both of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry and Minister of Finance. The assets and liabilities of these associations follow:

ASSETS

Year	Unpaid investment	Loans made	Deposits in banks	Securities	Total, including others
			(In ¥1,000)		
1925	11,071	2,629	8,238	5,332	33,992
1928	6,259	51,227	17,405	14,643	91,655
1929	4,459	47,535	31,587	14,018	100,283
1930	2,614	78,774	23,149	13,183	120,880
1931	1,159	93,298	16,908	11,823	127,891
1932	881	127,332	40,145	18,493	192,073

LIABILITIES

Year	Investment by Government	Investment by others	Co-operative debentures	Fixed deposits	Total, including others
			(In ¥1,000)		
1925	15,000	15,700	600	625	33,992
1928	15,000	15,700	18,370	34,012	91,655
1929	15,000	15,700	24,210	36,291	100,283
1930	15,000	15,700	41,240	35,661	120,880
1931	15,000	15,700	41,419	32,447	127,891
1932	15,000	15,700	59,503	59,624	192,073

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The Big Six

In the commercial banking world, of non-governmental banks there are six which stand out from all the others in importance, these are the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Dai-Ichi, Sumitomo, Yasuda and Sanwa, the last named was created by the amalgamation of three banks, i. e. Konoike, Yamaguchi and the 34th in December, 1933. A table of comparative statistics at the end of 1934 follows ; figures are in ¥1,000 :

	Mitsui	Mitsubishi	Daiichi	Sumitomo	Yasuda	Sanwa
Authorized capital	100,000	100,000	57,500	70,000	150,000	107,200
Paid-up capital	60,000	62,500	57,500	50,000	92,750	72,000
Reserve	50,200	42,000	66,300	33,000	64,600	23,000
Deposits	748,556	722,648	852,104	872,527	807,130	1,077,165
Loans and discounts	383,634	265,344	422,318	466,091	548,412	496,211
Foreign bills purchased	57,759	29,820	9,087	12,785	4,476	2,046
Profit for half year	15,468	10,987	7,239	8,601	8,637	4,904
Total B/S	949,824	896,710	1,014,756	1,028,145	1,071,698	1,264,270

FOREIGN BANKS WITH BRANCHES IN JAPAN

Name	Nationality	Number of Branches in Japan	Places of Branches in Japan
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation	Great Britain	3	Kobé, Yokohama, Tokyo
Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	,,	2	Yokohama, Kobé
National City Bank of New York	U. S. A.	4	Kobé, Yokohama, Tokyo, Osaka
Banque Franco-Japonaise	France	2	Tokyo, Kobé
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij	Holland	1	Kobé
Nederlandsch-Indische Handelsbank	,,	2	Kobé, Tokyo
Bank of China	China	1	Osaka

Clearing Houses

The establishment of the first clearing house in Japan took place in Osaka in 1879, preceding by eight years that in Tokyo, where one was established in 1887. Cash transactions marked the commercial society of this country early in the Meiji era and no transactions in bills or cheques were then conducted. Viscount Shibusawa and other business leaders encouraged paper transactions among business men at large and the time soon came when it was necessary for Tokyo to establish a clearing house, one being eventually brought into existence by the Bankers' Association in 1887. The first president of the institution was the late Viscount Shibusawa and the present holder of that office is Mr. Manzo Kushida, Chairman of the board of directors of the Mitsubishi Bank. In June, 1934, there were 43 clearing houses in Japan. The total of bills cleared at the clearing-houses throughout the country in the year 1933 reached 36,785,658 bills and ¥66,771,199,000, which are pretty near to the records of 1928 and 1929. As compared with the preceding year the number of bills increased by 2,645,000 (7.7%), while the amount gained was ¥14,073,000,000 (26.7%). The amount of clearings in Tokyo and Osaka and All-Japan were as follows :

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BILLS CLEARED AT THE CLEARING-HOUSES THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY

(000's omitted)

Year	Tokyo		Osaka		Total (Others included)	
	Number of Bills	Amount	Number of Bills	Amount	Number of Bills	Amount
1923	10,532	¥30,715,120	8,611	¥23,993,188	28,791	¥68,058,429
1924	11,463	30,739,301	9,298	26,830,408	31,499	78,956,977
1925	13,041	37,320,356	9,619	27,577,761	34,274	83,338,305
1926	14,307	38,460,447	10,279	28,386,749	37,622	88,792,553
1927	12,517	27,327,475	9,393	20,180,091	34,387	62,556,120
1928	13,117	31,126,238	10,009	21,684,365	36,944	68,592,995
1929	13,525	25,070,553	10,390	22,374,043	38,388	63,343,632
1930	12,721	21,366,617	9,725	17,889,655	36,146	51,376,234
1931	12,408	21,503,184	9,280	14,432,147	34,631	46,022,042
1932	12,646	26,502,718	9,471	15,624,537	34,387	52,751,946
1933	13,577	31,549,888	10,412	22,175,225	37,290	66,869,523
1934	14,254	25,388,571	9,548	24,438,934	37,280	64,194,422

Postal Savings Deposits

The postal savings deposits system of Japan was adopted from the Post Office Savings Act of Great Britain. It was established by an Imperial Ordinance of August, 1874, and was enforced in May of the following year at 22 post offices in the country. The history of this service in Japan is one of the oldest in the world, older than that of Germany or France and 36 years older than that of America. At first the annual interest rate was 8 per cent., the same as at present, which has been enforced since October 1, 1932. The maximum amount one could deposit was at first ¥500. In the first year of enforcement the amount totalled ¥15,224 for 1,843 depositors. In 1882 the Mail Act was passed and the deposit business became jointly controlled by the Minister of Finance and Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. The service was looked after by 4,000 post offices in the country. In 1890 the Postal Savings Deposit Act was issued. In 1920 the Exchange Deposit Bureau was established and was later replaced by the Deposit Bureau in the Ministry of Communications. (See Chapter VIII.)

The number of depositors and amount of savings since 1925 have been as follows:

March 31,	Total Number	Total Amount
1925	30,386,806	¥1,181,250,271
1926	31,549,989	1,166,908,703
1927	32,410,752	1,253,589,935
1928	34,425,812	1,636,255,042
1929	36,485,875	1,863,703,742
1930	37,968,850	2,201,245,552
1931	38,257,981	2,497,154,253
1932	39,066,040	2,815,868,019
1933	35,020,351	2,679,065,760
1934 (estimate)	37,765,173	2,748,620,646

Currency System

Coinage The present coinage system is based on the Coinage Law, issued in 1897, which established the gold monometallic system. Its principal points are summarized as follows:

(1) The coinage unit is 2 fun (0.75 grammes) of pure gold, that is, one-half of the former gold unit, and is to be denominated one yen.

(2) The standard gold coins are of three denominations, namely, five yen, ten yen and twenty yen; the former gold coins pass for double their nominal value.

(3) The subsidiary silver coins are of two denominations, namely, twenty sen and fifty sen; the former

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five-sen, ten-sen, twenty-sen and fifty-sen silver pieces are allowed to circulate.

(4) The other subsidiary coins are the nickel five-sen and ten-sen pieces and the bronze one-sen and five-rin pieces; the former five-sen nickel as well as two-sen, one-sen, five-rin and one-rin copper pieces are allowed to circulate.

(5) The fineness and weights of the coins prescribed in the Coinage Law are as follows:

(a) Fineness

Gold coins	pure gold 900	Copper 100
Silver coins	pure silver 720	Copper 280
Nickel coins	pure nickel 1000	
Bronze coins	copper 950	Tin 40 zinc 10

(b) Weights

Gold coins:

Denominations	Weights Grammes
20-yen pieces	16.6666
10-yen pieces	8.3333
5-yen pieces	4.1666

Subsidiary coins:

Denominations	Weights Grammes
50-sen silver	4.95
20-sen silver	1.98
10-sen nickel	4.00
5-sen nickel	2.80
1-sen bronze	3.75
5-rin bronze	2.10

Paper Notes of Small Denominations In order to make good the deficiency of subsidiary silver coins caused by the war, paper notes of small denominations, namely, fifty-sen, twenty-sen and ten-sen, were issued as a substitute in accordance with the Imperial Ordinance No. 202 promulgated on October 29, 1917. The issue of these petty notes went on increasing in volume till at the end of February, 1922, it reached 218 million yen, the largest on record. After that time the volume gradually dwindled in consequence of the minting of new subsidiary coins to displace the notes, the latter coming down, by the end of December, 1932, to ¥11,380,000, consisting of ¥5,649,000 50-sen notes, ¥1,123,000 20-sen notes and ¥4,608,000 10-sen notes.

Convertible Bank Notes In May, 1884, there was promulgated the Convertible Bank-notes Law providing for the issue by the Bank of Japan of bank-notes which were to be converted into silver, but on the adoption of the gold standard in 1897, these notes became convertible into gold. Certain amendments were, however, made in the law in June, 1932, and put into effect on and after July 1. The principal points may be summarized as follows:

The Bank of Japan is required to hold as a conversion reserve against the issue of notes gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of the notes issued; and the total value of silver coins and bullion must not exceed one-fourth of the entire conversion reserve. The Bank of Japan may, in addition to the notes specified in the preceding paragraph, issue bank-notes to the amount of ¥1,000,000,000 against Government bonds, Treasury notes and other reliable securities or commercial bills. The Bank may also be allowed to issue notes against such securities beyond the maximum mentioned above. In case the issue in excess of this limit lasts more than 15 days, however, the approval of the Minister of Finance is required, and such issues outstanding after a period of 15 days are subject to a tax of at least 3 per cent. per annum of the amount so issued. The bank-notes are of 7 denominations, namely, one yen, 5 yen, 10 yen, 20 yen, 50 yen, 100 yen and 200 yen.

Currency System of Formosa and Korea As regards the currency system of Formosa, up to October, 1908, recognition was given to the circulation at the market price in gold of

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the silver yen, similar to that in circulation in Japan proper until the revision of the Coinage Law in 1897; but the exchange of silver was brought to a conclusion at the end of April, 1909, and in the same month of 1911, the Coinage Law of the Empire was brought into operation in the island, so that the system in Formosa is now absolutely identical with that in force in Japan proper. The Bank of Taiwan issued, at first, bank-notes convertible into silver yen, but these notes were, upon the reform of the currency system, withdrawn from circulation by April, 1909. In June, 1904, the bank was allowed to issue bank-notes convertible into gold coins, holding as conversion reserve gold and silver coins and bullion to the same amount as that of notes issued. It may further issue notes to the amount of ¥20,000,000 on security of reliable securities. Should it be necessary to issue notes over and above the amounts just mentioned, the permission of the Government must be obtained and an issue-tax of not less than five per cent. must be paid in respect of the excess issue.

The currency system of Korea had fallen into such a state of disorder and confusion that the credit of legal tenders was entirely gone, and consequently commodity prices perpetually fluctuated. In 1905, at the time of the protectorate régime of Japan, a radical reform of the system was started, the coinage regulations were revised and new coins equal in quality and weight to those of Japan were minted. At the same time, the use of the old nickel coins was prohibited on and after December 31, 1909. After the annexation (1910), with the object of unifying the coinage of Korea with that of the Empire, the minting of coins under the Coinage Regulation was suspended and the circulation of Japanese coins was encouraged; the old Korean coins in circulation steadily diminished. The Imperial Coinage Law was put in force in April, 1918 in Korea and the use of the old Korean coins as legal tender was permitted till the end of 1909 only, the Government undertaking to exchange them during the five subsequent years. The use of "Yo-sen" (bronze pieces), however, was left free for the time being in consideration of economic conditions in Korea. Bank-notes issued by the Bank of Chosen are convertible notes. Besides issuing, under the Charter of the Bank of Chosen, on the security of gold specie, gold and silver bullion and the Bank of Japan's convertible notes, the bank is authorized to issue notes up to the limit of ¥50,000,000 on the security of exchequer bills and other reliable bills or trade bills.

AMOUNT OF BANK-NOTES ISSUED BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

Year	Balance brought over from the preceding year	Notes issued: Amount newly issued	Notes issued: Total	Amount withdrawn	Balance
1924	¥1,703,569,512	¥4,697,491,945	¥6,401,088,457	¥4,738,773,231	¥1,662,315,226
1925	1,662,315,226	5,016,400,463	6,678,715,689	5,046,931,730	1,631,783,959
1926	1,631,783,959	5,298,396,428	6,930,180,387	5,360,472,219	1,569,708,168
1927	1,569,708,168	7,406,086,253	8,975,794,421	7,293,403,979	1,682,390,441
1928	1,682,390,441	5,829,380,203	7,511,770,644	5,772,674,342	1,739,096,302
1929	1,739,096,302	5,684,181,253	7,423,277,555	5,781,425,719	1,641,851,836
1930	1,641,851,836	5,459,394,965	7,101,246,801	5,664,951,294	1,436,295,507
1931	1,436,295,507	4,835,679,182	6,271,974,689	4,941,399,373	1,330,575,316
1932	1,330,575,316	5,021,876,744	6,352,452,060	4,926,293,103	1,426,158,957
1933	1,426,158,957	4,526,876,038	5,953,034,995	4,408,237,301	1,544,797,694

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AMOUNT OF BANK-NOTES ISSUED BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

Year	Reserve: Specie Reserve: Gold Coin and Bullion	Reserve: Security Reserve: Public Loan Bonds	Reserve: Security Reserve: Other Securities	Reserve: Total	Total Reserve	Amount of Reserve for Every 100 yen of Notes issued: Specie	Amount of Reserve for Every 100 yen of Notes issued: Security
1924	¥1,059,024,000	¥145,740,000	¥457,551,226	¥603,291,226	¥1,662,315,226	¥63.71	¥36.29
1925	1,056,998,745	70,320,000	504,465,214	574,785,214	1,631,783,959	64.78	35.22
1926	1,058,131,915	156,480,000	355,096,253	511,576,253	1,567,708,168	67.41	32.59
1927	1,062,737,375	138,431,952	481,221,114	619,653,066	1,682,390,441	63.17	36.83
1928	1,061,636,385	97,920,000	579,539,917	677,459,917	1,739,096,302	61.05	38.95
1929	1,072,273,100	161,804,691	407,774,045	569,578,736	1,641,851,836	65.31	34.69
1930	825,998,295	136,862,565	473,434,647	610,297,212	1,436,295,507	57.51	42.49
1931	469,549,450	180,831,861	680,194,005	861,025,866	1,330,575,316	35.29	64.71
1932	425,068,190	539,854,243	461,236,524	1,001,090,767	1,426,158,957	29.81	70.19
1933	425,069,230	597,074,267	522,654,197	1,119,728,464	1,544,797,694	27.52	72.48

COINS TURNED OUT BY THE MINT

Year	Gold Coins: 20-yen Pieces	Gold Coins: 10-yen Pieces	Gold Coins: 5-yen Pieces	Gold Coins: Total	Silver Coins: 50-sen Pieces	Silver Coins: 20-sen Pieces	Silver Coins: 10-sen Pieces	Silver Coins: Total
1924	¥11,520	¥ —	¥ —	¥11,520	¥39,260,000	¥—	¥—	¥39,260,000
1925	—	—	—	—	23,904,000	—	—	23,904,000
1926	—	—	—	—	16,286,000	—	—	16,286,000
1927	1,238,860	—	280,000	1,518,860	—	—	—	—
1928	—	—	—	—	19,296,000	—	—	19,296,000
1929	—	—	—	—	6,284,000	—	—	6,284,000
1930	216,600,660	—	4,000,910	220,601,570	220,000	—	—	220,000
1931	152,063,700	—	362,099	152,425,790	1,000,000	—	—	1,000,000
1932	29,836,580	—	—	29,836,580	1,800,000	—	—	1,800,000
1933	—	—	—	—	21,240,000	—	—	21,240,000

Year	Nickel Coins: 10-sen Pieces	Nickel Coins: 5-sen Pieces	Nickel Coins: Total	Bronze	Grand Total
1924	¥ 1,685,000	¥ —	¥ 1,685,000	¥ 1,044,400	¥ 42,990,920
1925	5,447,500	—	5,447,500	18,100	29,369,600
1926	5,867,500	—	5,867,500	—	22,153,500
1927	3,605,000	—	3,605,000	265,000	5,388,860
1928	4,145,000	—	4,145,000	—	23,441,000
1929	1,000,000	—	1,000,000	30,000	7,314,000
1930	—	—	—	50,000	220,871,570
1931	—	—	—	250,000	153,675,790
1932	1,800,000	400,000	2,200,000	340,000	34,176,580
1933	1,457,000	640,000	2,097,000	400,000	23,737,000

COINS TURNED OUT AND MELTED DOWN BY THE MINT

(In Yen)

Year	Turned out: Turned out in the year	Turned out: Sum total since 1871	Melted down: Melted down in the year	Melted down: Sum total since 1878	Balance
1924	42,000,920.000	1,620,142,248.140	13,062,000.000	136,062,069.910	1,484,100,178.230
1925	29,369,600.000	1,649,511,848.140	13,190,000.000	149,252,069.910	1,500,279,778.230
1926	22,153,500.000	1,671,665,348.140	11,464,293.210	160,716,463.120	1,510,968,885.020
1927	5,388,388.000	1,677,054,208.140	2,590,391.950	163,306,855.070	1,513,767,353.070
1928	23,441,000.000	1,700,495,208.140	9,826,806.000	173,133,661.070	1,527,361,547.070
1929	7,314,000.000	1,707,809,208.140	2,454,750.000	175,588,411.070	1,532,240,797.070
1930	220,871,570.000	1,928,680,778.140	3,034,250.000	178,622,661.070	1,750,078,117.070
1931	153,675,790.000	2,082,356,568.140	7,748,876.000	186,371,537.070	1,895,005,031.070
1932	34,176,580.000	2,116,533,148.140	5,878,027.840	192,249,564.910	1,924,303,583.230
1933	23,737,001.200	2,140,270,149.340	3,149,725.000	195,399,289.910	1,944,890,859.430

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CIRCULATION OF PAPER NOTES AND BANK NOTES

End of	Petty Government notes	Bank of Japan notes	Bank of Chosen notes	Bank of Taiwan notes	Total
		(In ¥1,000)			
1912	—	443,837	25,550	20,414	489,802
1917	19,825	796,594	67,364	33,512	917,297
1926	14,493	1,541,645	110,936	48,640	1,715,715
1927	13,189	1,640,663	124,527	53,602	1,831,981
1928	12,487	1,665,897	132,444	55,713	1,866,541
1929	12,085	1,591,400	118,702	49,241	1,771,428
1930	11,680	1,413,891	90,615	39,904	1,556,090
1931	11,480	1,312,055	100,910	44,414	1,468,859
1932	11,380	1,373,619	124,622	52,619	1,562,241
1933	11,260	1,470,468	148,176	48,994	1,678,897
1934	11,160	1,538,188	192,457	62,653	1,804,460

The Gold Embargo, Its Removal and its Replacement*

Japan went off gold on September 12, 1917, alive to the prevailing situation, in which almost all the important countries departed from gold. It was shortly after the departure of the United States from the gold standard, in September of the same year that it entered the World War, that Japan went off gold. Japan's gold embargo was enforced with the issue of Regulation No. 28 of the Ministry of Finance.

Removal Temporary Japan was off gold for 12 years. When, however, the Hamaguchi Cabinet came into being in July, 1929, the Cabinet included, as one of the important planks of its platform, the removal of the gold embargo, and on November 21 announced the lifting as from January 11, 1930. This removal, however, proved to be only temporary, for in less than two years, with the coming into power of the Inukai Cabinet, the embargo on the export of gold was reimposed, on December 13, 1931. When the gold embargo was removed in January, 1930, the Bank of Japan held a specie reserve of more than ¥1,000,000,000, which dwindled to as low as the ¥400,000,000 mark at the end of 1931, shortly after the replacement of the gold embargo, and at present the unfortunate position is that Japan has no specie reserve abroad, making it impossible for Japan to remove the gold embargo in the future at anywhere near parity.

* For fuller information see the Japan Year Book, 1933.

The Money Market

In 1933 As regards the money interest rate in 1933, the highest was 5.3 per cent. per annum for the fixed deposit in the first half term, viz. from January to June, and the lowest 4.6 per cent. The highest rate for loan on securities was 10.9 per cent. and the lowest 6.9 per cent. The highest discount rate was 2.69 sen and the lowest 1.89 sen per day per ¥100. In the second half term, viz. from July to December, both the highest and the lowest interest rate for the fixed deposit was reduced by 0.3 per cent., and also the lowest rate on loan on securities was reduced by 0.2 per cent., while there was no change in the highest. The discount rate was also reduced by 0.09 sen in the highest and by 0.05 sen in the lowest. Both the highest and the lowest rates were lower than the previous year.

The average quotation in 1933 of foreign exchanges quoted by the Yokohama Specie Bank was for cable transfer on New York $25.25 for ¥100, on London 1/2.5d for ¥1., on Paris 5.07 fr., on Shanghai ¥106.88

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for 100 tl., and on Bombay 79.63 Rs. for ¥100, which showed a decline of yen as compared with the previous year. In January of the same year, quotations were on New York $20.75, on London ½.8d., on Paris 5.24 fr., on Shanghai 71.85 tl., and on Bombay 80.50 Rs. In December, they were $30.25, ½.1d., 4.95 fr., ¥110.75 and 78.75 Rs. respectively.

In 1934 Increase of deposits and the increasing difficulties in finding proper outlets for the swelled deposits were its features in the last three years. According to the investigation of the Ministry of Finance, at the end of December, 1934, deposits in the ordinary city banks reached ¥9,300,000,000, an increase of ¥500,000,000 compared with 1933 and of ¥1,300,000,000 compared with 1932. Meantime, fresh demands for advances and bill discounting were sparse. Business corporations were in fashion of trying to obtain needed capital by means of issuances of debentures. The percentage of discounts and advances against deposits became lower and lower. It dropped from 82% of the end of 1931 to 44% at the end of 1934, the total excess of deposits then reaching ¥1,500,000,000 to ¥3,100,000,000. The only resort banks could appeal to was the purchase of bonds. Thus the holdings of banks of liquidable notes and public bonds increased by leaps and bounds and finally up to ¥4,000,000,000, 41% of the total deposits.

DEPOSITS, ADVANCES AND SECURITY HOLDINGS OF ORDINARY BANKS THROUGHOUT JAPAN (¥1,000,000)

	Deposits	Advances	Security Holdings
Dec., 1931	8,269	6,749	2,929
Dec., 1932	8,819	6,602	2,929
Dec., 1933	8,727	6,344	3,305
Feb., 1934	8,812	6,452	3,513
Apr., 1934	8,950	6,333	3,870
June, 1934	9,144	6,269	3,904
Aug., 1934	9,084	6,117	4,046
Oct., 1934	9,025	6,165	4,038
Dec., 1934	9,335	6,239	3,872

General condition such as mentioned above necessitated the money rate remaining continuously and increasingly slow and low which had necessitated the lowering of interest on deposits, with the result that the member banks of the Clearance Houses lowered it to 4% per annum as from June, 1934. Call money was also cheap during the first half of 1934, but as the payments for shares and bonds subscribed increased following the progress and execution of extension schemes of various productive industries and the purchases of Government bonds by banks increased, the short call money became steadily stiffened. The worsened economic condition of agricultural communities and the resultant shattering of industrial shares only served to aggravate the stiffening condition of money markets. But as a whole the money rate remained at a low level compared with 1931.

TREND OF MONEY RATE IN TOKYO

(Sen per day)

	Commercial Bills	Index	Call (in the day following)	Index
1931	1.158	100	0.900	100
1932	1.419	123	1.183	132
1933	1.057	93	0.690	77
1934	1.039	92	0.683	76

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According to the investigation of the Hypothec Bank of Japan the total amount paid up into bonds, debentures and stocks during 1934 was ¥4,729,000,000 which was about ¥700,000,000 less than in the previous year. But this was due to the decrease in the Government bonds. As for corporation debentures and shares, the total of the two showed an increase of ¥380,000,000, or in 1933 about 50% was Government bonds, being a double amount of corporation debentures, but in 1934 Government bonds were reduced by ¥1,000,000,000 and corporation debentures gained ¥250,000,000 and shares ¥130,000,000. This is why the percentage of Government bonds became so small as 36%.

PAYMENTS INTO BONDS, DEBENTURES AND SHARES

(¥1,000)

	1932	1933	1934
National Bonds	1,374,181	2,728,343	1,717,808
Prefectural Bonds	97,026	743,372	710,916
Corporation Debentures	448,836	1,488,007	1,722,149
Shares	149,634	448,834	577,868
Total	2,069,677	5,408,555	4,728,742

A great portion of the corporation debentures was either for conversion to cheaper rated ones or for consolidation of running debts. It is not, therefore, in the debenture floatation, but in the increased payments for subscribed shares that the bright prospects of the enterprising industrial world was well reflected. As for the issuance terms, the ruling rate throughout 1934 was 4% for Government bonds and 4.3% for prefectural bonds and special banks and first rated industrial debentures.

Stability of Foreign Exchanges Exchange markets of the world which experienced tremendous disturbances in 1933 following the gold embargo in the United States recovered their normal conditions by January, 1934, when the American Government announced and executed its dollar devaluation programme. The dollar exchange in Japan also followed the world current toward stability. Meantime, the setting aside of $2,000,000,000 as the exchange settlement fund and the adoption of Governmental ownership of gold in the United States served as salutary actions for the wiping out of all causes of uneasiness and unstability. This setting up of the exchange settlement fund in the United States and the similar action taken in England led to the quick restoration of stability in the cross rate, and following it the Yokohama-New York exchange remained quite stable at 29-30 throughout the year 1934, the average rate in that year being 29.69 in contrast to 25.39 of the previous year. At the end of 1934 it was 50% higher than in the corresponding period of 1933. But the price level in the United States improved during the same period from 78 to 109 which of course counteracted on the American trade of Japan against the latter's interest. During all this period the exports of silk experienced a sharp drop, which, however, can not be attributed only to the so much restoration of the exchange power of Yen. Its major causes were undoubtedly the prolonged depression in America and the appearance of artificial silk. As a whole, however, the effect of the recovery of foreign exchange on the export price level was not so great as had been feared of in 1933.

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Moreover, the recovery of the cross rate somewhat kept the Sterling exchange in Japan dragging behind it for the year at a point 2.5% below the average in the previous year. This is to say that Japan gained so much in the trade conducted by means of Sterling bills, which amounts to about 60% of her total foreign trade.

TREND OF EXCHANGE RATES WITH ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

1934	With U. S. Rate	Index Number	Purchasing Power at Par	With England Rate	Index
February	29.69	60	37.01	14.18	58
April	30.32	61	36.15	14.10	57
June	29.90	60	36.50	14.22	58
August	29.99	60	37.22	14.21	58
October	28.68	58	34.52	13.94	57
December	28.79	58	36.10	13.99	57
Average in 1934	29.69	60	36.91	14.14	58
Average in 1933	25.39	51	32.64	14.49	59
Average in 1932	28.07	56	32.69	19.13	78
Average in 1931	48.87	98	48.00	26.02	106

INTEREST RATES ON DEPOSITS

Fixed by the greement of Tokyo Associated Banks (June 25, 1934)

	"A" class banks	"B" class banks
Fixed deposits	Less than 3.7% p.a.	Less than 4.0% p.a.
Current account	Less than 2 rin per diem	Less than 3 rin per diem
Special current account	Less than 6 rin per diem	Less than 7 rin per diem
Deposits at notice	Less than 7 rin per diem	Less than 8 rin per diem
Other deposits	Less than 7 rin per diem	Less than 8 rin per diem

INTEREST RATES AT THE BANK OF JAPAN

Date of change	Commercial bills discount	Discount of bills with Government bonds as collaterals	Discount of bills with other collaterals	Overdrafts
Nov. 19, 1919	8.03%	8.03%	8.76%	9.13%
Apr. 19, 1925	7.30	7.30	8.03	8.40
Oct. 4, 1926	6.57	6.57	7.30	7.67
Mar. 9, 1927	5.84	6.21	6.57	7.30
Oct. 10, 1927	5.48	5.84	6.21	6.94
Oct. 7, 1930	5.11	5.48	5.84	6.57
Oct. 6, 1931	5.84	6.21	6.57	7.30
Nov. 5, 1931	6.57	6.94	7.30	8.03
Mar. 12, 1932	5.84	6.21	6.57	7.30
June 8, 1932	5.11	5.48	5.84	6.57
Aug. 18, 1932	4.38	4.75	5.11	5.48
July 3, 1933	3.65	4.02	4.38	5.11

Note: To convert rin per ¥ 100 per diem into a percentage multiply by .365, and for sen per ¥ 100 per diem multiply by 3.65.

INTEREST RATES AT THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK

(Compiled by Yokohama Specie Bank)

Year	Overdrafts			Discount of bills			Fixed deposits			Current deposit		
	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
	(In per cent.)											
1924	9.1	7.7	8.8	9.8	7.3	9.1	6.0	6.0	6.0	2.2	2.2	2.2
1925	8.9	7.3	8.5	9.6	7.3	9.1	6.0	6.0	6.0	2.2	2.2	2.2
1926	8.8	7.3	8.3	9.3	7.1	9.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	2.2	2.2	2.2
1927	8.1	7.2	8.1	8.6	6.6	8.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	1.8	1.8	1.8
1928	7.7	6.6	7.7	8.1	5.6	7.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	1.5	1.5	1.5
1929	7.7	5.8	7.3	7.7	6.6	6.7	5.0	4.5	4.5	1.5	1.1	1.7
1930	7.3	6.6	6.9	6.9	6.2	6.6	4.5	4.5	4.5	1.1	1.1	1.1
1931	7.3	6.2	6.9	7.7	4.0	6.7	4.7	4.2	4.3	1.1	0.7	0.9
1932	7.3	6.2	6.9	6.6	5.1	6.2	4.7	4.2	4.5	1.1	0.7	0.9
1933	7.6	5.1	6.0	6.3	4.3	5.6	4.2	3.7	3.9	0.7	0.7	0.7

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AVERAGE INTEREST RATES THROUGHOUT JAPAN

Year	Loans	Overdrafts	Discount of bills	Fixed deposits	Current deposits	Savings deposits
			(In per cent.)			
1924	11.1	11.4	10.8	6.8	3.5	4.9
1925	10.2	11.0	10.6	6.8	3.4	4.9
1926	10.7	10.8	10.2	6.8	3.4	4.9
1927	10.4	10.2	9.9	6.8	2.9	5.0
1928	9.9	8.9	9.1	5.8	2.5	4.5
1929	9.6	9.3	8.5	5.3	2.0	4.5
1930	9.7	9.3	8.8	5.3	2.0	4.6
1931	9.4	9.4	8.9	5.2	1.9	4.4
1932	9.3	9.2	8.7	5.1	1.8	4.3
1933	8.9	8.8	8.2	4.7	1.6	4.0

RATES OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE

Year	London (per 1 yen) s. d.			Paris (per 1 yen) Francs			Hamburg (per 1 yen) Marks		
	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average
1924	2.03.1	1.07.6	1.10.8	12.12	5.67	7.76	—	—	—
1925	1.09.6	1.07.3	1.08.3	12.07	6.97	8.58	1.82	1.59	1.71
1926	2.00.2	1.09.6	1.11.2	23.15	11.17	14.68	2.05	1.81	1.71
1927	2.00.3	1.10.4	1.11.4	12.55	11.50	12.04	2.06	1.91	1.99
1928	1.11.2	1.10.6	1.11.0	12.15	11.35	11.76	2.00	1.86	1.94
1929	2.00.1	1.09.7	1.10.8	12.40	11.05	11.67	2.03	1.82	1.92
1930	2.00.4	2.00.2	2.00.4	12.60	12.45	12.56	2.06	2.04	2.06
1931	3.00.3	2.00.4	2.02.5	12.60	12.10	12.52	2.20	2.00	2.06
1932	2.01.5	1.02.8	1.07.1	9.36	5.02	7.06	1.55	0.82	1.25
1933	1.02 9	1.02.0	1.02.4	5.35	4.62	5.07	0.88	0.75	0.83

	Bombay (per 100 yen) Rupees			San Francisco and New York (per 100 yen) $		
	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average
1924	155.75	107.25	130.27	48.38	38.63	42.10
1925	119.00	107.00	112.76	43.63	38.63	40.93
1926	136.50	117.50	129.33	48.88	43.63	47.00
1927	135.50	124.75	130.44	49.12	45.75	47.55
1928	131.50	122.50	127.09	48.07	44.85	46.57
1929	134.25	121.25	127.62	49.12	43.87	46.19
1930	138.00	134.00	136.57	49.50	49.13	49.49
1931	198.75	136.00	147.71	49.50	49.50	49.50
1932	140.00	80.25	105.09	37.00	20.00	28.09
1933	81.50	77.50	79.60	31.25	20.25	25.22

	Hong Kong (per 100 dollars) Yen			Shanghai (per 100 yen) Taels		
	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average
1924	148.00	110.50	130.16	64.00	46.50	55.38
1925	152.00	130.50	140.76	57.25	49.00	53.06
1926	136.00	92.50	115.41	87.00	56.25	68.38
1927	110.75	99.00	105.47	81.50	70.50	75.00
1928	114.50	104.50	109.13	75.00	65.50	71.18
1929	111.75	86.00	104.19	93.50	70.00	77.62
1930	85.00	55.50	69.95	142.00	93.50	117.75
1931	60.25	45.50	50.60	176.00	126.00	155.51
1932	116.00	68.00	99.19	110.00	66.00	85.53
				(yen per 100 silver dollar)		
1933	124.25	105.50	116.24	112.50	97.25	106.37

Note:
This table shows the rates of exchange at which the bills on demand were bought during the years mentioned above.
The figures up to 1931 represent the quotations of the Yokohama Specie Bank and those for 1932 represent the market rates of telegraphic transfers of the Bank of Japan.

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Capital Flight Prevention Law

The outflow of capital from the country that started at the time when the money market remained extremely easy after the return to the gold standard in January, 1930 began to assume heavy proportions from July, 1931, according as speculation in exchange and investment in securities in foreign currencies, both made in anticipation of the depreciation of the yen, became more active. In particular, side by side with the general advocacy of the re-imposition of the gold embargo that had prevailed in the country since Great Britain went off the gold standard in September, 1931, purchases of foreign currencies went on, resulting in considerable shipments of gold abroad. Facing this aggravation of the situation, the Government was obliged to impose again an embargo on the export of gold in December, 1931. The re-imposition of the gold embargo thus effected caused the external value of the yen to deviate, as a natural result, from gold value and to depreciate sharply. With the commencement of 1932, however, the downward movement of the yen exchange somewhat slowed down, and speculation in exchange declined to a remarkable extent. But a sharp decline in the prices of Japanese bonds in foreign markets resulting from loss of confidence led to active investments in profitable securities in foreign currencies, thus causing the outflow of capital to be much heavier. In view of these developments, the Government, in order to control the movements of capital in and out of the country and to maintain the external value of the yen, submitted to the Diet in the 62nd session a bill for the prevention of the flight of capital. The Capital Flight Prevention Law that had thus passed the Diet and the Ordinances of the Department of Finance issued in accordance with the Law were put into operation as from July 1, 1932, and have been effective until the Foreign Exchange Control Law came into operation in May, 1933. This Law, the principal object of which was to prevent the flight of capital, was analogous to foreign exchange control laws now in force in other countries, but was entirely different in its object and the extent of control. It vested the Government with authority to prohibit or restrict transactions or acts likely to create the flight of capital. The scope of transactions or acts coming under this Law and the manner of control were, however, provided for in detail in the Ordinances of the Department of Finance issued in accordance with the Law. The contents of the Ordinances may be summarized as follows :

1. Scope of transactions or acts.

Unless permission of the Minister of Finance has been obtained, the following transactions or acts are not permitted :

(a) Remittances to foreign countries or the purchase of foreign currencies or foreign exchange to be made with the object of transferring capital to foreign countries, with the exception of remittances to Kwantung Province or to the South Manchuria Railway's leased districts to be made for investment in these territories.

(b) The purchase of foreign currency securities (public bonds, company debentures and shares, expressed in foreign currencies), with the exception of the purchase of foreign currency securities which were in existence on July 1, 1932 (the date of the coming into operation of the Capital Flight Prevention Law) and of foreign currency securities imported after such date under licence from the Minister of Finance and

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the purchase by foreigners of foreign currency securities with the funds which they hold abroad.

(c) The import of foreign currency securities, with the exception of the import, for the purpose of obtaining payment, of securities of which the place of payment is in Japan, within three months prior to the date of maturity or after such date.

(d) Conclusion, for whose account soever, of a contract of deposits or loans expressed in foreign currencies.

(e) The issue of company debentures expressed in foreign currencies.

2. Report and examination of transactions or acts.

Persons engaged in foreign exchange business, dealers in securities, and other persons are under obligation to present the following reports to the Government in respect of matters relating to transactions or acts prescribed by the Ordinances. The Government may, in case of necessity, make examinations of their books and other documents.

(a) Persons engaged in foreign exchange business are required to present, within the following month, a detailed statement of sales and purchases of foreign exchange, forward exchange contracts, remittances to foreign countries, collections of money from abroad, and letters of credit issued.

(b) Dealers in securities are required to present, within the following month, a detailed statement for each month of sales and purchases of foreign currency securities or of their brokerage business.

(c) Persons holding on July 1, 1932 foreign currencies, foreign exchange, deposits or loans expressed in foreign currencies, or foreign currency securities and those holding company debentures and deposits and loans from others, expressed in foreign currencies, are required to report, not later than July 31, 1932, the amount of their holdings and other details.

(d) Persons who acquire or liquidate, on and after July 1, 1932, claims expressed in foreign currencies as mentioned in (c) above or those who incur or are freed of obligations expressed in foreign currencies are required to report the amounts thereof and other details within the following month.

3. Order respecting the compulsory disposal of assets expressed in foreign currencies.

The Government is authorized to require persons in possession of foreign currencies, foreign exchange, or securities or other claims expressed in foreign currencies to sell them to the Bank of Japan or to others to be designated by the Government.

4. Penal provisions.

As in the case of legislation in different countries of the world, the principle of severe punishment has been adopted in applying penal provisions to acts of violation specified in the Ordinances. Thus, persons contravening the prohibitions or restrictions of transactions or acts as prescribed in the Ordinances are liable to punishment by penal servitude or imprisonment for a term not exceeding 3 years or to a fine not exceeding 10 thousand yen (or not exceeding three times the value involved in the transaction in question in case three times the value of said transactions exceeds 10 thousand yen), and persons not presenting reports or refusing the examination of books and other documents are liable to imprisonment for not more than 6 months or a fine of not more than 5 thousand yen.

5. Impress of stamp on foreign currency securities.

Foreign currency securities which were in existence in this country on

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July 1, 1932 and which have been reported within a period as specified by the Ordinances and those imported subsequently under licence from the Minister of Finance may be presented by the owner or other party at interest to the Bank of Japan, and impressed with stamp. This system has been created for the purpose of certifying that such securities as referred to above would, after being impressed with stamp, be the objects of sale and purchase in the country.

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CHAPTER X

HOME TRADE AND COMMERCE

Development of Business Houses

Origin of Tokyo Chamber of Commerce The Yedo (Tokyo) City Assembly was the predecessor of the present Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and dates back 133 years. It was Lord Etchu-no-Kami Matsudaira, the then Vice-Premier (Roju) of the Shogunate Government, who advanced a plan to organize a public business body to accommodate merchants with funds and to carry out relief enterprises is now known as the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The late Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa was the first President of the Chamber and served in that capacity for 30 years, until his resignation in 1902.

International Chamber of Commerce Japan first attended the plenary conference of the International Chamber in 1923 in London, when Mr. Raita Fujiyama, then president of the Tokyo Chamber and All-Japan Chamber was the representative. The present chairman of the Japanese Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce is Mr. Manzo Kushida, chairman of the board of directors of the Mitsubishi Bank, and Baron Seinosuké Goh holds the dual position of president of the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and of the Japan Economic Federation.

Business Companies The Mitsui-Gumi, Ono-Gumi, Shimada-Gumi and several other business concerns were founded early in the Meiji Era, but the system and management of these concerns were primitive and the companies were quite different from business companies in the modern sense of the term. The Meiji Government encouraged the development of the country's foreign trade and this resulted in an accumulation of capital and growth of modern businesses in large cities and ports. So-called trading companies and exchange companies were established under Government encouragement and financial help in such cities and towns as Tokyo, Saikyo (Kyoto), Osaka, Yokohama, Kobé, Niigata, Tsuruga and Otsu. These institutions were the precursors of the joint-stock companies of later years though for a time, with the abolition of the Trade and Commerce Commissioner in July, 1871, they ceased to exist. During the period of their non-existence the Government tried to disseminate a knowledge of commerce and industry by distributing books written by the late Mr. Genichiro Fukuchi and the late Viscount Shibusawa. As a result of the establishment of national banks following the revision of the National Bank Act in 1876 and also stimulated by the situation following the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, joint-stock companies of various natures were established. The Tokyo Marine Insurance Company, Tokyo Horse Tramcar Company, Japan Railway Company, Osaka Spinning Company, Yokohama Specie Bank and other concerns were created one after the other. At the end of 1882 the number of trading concerns in the country was 968, but at the end of 1886 it had decreased to 315, due to a business depression. After the establishment of the convertible note sys-

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tem in 1896 business concerns began to increase once more and a great many concerns such as shipbuilding, machine manufacturing, weaving, mining, electricity, gas, paper milling, oil refining etc., were founded. With the promulgation of the Commercial Code in 1889 business concerns acquired a legal standing and in 1892 a revision was made in the laws concerning companies, bills and bankruptcy. A thoroughgoing revision was introduced into the Code in 1899. Regulations concerning debenture flotations were issued at the same time.

Business was greatly stimulated by the Sino-Japanese War, Russo-Japanese War and the World War, and wide expansions took place at these times. Before the World War, the fostering of new business was a feature of this country but business expansion and enlargement by merger characterized the situation during the World War. Large concerns absorbed small concerns until joint-stock companies with capitalization of ¥5,000,000 each accounted for 65 per cent of the total number of these companies after the War. The increase in size and concentration of capital gave rise to the monopolistic tendency of a limited number of large business concerns wielding great power. For example, in electric power circles the so-called "Big Five" electric power concerns, namely, the Tokyo Electric Light Company, Toho Electric Power Company, Daido Electric Power Company, Nippon Electric Power Company, and Ujigawa Electric Company absorbed many small companies and now control 66 per cent. of Japan's total power of 2,240,000 kilowatts generated by 62 concerns. In the spinning business, the two largest companies, that is, the Kanegafuchi Spinning Company and Toyo Spinning Company control 14 and 13 affiliated concerns respectively. This monopolistic trend has become more pronounced since the 1927 panic in banking circles. The Big Five ordinary banks, namely, the Dai-Ichi, Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo and Yasuda Banks handle nearly 40 per cent. of the total deposits. In life insurance circles also, the five largest concerns, namely, the Nippon Life, Chiyoda Life, Meiji Life, First Mutual Life and Teikoku life have more than 45 per cent. of the total life insurance contracts in Japan. This tendency has naturally solidified the foundations of big business houses such as the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo and Yasuda. For instance, the Mitsui interests now control 120 subsidiary and affiliated concerns, with a total capitalization of about ¥1,600,000,000, or 15 per cent. of all capital invested in business.

Formation of Cartels The formation of cartels by various kinds of industries is a feature of recent years. Free competition in business usually contributes to industrial development, but, in case supply is excessive, sundry troubles appear, and in order to counteract such troubles, cartels have been organized in various industries. The first curtailment of production in Japanese industry was carried out for eight days and nights per month for three months, commencing June 15, 1890, by the Japan Spinners' Association (founded in 1882). Such a practice was observed by many other industries after the Russo-Japanese War and the World War. Leading cartels in Japan are, the Coal Mining Association, Electro-Copper Joint Sales Office, Steel Manufacturers' Society, Pig Iron Joint Association, Steel Traders' Association, Super-Phosphatic Fertilizer Traders' Association, Japan Paper Mill Association, Joint Foreign-Style Paper

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Sales Guild, Joint Pulp Sales Company, Japan Portland Cement Association, Japan Spinners' Association, Spun Silk Association, Rayon Sales Association, Woollen Industry Society, Central Silk Association, Sugar Producers' Association, Japan Flour Association, Beer Sales Agreement, Joint Ice Sales Guild, Canned Crab Marine Product Association and many others.

Economic Conditions in 1934

The General Situation The year 1934 was marked by the reappearance of the inflation boom stimulated by the gold dollar devaluation policy adopted in the United States. It greatly affected the prices of commodities and stocks throughout the world. Its effect was also felt in Japan. Another factor that worked as stimulant on the economic and commercial circles was the rapid recovery in the price of rice due to the promulgation of the Rice Control Law. Though at first much doubt was entertained as to the effect of the Law in view of the huge rice stock brought over from the preceding year, the Government's purchases which amounted to 7,000,000 koku up to the end of January, gave a salutary effect on the rice market. Moreover, arms industries were prosperous; money rates were easier; and overseas trade was rapidly growing. The favourable reports of the business condition of the latter half of 1933 of most of the big corporations caused the Stock market to maintain a firm tone from the beginning of 1934 and purchases of miscellaneous shares went up to a record figure during February and March. According to the Tokyo Stock Exchange, the index number of the average price of shares rose from 117 of December, 1933, to 135 in March, 1934, the rise being 15%. The market value of all stocks in the country rose from ¥16,000,000,000 to ¥19,000,000,000. A setback, however, took place as from April. One of the causes of this change was the altered economic condition of the world. Shares and commodities which had been moving upwards in Europe as well as in the United States suddenly took a reverse turn, the United States taking the lead in the downward movement. Steel which was firm at $59 in February fell to $33 in July, and the average price of 30 industrial shares fell from $111 in February to $34 in July. At the same time commodities fell from 106.4 in February to 105 in May, according to the American price index number. This naturally affected this country.

The second cause was the record fall of silk. In December, 1933, it was barely able to maintain the ¥660 basis at the highest, which, however, rose to ¥674 in February due to stimulation from the United States. But in March, it paled off to ¥606 and in June further down to ¥500. Naturally the cocoons dropped to ¥1.50, a 50% fall as compared with 1933, which proved a serious blow to the economic life of the agricultural communities.

The third cause was the uneasiness in regard to the political situation. This was caused by the uncertainty whether or not the Saito Cabinet would resign. All these causes combined could not help affecting the stock market, causing a fall in the index number from 135 in March to 129 in April. In May there was a little revival but the general weak tone remained unchanged. Meanwhile, the price level of commodities maintained an upward tendency until May, due to artificial measures taken by the Government keeping up the prices of the daily necessaries. But

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other commodities continued to go downward after April. This condition was well reflected by the decrease in the volume of railway traffic and an increase of goods stocked in warehouses. The effect was also visible in the diminished amount of bills cleared and in the slow pace of all domestic business transactions. The overseas trade, however, continued prosperous. The money market remained as a whole as dull as ever, and so the last half of 1934 proved to be as sluggish as the second quarter of the year.

Slow to Recover The situation was not much improved by the advent of the Okada Cabinet. The new Cabinet was a de facto continuation of the Saito Cabinet and it was thought that nothing new could be expected of it. Moreover the finance policy of Mr. Fujii, new Finance Minister was such that caused apprehension in financial circles for the possible increase in taxation. A third cause that rendered the revival difficult was the restrained tone of the money market, especially of the short call, which was 2 or 3 rin above the level in the first half of the year. A fourth cause was the increasingly distressed condition of the agrarian economies. Following the slump of the cocoon industry due to the collapse in the price of cocoons in the course of spring to autumn, the damages wrought by typhoon and flood in September on crops brought about a big loss in the harvest. A fifth cause was the condition in foreign markets which worsened, especially that of the United States. The United States was still in the throes of depression. Steel dropped to a level below $30, a record since the gold re-embargo. Crops were much worse than what had been forecast. The price situation alone was rather firm on account of the rise in the prices of agricultural products. This, however, was of short duration, for September saw the reappearance of the price level of earlier days of 1934, thus dispersing the much expected devaluation boom. In Europe uneasiness in the international political situation was working to arouse public apprehension of the approaching collapse of the gold bloc. All these contributed to the difficulty of the economic revival of the country. In the meantime the expectation of the outcome of the Anglo-Japanese trade parley and, later, of that between delegates of Japan and the Netherlands proved unreal. The typhoon and flood disasters in the manufacturing centres of the Kansai districts came on its wake. Then as if to aggravate the situation, the tax-increase programme of the Finance Minister Fujii leaked out, which caused a sharp fall in the stock market. In December, however, Mr. Fujii resigned on account of illness and Mr. Takahashi was reappointed Finance Minister, which gave a soothing effect on the stock market.

Prices of commodities were taking a uniform onward movement throughout the latter half of 1934. Principal factors in this were the rise of the price of rice due to artificial Governmental policy and the advanced price of building materials due to the typhoon and flood disasters. Other commodities simply followed the lead by the aforesaid groups of commodities. Overseas trade as a whole continued to be as prosperous as in the preceding half year, and so was the general situation in all the productive industries.

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INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING VARIOUS ITEMS IN THE FINANCIAL WORLD

(According to investigations made by the Asahi, Tokyo Stock Exchange and the Mitsubishi Keizai Kenkyusho)

	Prices of Commodities	Short Call Int. Rate	Prices of Shares	Amounts of Bills Cleared	Production	Railway Traffic
January	100	103	103	109	99	98
February	102	110	103	121	66	100
March	103	115	105	128	97	97
April	104	110	97	106	98	95
May	104	113	111	111	101	93
June	104	113	95	104	101	90
July	102	112	118	107	101	92
August	104	111	111	114	101	97
September	106	106	124	98	100	96
October	109	103	111	99	104	103
November	108	97	116	100	—	102
December	108	102	108	100	100	105

December 1933=100

Inflation A marked feature in the financial and economic world of the country throughout the year was the continued expansion of the Government's budget. Though the amount that was to be met by the issuance of bonds showed a slight decrease as compared with the previous year, the amount of bonds actually issued was greater than in the previous year. To make the issuance of the large amount of bonds easier and economical to the Treasury, the Government policy tended towards keeping the market rate of money as cheap as possible. This caused an abundant utilization of funds and made possible the promotion and extension of various industries, which, assisted by the activities of heavy industries, made industrial conditions, in general, fairly prosperous. Another factor that should be noted was the exchange situation. The sterling exchange was homologous as ever before. The dollar exchange recorded a recovery of 50% on account of the devaluation of gold dollars, but its beneficial effect on Japan's trade with the United States was greatly diminished by the subsequent advancement in the commodity price range in that country. However, its stabilizing effect on the exchange markets throughout the world was a stimulant to the general overseas trade activities of Japan which showed an increase of 10% in exports and 19% in imports. The increased export business went on alongside with the lively activities of various export manufacturing industries. This, together with the brisk condition of the heavy industries, has made the whole financial aspect brighter.

Various financial indicators are fairly conclusive on this point. As compared with 1933 there was an increase of 16% in the capital investment, of 8% in the manufacturing production and of 18% in the aggregate net profit of business corporations. This gainful condition of industrial circles is well reflected in the workingmen's employment statistics of the Bank of Japan, which indicate an increase of 10%. No gains in wages were reported, but the increase in the number of the employed was itself a good thing, as it meant a corresponding increase in the aggregate of wage-earners' in-

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comes.

Agrarian Villages In sharp contrast to this prosperous condition of the urban communities the agrarian villages continued to be hard-hit throughout the year. Rice, cocoon and barley are the three most important agricultural products. Only in the barley harvest there was seen an increase. Rice dropped by 30% on account of the various disasters caused by nature. Though the revival in the price of rice by the control of the Government did much in relieving the hardships of rice producers yet the decrease was estimated at 10%. The worst condition was witnessed in the case of cocoon raisers. Affected by the tremendous fall in the price of silk yarns, cocoon production was 60% less than in the previous year. The painful condition in the agrarian communities owing to the unsatisfactory state in the two staples hampered much the natural course of inflation.

INDEX NUMBERS OF BASIC PROSPERITY INDICATORS

(Compiled by the Asahi)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Prices of commodities	100	120	137	142
Prices of shares	100	126	182	220
Railway traffic	100	101	114	127
Bills cleared	100	111	140	135
Overseas trade	100	119	158	187
Capital for business promotion	100	79	204	237
Men and women in employment	100	107	136	160
Engineering production	100	100	111	122
Agricultural production	100	105	121	131
Profits of corporations	100	126	159	138

A Setback Though the economic condition in 1934 was as a whole better than that in the preceding year, the rising percentage of all index numbers in 1934 was lower than in 1933 and in the amount of bills cleared as well as in the agricultural production there occurred a material decline. As to agricultural products, the decrease was largely caused by natural disasters. The decrease in the former, however, reflects a decrease of commercial transactions, a setback in the economic activities in general.

COMPARISON OF RISING RATE OF INDEX NUMBERS IN 1933 & 1934

(Compiled by the Asahi)

	1933	1934
	%	%
Prices of commodities	14	3
Prices of shares	44	21
Railway traffic	13	10
Bills cleared	26	4 lower
Overseas trade	33	18
Capital for business promotion	158	16
Profits of corporations	27	18
Men and women in employment	11	10
Manufacturing production	15	9
Agricultural production	26	13 lower

This hesitant tone in the onward march of recovery can be explained by the following:

1. Adoption in many countries of anti-Japanese measures.

2. Diffusion of cheap-rated money reaching a saturation point to almost all parties in need of it and the unification of monetary policies by the Bank of Japan.

3. Tendency to over-production on account of the extension of productive capacities.

4. Diminishing of purchasing power on account of the poverty stricken condition of the agrarian communities.

Business Transactions in 1934 In 1934, the aggregate quantity of railway traffics was 5,526,000 kilotons, an increase of 529,000 kilotons (11%) as compared with the previous year.

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RAILWAY TRAFFIC MOVEMENT

(Report of the Ministry of Railways)

	Monthly Average (1,000 metric tons)	Index Number	Compared with the Previous Year %
1928	5,672	100	—
1929	5,633	99	(−) 1
1930	4,867	86	(−) 13
1931	4,369	77	(−) 11
1932	4,399	78	1
1933	4,997	88	14
1934	5,526	97	11

Chief railway traffics were steel and iron, mineral ores, coal, oil, copper, etc., most of which were for use in heavy industries. Next in importance were cotton yarns, lumber, etc. The increase in the cotton yarn is indicative of a corresponding increase in the overseas trade and the increase in the lumber traffic was the natural outcome of the typhoon and flood disasters that occurred in the latter half of 1934.

RAILWAY FREIGHT INCREASE

(Report of the Ministry of Railways)

	1934 (1,000 metric tons)	Comparison with 1933 %	Comparison with 1931 %
Rice	3,343	14	18
Lumber	6,904	17	44
Sand	2,961	7	17
Steel and iron	910	29	71
Cement	1,237	8	23
Coal	23,139	9	9
Manure	2,944	11	7
Cotton yarns and cotton fabrics	589	12	29

Of the 35 kinds of principal goods those which dropped as compared with the previous year were cattle, calves, pigs, beverages and stones and those which remained stationary were wheat flour, salt, dried fishes, artificial manure, sugar, saké, etc. It should be noted that most of these goods were for home consumption, some being agricultural products and other requisites for farmers. The non-increase in the traffic of home consumption goods is indicative of the fact that the post gold embargo inflation prosperity was a prosperity that had grown up independent of the purchasing power of the masses. The stationary condition of agricultural requisites is a reflection of the depressed condition of the farm communities.

The railway traffic condition is also reflected in the movement of goods in warehouses. The total amount of goods brought to or away from principal warehouses in 6 big cities of the country was 128,000,000 packages in 1934, an increase of 15% as compared with the previous year and 43% as compared with 1931, the lowest post world-war record. As regards the total amount of goods brought in, the increase compared with 1933 was 14% and, as regards the total taken away, the increase was 17%. The increase rate of the total stocks at the end of 1933 in comparison with the previous year was 26% which at the end of 1934 decreased to 10%, indicating a turn for the better so far as the movements of goods are concerned.

Expansion of Enterprises An important fact that characterized the business world in 1934 was the great increase in the amount of capital and number of new industrial establishments stimulated, of course, by the favourable exchange rate of the yen and the boom of heavy industries, new schemes aggregating ¥1,334,000,000, an increase of ¥199,000,000 (17%) as compared with 1933 and of 204% as compared with 1932. Metallic and manufacturing industries took about 60% of this huge total amount and of the manufacturing industries about one half was for chemical and mechanical undertakings. In banking, insurance, warehouse, aquatic production, agriculture, forestry and gas and yarn

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manufacturing it was the reverse that took place, indicating a great change in the industrial life of Japan. Silk and cotton were two pillar industries of Japan, but they are no longer so today. Silk is rapidly being displaced by artificial silk, and cotton yarns and fabrics seem to have reached their saturating point, and in place of them new ones represented by mechanical, precision mechanical, and chemical industries has made a marked headway. From light industries to the heavy industries and from coarse mechanical industries to the precision mechanical industries, this was the trend that could well be discerned in Japan's industrial history of 1934.

INVESTMENT OF BANKS AND CORPORATIONS IN 1934

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

(In ¥1,000)

	1934	1933	1932
Banking	1,000	4,625	35,400
Insurance and Warehouse	2,000	47,000	4,600
Transportation	222,920	434,523	54,685
Mining	177,720	47,700	11,030
Electricity	212,995	50,118	120
Manufacturing enterprises	549,808	368,119	180,665
Gas	1,950	3,900	600
Spinning			
Fabric Manufacturing	71,178	65,200	11,000
Chemical	303,910	169,870	73,096
Paper Manufacturing	4,900	1,470	650
Machine & Machinery Making	66,820	37,740	14,585
Ceramic Manufacturing	49,435	13,000	800
Metal Manufacturing	77,150	20,080	4,290
Brewery	16,810	5,900	400
Foodstuff	6,750	22,463	6,355
Silk Yarn	200	1,200	435
Aquatic Production	18,400	4,190	31,682
Agriculture and Forestry	4,200	1,350	2,900
Trading	73,330	69,767	59,455
Others and			
Total	1,334,452	1,135,718	439,499

Productive Activities The increased new capital and extended employment of the hitherto unused capital gave the mining and manufacturing industries a further stimulus and made them possible to realize activities of 131% as against 121% in 1933 and 100% in 1931, the percentage of increase in 1933 being 15% as compared with 1932 and that in 1934 8% as compared with 1933.

Artificial silk made the most notable stride of all manufacturing industries in the past three years, the annual percentage of increase in comparison with the previous year having been 37% in 1932, 35% in 1933, and 50% in 1934. The progress in 1934 is specially notable because all other industries suffered a relative decrease in that year. While the average monthly production was 39,000 casks in 1931, it jumped to 120,000 casks in the last month of 1934. This is of course due to the almost perfect equipment, the much lower rate of the labour cost and the favourable exchange rate which had made possible the marked expansion in its overseas trade.

The bulk of cotton goods is for exporting abroad, 70% being manufactured for that purpose. Despite various measures taken in foreign countries to check its influx the overseas trade of cotton goods is still on the increase, the 1934 returns disclosing its gain over the British output. Thus, the production of cotton yarns leaped from the monthly average of 210,000 bales in 1931 to 300,000 bales in the closing month of 1934, the percentage of increase in the 3 years being 50%.

The expansion of artificial silk necessarily followed the great stride of artificial silk fabrics, the expansion percentage in the 3 years ending 1934 being over 100. Steel materials, pig iron, bleaching-powder,

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caustic soda and soda ash all made an expansion of 50-100% in the same period of years. Principal mining and manufacturing industries as represented by the index number to show their expansive business records follow:

INDEX NUMBER OF MINING AND MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Mitsubishi Keizai Kenkyusho)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Export Manufacturing				
Silk yarn	100	88	88	97
Cotton yarn	100	109	121	134
Cotton fabrics	100	109	120	128
Artificial silk	100	187	190	290
Artificial silk fabrics	100	145	162	202
Military Necessaries				
Steel materials	100	128	161	194
Pig iron	100	109	145	168
Coal	100	101	117	130
Home Making in Substitute of Imports				
Bleaching powder	100	116	160	175
Soda ash	100	114	160	197
Caustic soda	100	114	142	152
Paper (Western style)	100	99	109	120
Sulphate of ammonium	100	125	104	99
Cement	100	104	133	135
Plate or sheet glasses	100	99	128	140
Consumption Goods Manufacturing				
Beer	100	100	131	131
Sugar	100	82	97	98
Wheat flour	100	101	117	120

Business Results of Corporations The business results of all industrial corporations showed a decided increase in the year under review. 89 normally operated business corporations 16.6% profit for the last half of 1933, 18% for the first half of 1934 and 18.1% for the second half of the same year. Compared this with the second half of 1931, the last half year before the gold embargo was instituted, the increase rate was 68%.

BUSINESS OPERATIONS OF REPRESENTATIVE INDUSTRIAL CORPORATIONS

(Compiled by the Asahi)

	Net Profit Percentage	Index Number	Dividend Percentage	Reserved Dividend Percentage
1931 Second half	10.8	100	6.8	33.8
1932 Second half	12.3	113	6.5	44.5
1933 First half	15.2	141	7.5	54.5
Second half	16.6	153	7.1	55.4
1934 First half	18.0	168	7.8	54.4
Second half	18.1	168	8.0	53.4

The causes of these encouraging results of industrial corporations were, beside the general favourable conditions on account of the brisk export trade and the expansion of industries manufacturing military supplies, (1) the conversion of high rated working capital to the lower rated one, the process of which had penetrated into almost all industries, (2) the increase in the efficiency percentage of the working capital to the maximum extent because of the reimbursements of debentures and the writing-off of bad assets made out of the reserved profits which had been accumulated during the past several business terms, (3) the increase of production owing to the extension of productive and business scales, (4) the mobilization in the case of certain industries of the hitherto unused working capital by the lifting up of artificial bans long in operation for the restriction of production, and (5) the rise in the per unit price of products. But the fact that, while the business results in 1934 were continuously on the increase as a whole, the expansive power of the profit percentage came to a standstill in the second half of the same

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year and that the profit reserving percentage decreased in the two continuous half yearly business terms can be taken as an indication of the inflation boom facing its end temporarily as it might be, if not as a final event.

If the business results are studied dividing industries as between manufacturing and auxiliary, there is shown a big difference. While auxiliary industries were able to obtain satisfactory results in the second half of 1934 continuously from the previous business terms with their profit percentage tending further upward, manufacturing industries were forced to be satisfied with a lowered rate.

PROFIT PERCENTAGE ACCORDING INDUSTRIES

(Compiled by the Asahi)

Manufacturing Industries	1933 Second Half	1934 First Half	1934 Second Half
Food stuffs	22.9	25.7	25.9
Cotton yarn spinning	26.8	31.1	32.1
Other fiber spinning	44.8	39.5	37.2
Mineral refining	19.5	23.6	23.6
Machines and machinery manufacturing and shipbuilding	6.1	7.8	9.9
Chemical goods	15.7	15.5	16.3
Ceramics	33.6	32.0	22.0
Oil	11.6	7.4	7.4
Collective	22.1	23.7	23.6
Auxiliary Industries			
Electricity and Gas	10.9	12.0	11.9
Land transportation	12.6	12.5	12.9
Sea transportation	21.6	19.9	25.4
Trading and others	11.6	13.8	14.2
Trust business	23.2	24.3	20.6
Land and buildings	7.6	7.4	7.4
Bourses	12.2	10.2	9 1
Collective	12.3	12.7	12 9

In the manufacturing industries ceramics on account of overproduction, oil on account of reckless competition, and miscellaneous fibre industries on account of the depression of the wool market recorded declines in business ; but refining of minerals, and machinery, shipbuilding and chemical industries are all making substantial profits. In the auxiliary industries excepting the sea transportation industry none had made a good record. Exchanges were worsened on account of the decrease in the amount of transactions made. As for the real estate business, it showed no difference with the conditions prior to 1932. (As to foreign trade and money market see the chapters concerned.)

COMPANIES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE BRANCHES OF ENTERPRISE

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

	Agricultural		Industrial	
	Nos.	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Nos.	Paid-up capital
1923:				
Joint-stock companies	497	120,415	7,463	4,229,774
Limited partnerships	225	5,985	3,914	320,817
Unlimited partnerships	171	17,775	1,824	95,918
Total	893	144,176	13,201	4,646,510
1925:				
"	498	143,912	7,134	4,576,386
"	245	12,900	4,521	304,900
"	177	19,348	1,873	106,391
"	920	176,161	13,558	4,987,678
1927:				
"	499	171,056	7,065	5,298,979
"	298	12,737	5,596	320,844
"	207	16,101	2,084	128,441
"	1,004	199,895	14,745	5,748,265

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	Agricultural		Industrial	
	Nos.	Paid-up capital (In ¥1,000)	Nos.	Paid-up capital
1929:				
Joint-stock companies	495	199,050	7,147	5,829,537
Limited partnerships	368	16,375	7,425	203,421
Unlimited partnerships	219	15,778	2,445	139,912
Total	1,082	231,204	17,017	6,171,871
1930:				
„	493	190,317	7,117	5,871,033
„	425	15,707	8,651	209,758
„	232	11,971	2,813	149,980
„	1,150	217,996	18,581	6,230,772
1931:				
„	471	175,712	7,222	5,946,113
„	565	17,149	9,964	218,063
„	263	11,233	3,166	152,528
„	1,299	204,094	20,352	6,316,704
1932:				
„	480	204,312,154	7,308	5,907,726,770	9,261	4,295,841,634
„	913	15,920,505	12,055	232,920,795	19,373	705,085,207
„	286	10,573,241	3,601	153,997,259	6,681	993,170,096
„	1,679	230,805,900	22,964	6,294,644,824	35,315	5,994,096,937

	Commercial		Transportation		Total	
	Nos.	Paid-up capital	Nos.	Paid-up capital	Nos.	Paid-up capital
1923:						
Joint-stock companies	7,944	3,595,289	1,658	894,393	17,562	8,839,572
Limited partnerships	4,967	362,056	556	15,765	9,662	704,625
Unlimited partnerships	2,736	527,154	135	9,051	4,865	649,900
Total	15,646	4,484,501	2,349	919,209	32,089	10,194,898
1925:						
„	8,119	3,750,795	1,822	1,062,828	17,603	9,533,924
„	6,189	401,918	604	12,902	11,530	782,622
„	3,014	755,964	139	8,506	5,203	890,211
„	17,302	4,908,678	2,565	1,084,238	34,345	11,156,757
1927:						
„	8,238	4,036,758	2,223	1,248,560	18,025	10,755,355
„	7,888	440,232	748	15,593	14,530	789,407
„	3,460	935,196	210	9,962	5,961	1,089,701
„	19,586	5,412,187	3,181	1,274,116	38,516	12,634,465
1929:						
„	8,614	4,235,556	2,739	1,448,559	18,995	11,762,704
„	11,421	641,427	1,104	19,411	20,318	836,571
„	4,446	982,708	269	10,018	7,379	1,119,215
„	24,481	5,909,692	4,112	1,477,989	46,692	13,161,495
1930:						
„	8,674	4,334,323	2,906	1,457,672	19,390	11,853,345
„	13,645	660,837	1,274	20,518	23,995	906,822
„	5,172	1,013,980	808	10,539	8,525	1,187,472
„	27,691	6,009,141	4,488	1,488,730	51,910	13,946,640
1931:						
„	9,014	4,270,444	2,991	1,470,575	19,698	11,862,844
„	5,867	683,520	1,459	21,614	27,855	940,347
„	5,913	983,064	331	10,371	9,673	1,157,195
„	30,794	5,937,028	4,781	1,502,560	57,226	13,960,386
1932:						
„	3,008	1,489,808,432		20,057		11,897,688,990
„	1,718	23,118,741		34,059		977,045,248
„	357	14,129,183		10,925		1,171,869,779
„	5,083	1,527,056,356		65,041		14,046,604,017

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FACTORIES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

End of	No. of factories worked by motors	Factories worked by motors: Steam		Gas	Petroleum	Water	
		Steam engines H.P.	Steam turbines H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	Turbines H.P.	Pelton's H.P.
1924	37,141	477,561	760,311	55,030	12,818	595,062	245,242
1925	38,221	461,629	696,552	38,381	15,746	683,948	119,631
1926	41,514	535,834	1,160,279	37,617	21,277	871,403	225,821
1927	43,726	493,190	1,689,189	38,276	26,920	1,153,213	253,854
1928	46,247	617,337	1,683,786	30,893	30,474	1,345,445	375,562
1929	48,822	377,283	1,567,690	20,956	25,113	2,038,347	555,803
1930	51,407	309,742	1,475,504	17,543	27,811	2,310,865	527,424
1931	53,442	323,628	1,753,431	16,459	32,873	2,415,288	533,713
1932	56,453	213,916	1,863,302	16,759	43,146	2,785,866	519,080
1933	61,203	189,781	2,870,009	17,606	55,896	2,992,158	523,744

End of	Factories worked by motors: Water Japanese H.P.	Electric motors H.P.	No. of factories not worked by motors	Total no. of factories	No. of operatives employed: Male	Female	Total
1924	7,445	1,485,674	11,253	48,394	859,783	929,835	1,789,618
1925	11,531	1,767,163	10,940	49,161	852,554	955,827	1,808,381
1926	5,598	1,794,644	10,392	51,906	893,834	981,361	1,875,195
1927	5,292	2,148,961	9,954	53,680	923,201	975,671	1,898,872
1928	5,410	2,300,761	9,701	55,948	948,876	987,373	1,936,249
1929	12,162	4,930,951	11,065	59,887	855,187	969,835	1,825,022
1930	8,086	3,859,560	10,827	62,284	796,282	887,281	1,683,563
1931	7,231	3,263,337	10,994	64,436	775,236	886,266	1,661,502
1932	6,150	2,922,149	10,865	67,318	846,307	887,204	1,733,511
1933	5,420	3,054,478	10,737	71,940	967,659	933,432	1,901,091

OUTSTANDING AMOUNT OF BANK AND CORPORATION BONDS (At the end of the year)

Compiled by the Bank of Japan

Internal Bonds	1926	1927	1928	1929
Bank Bonds				
Hypothec Debentures	¥683,435,380	¥693,451,060	¥732,008,760	¥779,866,260
Savings Bonds	1,053,355	606,060	477,975	—
Reconstruction Savings Certificates	62,052,155	72,938,265	82,210,295	81,414,350
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	216,967,399	238,368,531	262,873,876	268,210,000
Debentures of the Hokkaido Colonial Bank	96,228,950	113,623,280	101,018,170	94,632,300
Debentures of Agricultural & Industrial Banks	377,453,561	442,983,557	468,889,777	475,683,187
Debentures of the Chosen Industrial Bank	144,837,000	173,445,000	177,223,000	199,685,000
Total	1,582,027,800	1,735,415,753	1,824,701,853	1,899,491,097
Corporation Bonds				
Railway & Tramway	355,001,640	447,476,860	541,519,860	577,715,360
Shipping & Shipbuilding	129,500,000	141,500,000	197,350,000	193,600,000
Mining & Metallurgy	50,637,500	45,800,000	52,175,000	50,275,500
Electric & Gas Works	491,967,500	580,032,500	753,529,000	852,171,500
Spinning & Weaving	93,494,000	115,930,000	112,890,000	150,010,000
Manufacturing	259,577,910	308,417,844	372,370,172	373,614,570
Commercial, etc.	186,928,30	201,902,550	186,840,050	183,710,826
Total	1,567,106,850	1,841,059,754	2,217,674,082	2,381,097,756
Total Internal Bonds	3,149,134,650	3,576,475,507	4,042,375,935	4,280,588,853

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External Bonds	1926	1927	1928	1929
Bank Bonds				
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	54,407,753	10,129,308	10,129,308	10,129,307
Debentures of the Hokkaido Colonial Bank	2,420,100	2,320,100	2,220,100	2,120,100
Total	56,827,853	12,449,408	12,349,408	12,249,407
Corporations Bonds				
Railway & Tramway	39,052,000	39,052,000	39,052,000	39,052,000
Electric & Gas Works	216,574,595	228,982,708	344,977,069	340,819,952
Commercial, etc.	35,981,622	34,948,532	74,065,532	73,302,249
Total	291,608,217	302,983,240	458,094,601	453,174,201
Total External Bonds	348,436,070	315,432,648	470,444,006	465,423,608
Grand Total	3,497,570,720	3,891,908,155	4,512,819,944	4,746,012,461

Internal Bonds	1930	1931	1932	1933
Bank Bonds				
Hypothec Debentures	¥853,011,110	¥896,654,260	¥915,516,950	¥851,232,600
Savings Bonds	—	—	—	—
Reconstruction Savings Certificates	80,678,490	79,933,490	79,165,075	78,412,995
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	323,048,000	333,093,500	393,630,000	313,162,250
Debentures of the Hokkaido Colonial Bank	100,635,300	100,699,400	122,328,100	122,777,300
Debentures of Agricultural & Industrial Banks	468,054,037	483,659,082	504,394,163	490,977,457
Debentures of the Chosen Industrial Bank	242,158,000	247,558,000	260,992,800	253,482,000
Total	2,067,584,937	2,141,597,682	2,276,027,088	2,110,044,602
Corporation Bonds				
Railway & Tramway	617,869,160	655,778,510	734,864,860	780,471,210
Shipping & Shipbuilding	192,650,000	182,350,000	119,350,000	103,140,000
Mining & Metallurgy	48,855,000	47,855,000	47,125,000	37,405,000
Electric & Gas Works	936,527,000	966,687,500	952,429,500	997,626,000
Spinning & Weaving	151,136,750	136,495,350	134,745,350	139,685,350
Manufacturing	366,875,589	380,891,150	382,817,100	320,400,470
Commercial, etc.	194,107,240	199,937,860	211,867,578	204,866,852
Total	2,508,020,739	2,569,995,370	2,582,699,388	2,583,594,882
Total Internal Bonds	4,575,605,676	4,711,593,052	4,858,726,476	4,693,639,484
External Bonds				
Bank Bonds				
Debentures of the Industrial Bank of Japan	10,129,307	10,129,307	10,107,633	—
Debentures of the Hokkaido Colonial Bank	2,020,100	1,920,100	1,820,100	—
Total	12,149,407	12,049,407	11,927,733	—
Corporations Bonds				
Railway & Tramway	39,052,000	39,052,000	39,052,000	—
Electric & Gas Works	333,196,867	384,808,491	349,234,823	319,573,722
Commercial, etc.	71,468,765	70,001,376	67,557,065	63,543,059
Total	443,717,632	493,861,867	455,843,888	383,116,781
Total External Bonds	455,867,039	505,911,274	467,771,621	383,116,781
Grand Total	5,031,472,715	5,217,504,326	5,326,498,097	5,076,756,265

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN CAPITAL INTO JAPAN

Year	National bonds issued abroad	Domestic bonds sent abroad	Provincial bonds issued abroad	Debentures issued abroad	Total	Comparison with the preceding year
			(In ¥1,000)			
1924	1,514,265	25,954	127,408	193,460	1,861,084	+270,207
1925	1,500,215	8,712	124,627	331,557	1,965,113	+104,028
1926	1,477,868	9,687	220,223	347,634	2,055,413	+ 90,300
1927	1,460,232	14,768	257,640	315,500	2,048,140	— 7,273
1928	1,456,092	31,397	254,163	470,406	2,209,029	+160,888
1929	1,446,894	31,779	245,666	465,623	2,189,963	— 19,065
1930	1,567,325	84,178	245,173	455,867	2,352,544	+162,580
1931	1,477,334	59,181	240,697	505,964	2,283,177	— 69,367
1932	1,398,296	51,428	235,502	467,821	2,153,047	—130,129
1933	1,421,211	50,019	230,984	383,116	2,085,331	— 67,176

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EXTERNAL LOANS OF PRIVATE COMPANIES

(At the end of 1933)

Companies	Year of Issue	Rate of Interest	Issue Price	Amount of Issue	Amount outstanding at the end of 1933
Outstanding Issue		%		(Yen)	(Yen)
Oriental Development Co., Ltd	Mar., 1923	6.0	92.0	$ 19,900,000 (39,919,400)	$ 15,028,500 (30,147,171)
Do	Nov., 1928	5 5	90.0	$ 19,900,000 (39,919,400)	$ 16,648,000 (33,395,888)
Nippon Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Jan., 1928	6.5	94.0	$ 9,000,000 (18,054,000)	$ 7,568,000 (15,181,408)
Daidō Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Aug., 1924	7.0	91.5	$ 15,000,000 (30,090,000)	$ 9,700,000 (19,458,200)
Do	July, 1925	6.5	86.0	$ 13,500,000 (27,081,000)	$ 10,076,006 (20,212,450)
Tokyo Electric Light Co., Ltd.	June, 1928	6.0	90.5	$ 70,000,000 (140,420,000)	$ 61,145,000 (122,656,870)
Do	June, 1928	6.0	90.0	£ 4,500,000 (43,933,500)	£ 4,009,600 (39,145,725)
Do (Shinyetsu Electric Power Co. Ltd.)	Dec., 1927	6.5	93½	$ 7,650,000 (15,345,900)	$ 6,430,000 (12,898,580)
Ujigawa Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1925	7.0	91.0	$ 14,000,000 (28,084,000)	$ 9,220,000 (18,495,320)
Toho Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1925	7.0	90.5	$ 15,000,000 (30,090,000)	$ 11,825,000 (23,720,950)
Do	July, 1925	5.0	97.0	£ 800,000 (2,928,900)	£ 211,760 (2,067,413)
Taiwan Electric Power Co., Ltd.	July, 1931	5.5	93½	$ 22,800,000 (45,736,800)	$ 22,800,000 (45,736,800)
Total	—	—	—	(461,602,900)	(383,116,781)
Redeemed					
Kansai Railway Co., Ltd.	Dec., 1905	4.5	97.5	£ 1,000,000 (9,763,000)	—
Hokkaidō Colliery Steamship Co., Ltd.	Jan., 1906	5.0	98.5	£ 1,000,000 (9,763,000)	—
South Manchuria Railway Co., Ltd.	July, 1907	5.0	97.0	£ 4,000,000 (39,052,000)	—
Do	June, 1908	5.0	98.0	£ 2,000,000 (19,526,000)	—
Do	Dec., 1908	5.0	97.5	£ 2,000,000 (19,526,000)	—
Do	Jan., 1908	4.5	98.0	£ 6,000,000 (58,578,000)	—
Matsui Mousseline Spinning Co., Ltd.	Apr., 1909	6.5	100.0	(250,000)	—
Oriental Development Co., Ltd.	Mar., 1913	5.0	96½	Fr. 50,000,000 (19,350,000)	— —
Industrial Bank of Japan	Aug., 1924	6.0	99.0	$ 22,000,000 (44,132,000)	—
Tokyo Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Aug., 1925	6.0	89⅞	$ 24,000,000 (48,144,000)	—
Do	Mar., 1925	6.0	94.0	£ 600,000 (5,857,800)	—
Do	June, 1923	6.0	94.0	£ 3,000,000 (29,289,000)	—
Toho Electric Power Co., Ltd.	July, 1926	6.0	98.5	$ 10,000,000 (20,060,000)	—
Do	July, 1929	6.0	96½	$ 11,450,000 (22,968,700)	—
Industrial Bank of Japan	Dec., 1908	5.0	97.0	£ 2,000,000 (19,526,000)	—
Hokkaidō Colonial Bank	June, 1910	5.0	91⅞	(5,000,000)	—
Nippon Electric Power Co., Ltd.	Feb., 1931	6.0	—	£ 1,500,000 (14,644,500)	—
Total	—	—	—	(385,430,000)	—

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Stock and Produce Exchanges

Tokyo Stock Exchange The exchange system in Japan dates back to an early period of the Tokugawa era, but it was then confined mostly to deals in rice. Exchange houses in this country are of three kinds, namely, stocks, rice and other commodities. There are 29 exchange houses devoted to dealings in securities, either exclusively or in combination with other commodities. The exchanges here are more on the European continental plan than those of either England or America, and are subject to strict control by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry or other supervising authorities of the Government. Such controlling authority is empowered to interfere in the business of an exchange when it is considered that the exchange is abusing its privileges or acting in an irregular way.

The Tokyo Stock Exchange was established in 1878 after the Satsuma Rebellion, when the issue of public bonds was rapidly increasing and the country's business was beginning to get active because of the successive establishment of national banks and concerns conducting business analogous to the banking business. Under the auspices of Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa and other influential business men of the day the Tokyo Stock Exchange was established at Kabuto-cho, Nihombashi-ku. Kabuto-cho has become a synonymous term for the exchange, as Wall Street is to the New York Stock Exchange. The initial capital was ¥200,000. When the exchange was established the scope of business was limited mostly to new and old pension bonds, Tokyo Stock Exchange shares, First National Bank shares and Tokyo Rice and Produce Exchange shares. The goodwill claimed by a licensed broker attached to the Exchange was very small, a striking contrast with the ¥200,000 to ¥500,000 demanded in recent years for a seat. As security for good faith a licensed broker was required to deposit ¥100 with the Exchange, to-day the broker has to deposit ¥150,000, and this not with the Exchange but with the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The number of futures dealt in, as registered on the exchange, was in 1882, 3,601 shares, which number had increased to 3,572,110 shares for 57 different securities by 1897, after the Sino-Japanese War; to 12,013,120 shares for 106 varieties by 1907, after the Russo-Japanese War; and to 37,274,040 shares for 300 listed securities by 1920, after the World War. The Osaka Stock Exchange was founded in July in 1878, two months later than the Tokyo Stock Exchange. After 1882 the Government adopted a policy of restricting speculative transactions and the stock exchange business was hard hit, but in later years a more generous policy regarding the establishment of bourses was adopted and, consequently, the number of rice and produce exchanges, which was only 13 at the end of 1892, had increased to 83 by the end of 1894. There were three stock exchanges only at the end of 1892, but 37 at the end of 1896. With a rapid increase in business prosperity after the Sino-Japanese War enthusiasm for speculation increased and many exchanges with a small capitalization cropped up. The same was observed after the Russo-Japanese War and during the World War boom. The great World War stock boom lasted till about the middle of March, 1920, when a financial reaction took place in Japan. Before the World War, 12,588,000 shares valued at ¥1,340,000,000, in 1907 was the largest number dealt in, but in 1915 the deals

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amounted to 19,560,000 shares with an aggregate of ¥1,670,000,000, and a further gain to 40,870,000 shares totalling ¥6,185,000,000 was made in 1919. The March deals in 1920 amounted to 6,570,000 shares with an aggregate of ¥1,150,000,000. In line with activity in securities there was heavy dealing in commodities, and a sharp increase in the price of rice following speculative dealings caused a serious social situation. The spot rice price of ¥10 per koku in the autumn of 1914 had gone up to ¥20 in 1917, and in September of that year the Government issued an anti-profiteering act for the prevention of high prices in rice and other staple commodities, but the rapidly rising prices could not be checked. In August of 1917 the rice price went up to as high as ¥40 per koku. This finally resulted in the outbreak of a big rice riot throughout Japan, following which a heavy reaction took place in stock and commodities prices. The price of the Tokyo Stock Exchange Company's shares, the leading issue of all, attained the height of ¥549.90 in March, 1920, but fell to as low as ¥274 on April 14. This heralded a panicky decline of prices and, consequently, the Tokyo Stock Exchange had to partially suspend business from April 14 to May 10. The exchange borrowed ¥40,000,000 from the Bank of Japan through 16 banks and advanced money to brokers to allow them to effect out-of-the-market compromises.

Prices of Shares in 1934 The economic aspect in 1934 was best reflected in the price of commodities and shares. While shares were boomish with the index number of 220 as against 182 in 1933, the price level of commodities showed an improvement of only 3% at 142 against 137 in 1933. But the official monthly report shows that the general trend of shares resulted in the 2% decline by the end of 1934 in comparison with the earlier days of the year, while during the same period prices of commodities made an advance of 3%. All this was partly due to the abundant antecedency character of shares with reference to the economic prospect but was greatly due to the Government's artificial operations to lift up the price of rice and the enhanced price range of building materials. It would not be mistaken to conclude that though the price level went upward as de facto conditions, as a matter of forecast it was draggish and on the decline.

INDEX NUMBERS OF SHARES

(Prices in 1921 taken as 100)

(Compiled by the Tokyo Stock Exchange)

	Shares in General	Quantity	Principal Shares	Amount of Shares (in ¥1,000,000)
Average of 1933	98	117	148	—
1934 Jan.	121	89	143	17,268
March	135	112	148	19,154
May	132	95	141	19,103
July	131	81	126	19,894
Sept	124	78	121	19,791
Nov.	114	92	113	18,244
Average of 1934	126	84	132	—

Another feature which characterized the 1934 stock market was the equalization of the prices and yields of shares. All first rated shares of mining, fibre spinning, manufacturing industries and of the Stock Exchanges had dropped sharply or at least remained stationary, and, on the contrary, public utilities, shippings, miscellaneous transportations, fisheries, etc. made sharp boundings.

After all, the continued attempts in foreign countries to curb the influx of Japanese goods and the seemingly increasing overproduction induced enough warnings to the stock market, and these conditions coupled with the increased holding off of speculative stocks due to the prospective spreading of the economic uni-

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fication programme were the causes of the aforesaid reversed tendency. It was, in fact, the real investment market as against the speculation market that won out during 1934.

INDEX NUMBERS OF SHARES

(Compiled by the Tokyo Stock Exchange)

	Nov., 1931	Dec., 1933	Dec., 1934	Comparison with 1933 %	Comparison with 1931 %
Utilities	48	91	118	30	146
Banking and insurance	140	156	169	8	21
Mining	29	154	139	(−) 10	379
Spinning	42	79	75	(−) 5	79
Manufacturing	26	72	74	3	185
Commercial undertakings	82	87	87	—	16
Shipping and Miscellaneous Transportations	22	45	55	22	150
Miscellaneous	40	103	155	50	288
Exchanges	88	147	116	(−) 21	32
Total	52	117	119	2	130

BOURSES

(Department of Commerce and Industry Figures)

JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES

Year	At the End of Year			
	Number of Companies	Number of Brokers	Capital Authorized	Capital Paid-up
1924	32	1,246	¥137,652,200	¥90,144,700
1925	32	1,098	137,652,200	90,170,700
1926	34	1,187	137,852,200	97,120,700
1927	34	1,089	137,852,200	97,120,700
1928	34	937	137,852,200	97,678,200
1929	34	923	138,902,200	98,203,200
1930	32	863	138,902,200	98,103,200
1931	31	838	138,902,200	98,103,200
1932	31	861	138,802,200	105,628,200
1933	29	918	138,802,200	105,745,200

Year	During the Year					
	Receipts			Expenses		
	Fees	Others	Total	Tax on Bourses	Others	Total
1924	¥11,690,476	¥6,354,448	¥18,044,924	¥ 1,771,296	¥5,499,632	¥7,270,928
1925	13,490,407	6,471,345	19,961,752	2,088,317	5,387,102	7,475,419
1926	17,077,364	7,573,039	24,650,403	2,567,386	6,223,559	8,790,945
1927	12,356,186	6,308,842	18,665,028	1,849,807	5,550,898	7,400,705
1928	11,378,712	6,513,665	17,892,377	1,731,680	6,206,673	7,938,353
1929	9,608,216	5,570,184	15,178,400	1,469,014	5,758,319	7,227,333
1930	9,953,828	5,078,418	15,032,246	1,540,853	5,406,713	6,947,566
1931	11,718,041	5,699,828	17,417,869	1,775,125	6,431,315	8,206,440
1932	13,700,918	6,236,902	19,993,782	2,076,346	6,992,606	9,068,952
1933	18,856,435	6,963,927	25,820,362	2,840,617	8,810,732	11,651,349

Year	During the Year				
	Net Profit		Loss		Dividend
	Number of Companies	Sum	Number of Companies	Sum	
1924	32	¥10,773,996	—	—	¥ 8,954,285
1925	32	12,486,333	—	—	10,489,547
1926	33	15,865,406	1	¥ 5,948	12,156,434
1927	32	11,294,632	2	30,309	9,136,450
1928	34	9,954,024	—	—	8,452,468
1929	33	7,951,304	1	237	6,462,306
1930	30	8,087,621	2	2,941	6,428,218
1931	28	9,230,713	3	19,284	6,642,108
1932	29	10,924,880	2	24,195	7,997,109
1933	29	14,197,632	2	28,612	9,639,337

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ASSOCIATIONS

Year	At the End of Year				During the Year			
	Number of Associations	Number of Members	Contribution Amount	Reserve Funds	Fees	Receipts Others	Total	Expenses
1924	2	80	¥315,000	¥ 5,739	¥ 79,522	¥ 9,942	¥ 89,464	¥ 43,587
1925	3	120	405,500	56,327	166,506	23,344	189,850	112,111
1926	3	112	405,500	125,626	346,737	44,580	391,317	204,103
1927	4	120	443,500	323,378	269,631	52,096	321,727	189,717
1928	5	142	459,830	377,449	219,159	60,007	279,166	168,820
1929	5	128	527,560	438,702	165,142	61,039	226,181	164,447
1930	5	120	530,740	478,157	144,832	56,575	201,407	127,878
1931	5	111	530,740	514,926	136,730	55,405	192,135	134,469
1932	6	183	559,270	593,564	239,024	73,575	312,599	162,681
1933	6	187	562,950	732,587	316,993	76,923	393,916	161,044

AMOUNT OF SHARES, BONDS AND PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES TRANSACTED AT THE BOURSES

Year	Number of Bourses	Shares			
		Long Term		Short Term	
		Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries	Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries
		Shares	Shares	Shares	Shares
1924	11	41,489,500	2,619,800	35,619,250	4,739,450
1925	11	64,074,910	7,687,100	61,275,390	10,316,640
1926	11	72,708,490	10,313,760	94,256,830	11,878,850
1927	11	51,162,160	7,946,110	76,998,030	10,195,310
1928	11	37,159,940	7,332,900	66,810,640	9,617,310
1929	11	27,983,480	5,473,340	82,303,490	12,811,520
1930	11	36,512,680	4,210,690	96,078,300	14,773,330
1931	11	30,360,080	4,013,940	139,008,640	16,941,130
1932	11	46,236,900	6,857,770	165,252,540	22,829,120
1933	11	57,275,810	11,316,750	216,429,210	26,872,090

Year	Bonds				Rice		
	Number of Bourses	Long Term		Number of Bourses	Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries
		Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries			
		Yen	Yen		Hectolitres	Hectolitres
1924	—	—	—	28	531,739,453	2,273,107
1925	1	42,080,000 fr. 7,290,000	3,225,000 fr. 1,450,000	26	409,500,739	2,207,204
1926	2	179,726,000 fr. 3,550,000	37,301,000 —	26	327,429,399	2,713,261
1927	2	126,774,000 fr. 44,200,000	16,335,000 fr. 11,475,000	28	317,627,783	1,635,605
1928	2	448,051,000 fr. 145,975,000	108,247,000 fr. 48,810,000	27	320,372,792	2,248,033
1929	2	349,410,000 fr. 107,185,000	76,305,000 fr. 23,920,000	26	324,978,355	1,757,910
1930	2	295,620,000 fr. 45,980,000	33,410,000 fr. 11,070,000	25	398,580,769	1,616,303
1931	2	793,835,000 fr. 289,770,000	166,950,000 fr. 84,620,000	25	369,669,508	2,176,046
1932	2	740,755,000 fr. 279,210,000	148,845,000 fr. 39,420,000	24	400,031,293	3,061,235
1933	2	536,370,000 fr. 624,970,000	126,190,000 fr. 87,760,000	24	224,276,342	2,248,032

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Year	Raw Silk			Cotton Yarn		
	Number of Bourses	Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries	Number of Bourses	Amount of Sales	Amount of Deliveries
		Kg.	Kg.		Bales	Bales
1924	1	11,350,380	133,200	3	5,183,322	19,635
1925	1	13,261,620	399,000	3	8,788,980	40,845
1926	1	21,662,580	580,800	3	13,146,095	48,575
1927	1	18,733,140	285,000	3	12,103,260	79,015
1928	1	15,516,840	749,400	3	10,878,320	61,430
1929	2	11,957,940	322,800	3	7,817,150	47,900
1930	2	29,641,596	480,000	3	10,048,140	54,530
1931	2	44,030,220	2,328,000	3	8,162,960	20,870
1932	2	41,077,140	1,250,400	3	10,492,050	58,000
1933	2	44,379,840	652,800	3	9,398,060	28,625

PRICES OF PRINCIPAL BONDS AND SHARES IN TOKYO

(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)

Year	5% Loan (Mark: "Ko")			4% Loan (1st series)		
	Face value	Highest	Lowest	Face value	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥100.00	¥85.85	¥82.90	¥100.00	¥75.10	¥72.25
1925	100.00	86.70	83.00	100.00	75.60	72.35
1926	100.00	87.55	86.40	100.00	76.90	73.85
1927	100.00	93.60	88.30	100.00	79.90	74.30
1928	100.00	98.00	89.30	100.00	90.00	76.70
1929	100.00	96.30	90.60	100.00	83.90	77.00
1930	100.00	92.90	86.95	100.00	80.00	75.50
1931	100.00	98.35	86.15	100.00	84.60	72.60
1932	100.00	99.50	86.50	100.00	90.00	73.60
1933	100.00	104.10	94.70	100.00	100.40	82.60

Year	Bank of Japan Shares			Yokohama Specie Bank Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥200.00	¥728.00	¥695.00	¥100.00	¥176 00	¥157.00
1925	200.00	735.00	640.00	100.00	199.00	169.60
1926	200.00	820.00	735.00	100.00	200.30	185.30
1927	200.00	790.00	660.00	100.00	206.00	178.50
1928	200.00	723.00	633.00	100.00	234.50	198.00
1929	200.00	648.00	539.00	100.00	217.00	186.20
1930	200.00	580.00	743.00	100.00	203.00	139.50
1931	200.00	554.00	475.00	100.00	180.00	141.00
1932	200.00	535.00	475.00	100.00	187.50	137.00
1933	200.00	554.00	485.00	100.00	200.50	160.00

Year	Industrial Bank of Japan Shares			South Manchuria Railway Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥50.00	¥53.80	¥49.60	¥100.00	¥113.70	¥99.90
1925	50.00	52.20	44.00	100.00	125.30	110.50
1926	50.00	51.00	46.60	100.00	130.50	122.60
1927	50.00	47.20	30.40	100.00	135.00	120.00
1928	50.00	42.30	33.10	100.00	145.20	129.20
1929	50.00	39.80	32.90	50.00	71.70	63.50
1930	50.00	35.30	18.80	50.00	72.60	49.70
1931	50.00	30.70	23.40	50.00	63.90	45.30
1932	50.00	47.20	24.30	50.00	67.60	48.30
1933	50.00	50.20	35.00	50.00	74.00	54.00

Note:—The highest and lowest prices of the 5% and 4% loans represent flat prices.

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PRICES OF PRINCIPAL BONDS AND SHARES IN TOKYO (Continued)

Year	Nippon Yusen Kaisha Shares			Osaka Shosen Kaisha Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥50.00	¥87.50	¥67.80	¥50.00	¥43.00	¥35.20
1925	50.00	91.00	67.50	50.00	56.50	42.20
1926	50.00	83.80	74.00	50.00	58.50	49.40
1927	50.00	82.30	66.10	50.00	54.20	43.00
1928	50.00	72.80	66.20	50.00	49.50	43.30
1929	50.00	69.70	55.20	50.00	45.30	37.50
1930	50.00	57.40	25.20	50.00	36.00	17.80
1931	50.00	45.00	29.30	50.00	30.50	18.60
1932	50.00	58.50	28.30	50.00	48.50	19.80
1933	50.00	57.20	41.00	50.00	48.80	28.00

Year	Tokyo Electric Light Company Shares			Kanegafuchi Cotton Spinning Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥50.00	¥60.30	¥51.30	¥50.00	¥322.00	¥166.60
1925	50.00	72.70	50.00	50.00	385.00	221.50
1926	50.00	65.80	50.90	50.00	278.50	246.10
1927	50.00	58.70	46.40	50.00	267.50	215.00
1928	50.00	57.00	50.20	50.00	280.50	245.00
1929	50.00	53.90	39.30	50.00	274.50	225.50
1930	50.00	41.90	15.50	50.00	222.50	119.00
1931	50.00	24.70	14.00	50.00	220.50	138.90
1932	50.00	24.30	12.70	50.00	273.90	184.60
1933	50.00	33.90	13.40	50.00	267.90	168.10

Year	Meiji Life Insurance Company Shares			Nippon Oil Company Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥100.00	¥ 618.00	¥ 618.00	¥50.00	¥ 87.50	¥67.50
1925	100.00	1,650.00	506.00	50.00	101.50	83.50
1926	100.00	2,320.00	1,510.00	50.00	99.30	65.00
1927	100.00	2,136.00	1,600.00	50.00	70.30	46.20
1928	100.00	2,055.00	1,620.00	50.00	68.40	56.00
1929	100.00	2,005.00	1,680.00	50.00	68.30	40.00
1930	100.00	1,680.00	1,160.00	50.00	44.10	20.40
1931	100.00	1,700.00	1,280.00	50.00	44.00	27.80
1932	100.00	1,570.00	1,035.00	50.00	58.60	36.60
1933	100.00	1,300.00	1,100.00	50.00	66.50	47.10

Year	Keihin Electric Tramway Company Shares			Tokyo Stock Exchange Shares		
	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest	Paid-up	Highest	Lowest
1924	¥50.00	¥64.80	¥53.30	¥50.00	¥134.80	¥104.00
1925	50.00	69.80	62.20	50.00	184.50	111.00
1926	50.00	76.60	64.00	50.00	209.00	166.00
1927	50.00	72.70	51.60	50.00	200.00	140.00
1928	50.00	61.20	54.20	50.00	204.50	169.00
1929	50.00	56.30	50.40	50.00	168.00	111.00
1930	50.00	52.70	28.00	50.00	121.00	96.80
1931	50.00	41.50	34.00	50.00	169.50	104.50
1932	50.00	40.80	31.80	50.00	209.00	129.50
1933	50.00	39.50	31.30	50.00	218.00	128.00

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YIELDS OF STOCKS AND DEBENTURES

(Prepared by Hypothec Bank of Japan)

	Leading stocks 65 kinds		Bonds and debentures				
	Average yields	Index numbers (1914 July, 100)	Gov't bonds	Municipal bonds	Hypothec Bank deb.	Agr. and Ind. Bank deb.	Corporate deb. (20)
1914	7.43%	100	—	—	—	—	—
1919	7.51	104	—	—	—	—	—
1921	9.41	131	6.13%	7.30%	7.38%	8.41%	8.21%
1922	8.87	123	6.26	7.30	7.66	8.37	8.41
1923	8.72	121	6.11	7.37	7.84	8.59	8.74
1924	8.68	121	6.17	7.67	8.05	8.77	8.97
1925	7.80	108	6.03	7.26	7.82	8.35	8.17
1926	6.99	97	5.90	6.82	7.13	7.64	7.70
1927	7.13	99	5.67	6.50	6.79	7.43	7.45
1928	6.17	86	5.16	5.87	6.14	6.86	6.79
1929	6.85	95	5.08	5.88	5.98	6.43	6.43
1930	8.10	113	5.37	6.09	6.17	6.43	6.54
1931	6.82	95	5.40	5.91	5.87	6.29	6.49
1932	6.01	83	5.59	6.07	6.00	6.44	6.84
					Bank deb.		
1933	5.03	—	4.812	5.334	5.443		5.96
1934 (June)	4.68	—	4.442	4.928	4.974		5.43

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

1931 and 1932

(In ¥1,000)

	1931	1932
Agricultural products	1,199,964	1,615,413
Horticultural products		
Fruits, vegetables, etc.	231,382	237,444
Tobacco-leaf, rape-seed, etc.	77,131	78,890
Cocoons, tea and others	320,180	339,829
Domestic animals	170,882	169,317
Forestry products	199,153	205,446
Marine products; fish, etc.	246,231	240,873
Marine products; manure, oil.	130,708	130,662
Mine products	436,595	512,737
Textiles	2,195,562	2,551,285
Ceramic products	196,349	220,209
Foodstuffs	808,784	859,411
Metal industry products	307,996	400,527
Machines	443,341	543,841
Chemicals	722,377	839,693
Wooden manufactures	237,938	242,197
Other industrial products	345,401	401,217
Tobacco	83,062	84,183
Total	8,353,036	9,674,126

TOTAL VALUE OF PRODUCTS OF ALL FACTORIES IN JAPAN IN 1933

Production of Factories where more than five operatives are employed ("Factories Statistics" Published by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

(In ¥1,000)

	1933
Spinning and textile products	2,914,155
Metallic products	878,691
Machinery and instruments	888,195
Ceramic products	220,743
Chemical products	1,288,083
Lumber and wood work	189,520
Printing and binding	181,588
Foodstuff industry	1,017,037
Miscellaneous industries	293,348
Total value	7,871,364

Production of Minor Factories There are many industries in Japan which are engaged in by innumerable minor factories where less than 5 persons

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are employed and which do not come under the control of the Factory Law. Accordingly, most of the industrial statistics given in the following chapters are of factories where more than 5 persons are employed. The Ministry of Commerce and Industry gives statistics on more than 20 kinds of industry in which the largest numbers of such minor factories are engaged. The following table includes most of them, the production of which alone reaches almost one-tenth of the total production given above.

VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION IN FACTORIES WHERE LESS THAN 5 PERSONS ARE EMPLOYED IN 1933

(In Yen)

	Production of the factories where more than 5 persons are employed	Production of all factories	Production of the factories where less than 5 persons are employed
Cotton tissues	569,708,368	704,893,409	135,185,041
Silk tissue, and cotton and silk mixtures	212,239,336	501,095,264	288,855,928
Hemp tissue, and hemp and cloth mixtures	15,403,370	15,477,055	73,685
Woolen fabrics and mixtures	177,096,362	201,137,749	24,041,387
Knitted goods	50,068,519	73,476,026	23,407,507
Hats and caps	14,946,708	16,142,308	1,195,600
Ceramics:			
Tablewares	15,978,567	46,204,776	30,226,209
Furnitures	1,843,717	14,910,054	13,066,337
Building materials	5,283,982	6,131,345	847,363
Insulator	3,752,648	5,886,047	2,133,399
Toys	245,885	2,003,568	1,857,683
Others and Total	33,138,607	85,246,500	52,107,893
Roof tiles	4,028,838	22,237,415	18,208,577
Lacquerwares	977,262	29,571,665	28,594,403
Leather and manufactures	17,293,568	57,335,159	40,041,591
Starch	4,692,729	11,258,550	6,565,821
Bamboo articles	1,858,279	9,874,741	8,016,462
Wood work	73,554,536	166,247,027	92,692,491
Cane-work	578,764	1,980,339	1,401,575
Wicker-work	281,717	2,758,623	2,476,906
Brushes	3,594,092	5,064,805	1,470,713
Japanese mats	86,400	10,717,645	10,631,245
Other mats and hanamushiro	1,536,948	6,452,920	4,915,972
Straw and wood-shaving plaits	1,358,318	4,997,996	3,639,678
Total	1,182,442,721	1,925,965,196	743,522,475
Other	6,688,921,728	—	—
Grand total	7,871,364,449	—	—

NUMBER OF APPLICATIONS AND GRANTS FOR PATENTS, DESIGNS, ETC. ACCORDING TO NATIONALITIES, IN 1933

(Compiled by the Patent Bureau of the Department of Commerce and Industry)

Nationalities	Patents		Designs		Trade Marks	
	Applications	Grants	Applications	Grants	Applications	Grants
Japanese	12,110	4,306	9,388	4,044	22,986	11,864
British	216	124	12	1	210	145
U. S. A.	354	344	12	8	195	174
German	700	436	8	—	192	145
French	122	66	—	1	53	41
Italian	45	20	—	—	5	3
Dutch	31	17	9	5	283	122
Swiss	135	86	1	1	47	58
Swedish	31	33	—	—	6	4
Norwegian	10	7	—	—	—	1

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Nationalities	Patents		Designs		Trade Marks	
	Applications	Grants	Applications	Grants	Applications	Grants
Austrian	36	7	—	—	2	12
Hungarian	12	4	—	—	1	—
Chinese	—	1	—	—	17	5
Spanish	23	8	—	—	2	2
Belgian	12	7	—	—	3	1
Danish	14	9	—	—	3	—
Russian	1	—	—	—	—	—
Australian	9	—	—	—	1	—
Canadian	—	2	—	—	7	2
Poles	13	6	—	—	—	—
Czechoslovakian	12	8	—	—	9	6
Others	18	11	2	2	20	45
Total Foreigners	1,794	1,196	39	18	1,056	766
Grand total	13,904	5,502	9,427	4,057	24,042	12,630

Nationalities	Utility Models		Total	
	Applications	Grants	Applications	Grants
Japanese	32,502	15,680	76,986	35,894
British	34	27	472	297
U. S. A.	118	77	679	598
German	157	122	1,052	708
French	10	10	185	118
Italian	4	5	54	28
Dutch	6	3	329	147
Swiss	5	5	88	150
Swedish	1	4	38	41
Norwegian	—	—	10	8
Austrian	2	—	40	19
Hungarian	—	—	13	4
Chinese	1	—	18	6
Spanish	—	—	25	10
Belgian	1	2	16	10
Danish	—	—	17	9
Russian	—	—	1	—
Australian	—	—	10	—
Canadian	—	1	7	5
Poles	—	—	13	6
Czechoslovakian	—	1	21	15
Others	2	3	42	61
Total Foreigners	341	260	3,230	2,235
Grand total	32,843	15,940	80,216	38,129

Prices

Prices in 1934 The price level which touched its ceiling in the earlier days of 1933 remained stationary for the full following two years. It is true that the wholesale price index numbers passed through some up and down changes in the course of 1933, nothing worth mentioning occurred in 1934 despite that in the last quarter of that year a slight increase of about 8% took place, as compared with the corresponding period of 1933 principally on account of relief measures carried out by the Government, but, as the year drew by, this 8% divergence diminished to 2%, and in the average wholesale price levels of the two years the difference counted only 4%. This difference can be counted as nothing if the price increases in rice and building materials which were not natural are excluded in the calculation

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PRICE INDEX NUMBERS BY CATEGORY

(Compiled by the Asahi)

	Nov. 1931	1932 in average	1933 in average	1934 in average	Comparison with the previous year %
Grain	100	122	135	152	13
Other foodstuffs	146	161	178	177	(—) 1
Fabrics	86	111	133	131	(—) 2
Metal manufactures	74	102	111	131	18
Fuel	137	137	147	156	6
Manures	57	73	81	80	(—) 1
Building materials	142	154	171	192	12
Miscellaneous articles	96	115	136	128	(—) 6

In the above figures two factors stand out conspicuously. The one is the intensified disharmony in the price movements of various articles. Though in the two years under review all made upward bounds, in the course of 1934 only 4 out of the 8 categories had advanced continuously, the rest being on the decline. Of these four that had recorded a continuous rise metal articles and fuel reflect the brisk condition of the industries for military supplies. In building materials is echoed the shortness in their supplies due to the typhoon and flood disasters in the Kwansai districts, and rice is indicative of the Government policy mentioned elsewhere. Of the four that presented the falling tendency foodstuffs and miscellaneous commodities manifest a decline in the general purchasing power, manures depression of the agrarian communities, and fabrics anti-Japanese goods measures adopted by foreign governments and the trend of overproduction at home. The other specific point worth noticing is the reversion that took place among consumption and production commodities in their respective movements. In the years prior to 1933 the rise in the average price movement was due to the rise of prices of production commodities. In 1934, however, it was due to the upward trend in the price ranges of rice and other consumption goods.

Wholesale Price The post war general trend of prices of commodities in Japan was by no means an exception from the world wide collapsing of commodity prices which, however, had been checked first in December, 1931, by the prohibition of the free export of gold and secondly by the passage of emergency expenditure budgets for the Manchurian incident and relief measures at the two different extraordinary sessions of the Diet both held in 1932. The reactionary rise of prices attained its climax in January, 1933, and the price movement in 1933 and 1934 passed without much fluctuation. In January, 1934, the index number (December, 1929 taken as 100) of the wholesale price was 95 which moved up slightly to 96 in February owing to the enhancement in the price of fibre stuffs. In March a slight setback was seen and until June 95 was the ruling price range. In August prospective bad crops and the increased activity in the munition industries restored the index to 96 which was further pushed upward to 98 in the latter part of September in consequence of the typhoon and flood disasters. In October it went further up to 99. In November a slight setback occurred with the index number of 98, Decem-

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ber passed without change, a gain of 3.2% as compared with January.

Comparison with Retail Prices From January to February the wholesale index was 95-96, but during the same period retail prices were indexed at 88. From March to July the wholesale price level was 1.1% lower than in February and yet solid at 95. In contrast to this wholesale price situation the retail price index was 89 in March a rise of 1.1% as compared with February and remained with the same index number till May, and in June it was lowered to 86, a decrease of 3.4 % compared with the previous month. This was due to the increased seasonal marketing of vegetables, abundant fishery harvests, etc. July saw a reactional advance to 87. In August the prospective bad crops were quickly reflected in the enhanced price range by 1.1% in the wholesale and 2.3% in the retail price. In September the wholesale range was 2.1% higher than in the previous month, but the retail price was slow at 89. A sharp rise, however, took place in October both in the wholesale and retail price ranges, marking a record in the price history of 1934, 99 being the index of wholesale and 91 that of retail prices. Compared to 95 and 88 in January the record index figures were an increase of 4.2% wholesale and of 3.4% for retail. December, however, saw a setback at 98 for wholesale and 89 for retail. As for the margin between the wholesale and retail prices during January it was maintained at 7 and in June it was widened to 9. In October it was diminished to 8 which was again widened to 9 in November and was so maintained to the end of the year.

Wholesale according to Kinds Looking at the price situation in 1934 through 8 major kinds of commodities, viz., food stuffs, fibre goods, metal articles, building materials, industrial chemicals, fertilizers, fuel and other miscellaneous goods, with the average price of December, 1929, taken as 100, metals experienced the greatest fluctuation, next come building materials, food stuffs and industrial chemicals, while goods which had fluctuated least were fuel, fertilizers, miscellaneous goods, and articles of fibre in order. Metal goods were quiet at 108 in January and February and, moving since then slowly upward to 112 of August and further to 122 of September and to 123 of October, but visited by a slight reaction in the following two months closing the year at 113. Building materials were low in January at 98, taking about the same trend with metal goods for the seven months following. In August a slight gain was recorded at 101 and in September a further addition was made at 106 which was maintained in October but a setback took place in the remaining two months at 105 and 104 respectively. The gains and losses in the building materials and metals since September were directly and largely traceable to the effects of the typhoon and flood disasters. Food stuffs were slack for the first several months of the year at 86, became somewhat firm in May at 88 but in June a slight reaction set in owing to the increased marketing of wheat and salt salmons, but for the last three months of the year the prices showed again an upward tendency and the index number was 88 in August, 90 in September and 93 in October which was maintained throughout the rest of the year. Industrial chemicals were sluggish at 101 in January but at 89 for months until October when boom took place in anilin oil and pushed up to 94 which, however, was again lowered to 89. Fibre stuffs, though slow at 91 in January, a slight gain was re-

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corded in February reflecting the seasonal recovery of the silk market and the firm tone in the cotton producing centres but another ebbing occurred in March which lasted until May. In June, however, reaction again took place influenced by the revival of demands for cotton goods in foreign markets and the enhanced firm tone in the cotton producing centres, with a result that the index rose to 94, which, however, failed to remain firm and lowered to 91 in November and 92 in December. Fertilizers were weak at 88 in January, and small ups and downs were seen until June when, owing to the marketing of the new rape oil cakes and the seasonal stoppage in the demand for superphosphate of lime, it fell to 85 and further to 84 in July. In August, however, reaction occurred influenced by the news of the prospective bad corps of beans in North Manchuria and the index became firm at 87 which was further pushed upward to 88 and 89 in September and October on account of the increased demand in Germany for bean cakes. In November it was pushed backward to 88, but in December the former basis of 89 was regained. Miscellaneous articles were optimistic at 110-112 in January and February influenced by the change of the raw rubber market situation toward the gainful condition. A slight setback took place in June, but in July the loss was regained and a firm tone was maintained until October when it went to 114 which, however, again fell to 112 in November and further to 111 in December. Fuel was most slow in fluctuation at 93 in January, 92 in June but reactive at 93 in July owing to the successful conclusion of the gasolene price agreement among the six petroleum companies and the Matsukata-Soviet oil interests which was further enhanced to the 95 basis in October and so remained until the end of the year.

Important Imports & Exports As regards the trend of the wholesale index number of important export and import goods based upon the average prices of December, 1929, as 100, the index of imports was 106 in January, 1934, which gained one point in February and remained at 107 until May. In August, September and October it was enhanced to 108 and 110 but in the following month it paled off to 107. As for the exports, inasmuch as the bulk of the articles are fibre stuffs, the price level of these goods was, as a matter of natural consequence, intimately affected by the up and down prosperity movement of the spinning world. In January it was 91 and stationary for the two following months at 92. In April it went down to 91, but soon reaction took place and until June it was at 93. A shrinkage set in in July and was weak at 92 for two months. In September, however, an upward reaction took place and the new level was 95 at which the prices were maintained until the close of December.

Comparison with Leading Countries In turning to the wholesale index table (July, 1914, taken as 100) of Britain and the United States in comparison with Japan the effect of the devaluation of the dollar currency in the United States well reflected in the other two countries, but it soon ceased and the declining tendency with occasional slight recoveries was the ruling feature for the latter months of the first half of 1934. In the latter half of the year, however, the sudden acute rise in the agricultural staples in the United States followed the upward turn of the price level of other general commodities, and in August the index became firm at 109. Prices in Britain also followed the step of

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American goods looking for a prosperous time at 101, the highest record in the year. Japan surpassed the two countries in the race of the price recovery and was not weak at 166 in October reflecting the bad crops and the typhoon and flood disasters. Reaction, however, set in in all the three countries. In Japan it was felt as early as in November, 163 being the index for December. In Britain 99 was the ruling December price level. In the United States the December figure was 109. After all, in comparing the January index figures of the three countries to those of December, 1934, it is shown that the United States had gained 5.3 per cent. and Japan 3.1 per cent. while Britain remained stationary. This, as compared with the pre-war level, was a gain of 63 per cent. in the case of Japan, of 9 per cent. in the case of the United States, but a fall of 1 per cent. in the case of Britain.

Taking the average wholesale price of December, 1929, as 100, the wholesale index numbers in Tokyo and other 13 leading cities of Japan in 1934 were characterized with slight waves for the first half of the year but with the new upward tide incoming in the month of August, recess taking place in November and December. In January Osaka and Fukuoka were the cities where the index at 96 was in the highest point in comparison with other cities. Tokyo and Hiroshima stood next at 95. Kyoto was the third at 94, Nagoya and Niigata the fourth at 93, Kanazawa the fifth at 92. Kobe, Yokohama and Kochi the sixth at 90 and Sendai and Otaru the seventh at 88. In December of the same year these index figures were changed to 100 for Osaka, 98 for Tokyo, 97 for Kyoto, 96 for Kobe, Nagoya, Hiroshima, Fukuoka and Niigata, 93 for Kanazawa, Otaru and Kochi, 93 for Yokohama and 90 for Sendai. The rising percentage was 8 per cent. for Otaru, 6.7 per cent. for Kobe, 5.6 per cent. for Kochi, 4.2 per cent. for Osaka, 3.8 per cent. for Yokohama and Kanazawa, 3.2 per cent. for Tokyo, Kyoto, Nagoya and Niigata, 2.3 per cent. for Sendai and 1.1 per cent. for Hiroshima.

Retail Price Keeping pace with the progress of the inflation business since December 1931, the month in which the gold embargo was instituted, the price movement in Japan was, as a whole, steadily and acutely upward, but a standstill set in in the early months of 1933, but it does not mean that the whole situation was reversed. The retail price index number in 1934 in comparison with the average retail price level of December, 1929, taken as 100, was about the same with that in the previous year, though slightly high. In going over month after month fluctuations it is revealed that during the first half of the year 1934 the upward movement was insignificant, the addition being only 0.4 per cent. In June owing to the seasonal big fall in the prices of foodstuffs the index number showed a decline of 2.8 per cent. compared with May. In July, however, as prices of most goods excepting fuel made an upward turn, the index was recovered to the 87.2 basis, a rise of 1.3 per cent. compared with the previous month. In August another addition was made to 88.7 which was 1.7 per cent. higher than in July. This rise was due to the prospective bad crops and the firm tone of building materials. September was in a state of recess. In October, however, the typhoon disasters in the Kwansai districts enhanced the price index to 90.9, a record in the current year. This price enhancement was, how-

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ever, temporary in nature and in the following month with the needed recovery works accomplished a sharp drop took place and the index was forced down to 89.4 in November and to 89.3 in December.

Retail Price according to Kinds If goods are classified into food stuffs, clothes and accessories, fuel, building materials and miscellaneous goods, the range of fluctuation of price in 1934 was narrow, only October and November, in which the after-effect of the typhoon disasters was most strongly felt, being exceptional months. The index number of food stuffs was 87.7 in January but a little firmer during the following three months. In May it was 88.5 but in June it fell to 83.5, a drop of 5.6 per cent. compared with the previous month. In July, however, on account of the seasonal rise in the prices of rice, fishes, vegetables, etc., it went up to 85.1 and in August it further rose to 87.3, a rise of 2.6 per cent. September remained quiet and in October another bound of 1.6 per cent. was recorded which, however, fell away in November. In December it was quiet with a rise of 0.7 per cent. As regards clothes and accessories, no price fluctuation had practically occurred for the first five months in 1934. In June, however, a slight advance of 1.5 per cent. was made. Since then only 0.3 per cent. rise was shown until October. In November a drop of 0.7 per cent. occurred on account of reduced cost of raw materials.

Fuel was heavy until February on account of over-supplies, but in March as stocks became gradually scarce a slight reaction took place firm at 90.9 which was a rise of 0.7 per cent. compared with the previous month. But from April it moved downward until July. The downward movement, however, was checked in August, and in November the demand season caused the price to turn upward abruptly, the index of that month being 91.9 which was a rise of 2.8 per cent. compared with the July scale. In December on account of the abundant stocks the price index lost 0.3 per cent. Building materials occupy the highest position of the five kinds of goods the average index in the year being 105.1. In January it was 99.7 which, taking a straight course of advancement, rose in October to 117.0. This rise of 17.4 per cent. compared with January was apparently due to the typhoon disasters that occurred in the Western Japan. As, however, supplies came quickly to meet the demands it was pressed down to 110.0 in November and to 107.1 in December.

Miscellaneous articles are less lively in reflecting the ebb and flow of the general economic condition. So the index number of these stuffs was feebly stationary for the first four months of the year and in May on account of the cheapened prices of raw materials and the decreased sales of articles it dropped by 0.6 per cent. June marked the entrance into a brisk period rising in July by 0.7 per cent. and in October the index reached the 88.0 basis, an increase of 3.8 per cent. compared with the previous month. It proved, however, to be the top of the rising tide and in November it was on the ebb losing 1.7 per cent. in that month and 1.5 per cent. in December.

In 13 Cities The trend of the average price index numbers in 1934 with the average price in December, 1929, taken as 100, was, as a whole, changeless, only a 2 per cent. gain having been recorded. The figure was highest in October at 90.9, the gain being 5.6 per cent. compared with 86.1 in June, the lowest index in the year. As regards the price move-

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ment in various cities, Niigata gained 3.3 per cent., Sendai 2.9 per cent., Otaru 2.6 per cent., Fukuoka 2.5 per cent., Kanazawa and Kochi 2.4 per cent., Hiroshima 2.1 per cent., Osaka and Nagoya 2 per cent., and Kyoto, Tokyo and Kobe 1.7 per cent. to 0.5 per cent. Only Yokohama remained stationary. The average price index numbers in these 13 cities run as follows: Kanazawa 94.0, Hiroshima 92.0, Kochi 91.0, Otaru 90.9, Sendai 90.8, Tokyo 89.1, Kyoto 88.4, Nagoya 88.2, Niigata 88.1, Fukuoka 87.6, Kobe 86.8, Osaka 85.5 and Yokohama 82.8.

INDEX NUMBER OF PRICES

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Comparison of Wholesale and Retail Prices

(Base on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1930	Wholesale	98	97	95	94	92	88	85	85	83	80	79	78
	Retail	99	98	96	96	95	92	89	89	88	84	82	82
1931	Wholesale	77	78	78	77	75	74	74	73	71	69	69	73
	Retail	83	83	82	83	81	78	78	79	78	77	76	77
1932	Wholesale	78	79	78	76	74	73	74	80	85	87	93	97
	Retail	80	80	80	79	77	75	75	77	80	81	83	86
1933	Wholesale	98	95	94	93	94	95	95	95	97	97	96	94
	Retail	89	87	87	87	86	85	85	86	87	88	88	88
1934	Wholesale	95	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	98	99	98	98
	Retail	88	88	89	89	89	86	87	89	89	91	89	89

WHOLESALE PRICE OF PRINCIPAL TRADE GOODS

(Base on December, 1929=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1930	Export	96	97	93	91	87	79	77	79	78	76	76	77
	Import	97	95	93	92	91	88	85	85	83	80	79	77
1931	Export	76	77	76	74	70	70	72	69	66	63	64	67
	Import	76	76	77	76	75	73	73	71	69	68	68	73
1932	Export	72	74	73	70	68	66	68	80	86	84	91	94
	Import	79	80	80	78	77	77	78	86	93	97	104	106
1933	Export	92	89	88	88	91	95	95	95	97	95	93	90
	Import	109	106	107	105	106	107	107	106	107	107	106	105
1934	Export	91	92	92	91	92	93	92	92	95	95	95	95
	Import	106	107	106	106	106	107	107	108	110	110	107	107

WHOLESALE PRICES ACCORDING TO KINDS

(Base on December, 1929=100)

1930

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec
Foodstuffs	98	98	97	96	94	92	92	92	89	81	78	77
Fibre goods	97	96	93	92	88	78	73	75	75	72	72	72
Metal articles	98	96	94	92	89	88	86	84	82	80	80	79
Building materials	99	96	94	93	93	91	89	87	86	85	84	83
Industrial chemicals	99	98	98	97	97	95	93	91	90	90	88	86
Fertilizers	99	97	95	95	91	88	87	85	81	76	71	69
Fuel	99	98	97	95	94	93	91	90	88	87	86	86
Miscellaneous	98	98	97	96	93	92	89	87	85	84	84	83
Average	98	97	95	94	92	88	85	85	83	80	79	78

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1931

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	76	76	76	75	75	74	74	74	72	71	72	75
Fibre goods	72	74	75	72	67	68	70	66	62	58	59	63
Metal articles	77	76	76	76	74	73	72	71	69	68	67	73
Building materials	83	84	87	88	86	84	83	83	83	82	80	83
Industrial chemicals	85	84	82	81	81	81	80	78	77	76	75	77
Fertilizers	70	70	73	75	74	72	70	67	64	63	64	72
Fuel	86	85	84	83	82	81	80	79	79	79	79	80
Miscellaneous	82	82	81	81	80	77	77	75	73	72	73	77
Average	77	78	78	77	75	74	74	73	71	69	69	73

1932

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	79	80	79	77	76	75	76	79	83	82	87	91
Fibre goods	70	71	70	64	61	60	63	77	84	84	92	95
Metal articles	79	79	80	78	78	78	79	85	95	103	114	114
Building materials	85	86	85	84	82	82	81	83	87	91	92	97
Industrial chemicals	78	80	81	81	79	78	78	78	80	84	91	104
Fertilizers	82	84	83	77	73	70	68	77	86	86	96	100
Fuel	81	81	81	80	79	77	76	76	79	80	82	86
Miscellaneous	84	86	86	86	85	84	83	86	91	96	100	104
Average	78	79	78	76	74	73	74	80	85	87	93	97

1933

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	92	89	87	87	88	87	87	86	87	87	88	87
Fibre goods	92	84	82	82	86	92	93	94	98	96	93	90
Metal articles	119	118	121	116	113	112	113	111	112	114	111	108
Building materials	101	100	98	95	94	94	95	97	98	98	98	98
Industrial chemicals	112	115	114	113	112	111	110	108	108	105	104	102
Fertilizers	99	95	90	89	87	90	87	85	86	87	88	88
Fuel	90	91	91	91	90	90	91	90	91	91	92	93
Miscellaneous	110	110	108	107	106	106	108	108	108	111	111	110
Average	98	95	94	93	94	95	95	95	97	97	96	94

1934

	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	86	87	87	87	88	86	85	88	90	93	93	93
Fibre goods	91	93	93	92	91	94	93	93	93	92	91	92
Metal articles	108	108	109	110	110	110	111	112	122	123	115	113
Building materials	98	98	99	100	100	100	100	101	106	106	105	104
Industrial chemicals	101	99	96	95	94	92	91	90	89	89	94	89
Fertilizers	88	89	88	88	88	85	84	87	88	89	88	89
Fuel	93	93	93	92	92	92	93	93	94	95	95	95
Miscellaneous	110	112	112	111	111	110	112	113	114	114	112	111
Average	95	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	98	99	98	98

COMPARISON BETWEEN JAPAN AND GREAT BRITAIN, AND THE U. S. A.

(Base on July, 1914=100)

		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1930	Japan	165	163	160	158	154	147	143	143	140	134	132	131
	Great Britain	130	127	126	123	122	119	117	115	111	109	107	104
	U. S. A.	132	129	128	126	124	121	120	120	118	116	113	109
1931	Japan	130	131	131	130	126	125	125	122	119	116	116	122
	Great Britain	100	100	100	99	96	96	94	94	98	99	100	99
	U. S. A.	107	105	106	102	99	101	101	98	95	93	91	89
1932	Japan	131	133	132	127	124	122	124	134	144	146	156	163
	Great Britain	99	101	99	95	94	89	91	94	97	94	94	92
	U. S. A.	96	84	82	79	77	77	78	82	84	80	79	78

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		Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1933	Japan	165	159	157	155	157	159	159	159	162	162	161	158
	Great Britain	92	91	90	90	96	98	99	99	98	97	95	97
	U. S. A.	75	73	75	80	92	96	104	108	104	102	101	101
1934	Japan	158	160	160	159	159	159	159	161	165	166	164	163
	Great Britain	99	100	99	99	99	99	100	101	99	99	97	99
	U. S. A.	104	106	105	105	105	106	107	109	109	107	107	109

RETAIL PRICES ACCORDING TO KINDS

1930

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	99.2	98.8	97.5	97.1	96.9	93.3	91.3	91.3	90.0	85.3	82.1	82.7
Clothes and accessories	98.4	95.9	93.5	92.3	90.8	87.4	83.3	81.5	81.0	79.5	79.4	78.4
Fuel	99.3	99.4	98.7	96.9	96.1	95.1	94.0	93.0	92.0	91.3	91.1	90.6
Building materials	97.6	96.0	94.3	92.1	90.9	89.7	86.4	84.9	83.6	82.6	82.1	81.3
Miscellaneous	98.8	97.8	96.6	95.1	93.7	92.3	90.1	88.9	87.7	86.1	84.7	83.9
Average	98.9	98.0	96.4	95.5	94.9	91.9	89.3	88.7	87.7	84.4	82.4	82.4

1931

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	83.7	84.2	83.1	84.3	82.7	78.8	79.5	80.9	79.7	79.0	77 3	79.1
Clothes and accessories	77.6	76.9	77.0	77.1	75.2	73.0	73.2	72.0	70.8	67.9	67.9	69.3
Fuel	90.0	89.6	89.0	88.4	86.7	86.1	84.7	84.7	84.7	84.6	84.7	84.9
Building materials	81.3	81.3	83.0	86.3	84.7	82.3	81.1	80.7	80.1	79.0	77.4	81.3
Miscellaneous	83.1	82.6	79.4	79.7	78.8	77.4	76.6	76.0	75.6	74.9	73.8	73.7
Average	82.6	82.7	81.9	82.8	81.2	78.2	78.4	78.9	77.9	76.7	75.6	77.1

1932

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	82.0	82.4	81.3	80.8	79.8	77.2	78.0	79.7	81.8	82.4	84.3	86.4
Clothes and accessories	71.6	72.0	72.6	70.6	68.6	66 8	66.4	67.7	75.6	76.0	78.7	81.7
Fuel	86.0	85.4	84.6	84.1	82.4	81.3	80.3	80.1	81.3	82.0	82.9	84.4
Building materials	83.4	85.1	85.9	84.1	81.3	79.1	78.7	79.0	84.9	88.3	94 1	98.3
Miscellaneous	75.2	76.0	77.0	77.1	75.6	74.7	74.1	74.2	75.7	77.3	80.9	83.3
Average	79.6	80.1	79.6	78.8	77.4	75.2	75.4	76.7	80.1	81.0	83.4	85.9

1933

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	89.3	87.0	86.9	87.3	87.4	85.0	85.5	85.6	86.5	86.9	87.7	86.6
Clothes and accessories	82.3	80.8	79.7	78.9	79.3	80.9	81.8	82.6	86.0	87.7	87.1	86.3
Fuel	87.6	88.0	87.7	87.9	87.4	87.0	86.4	87.0	87.7	89.0	90.4	91.0
Building materials	107.9	106.4	104.4	100.3	96.6	95.0	95.0	96.1	99.3	102.3	101.1	99.7
Miscellaneous	87.3	89.0	88.8	87.2	84.9	83.4	83.0	82.8	82.9	84.0	84.2	83.8
Average	88.9	87.3	86 9	86.5	86.1	84.8	85.2	85.6	87.1	88.0	88.4	87.5

1934

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Foodstuffs	87.7	87.9	88.3	89.0	88.5	83.5	85.1	87.3	87.5	88.9	87.5	88.1
Clothes and accessories	85 6	86.4	86.2	86.2	86.4	87.7	87.8	88.0	88.4	88.6	88.0	87.4
Fuel	90.7	90.3	90.9	90.3	90.1	89.6	89.4	89.9	90.7	91.7	91.9	91.6
Building materials	99.7	99.9	101.6	102.6	102.1	102.3	104.9	106.3	108.4	117.0	110.0	107.1
Miscellaneous	83.3	83.4	83.4	83.2	82.7	82.9	83.4	84.1	84.8	88.0	86.6	85.3
Average	87.9	88.2	88.6	88.9	88.6	86.1	87.2	88.7	89.1	90.9	89.4	89.3

Commercial and Industrial Bodies

Important Commodities Guilds At the end of 1933 there were 818 Important Commodities Guilds representing 111 kinds of enterprises in Japan, a loss of 12 in number and gain of 1 in kind as compared with the previous year. Those which headed the list were textiles with 117, rice and cereals 64, lumber 48, soy and

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"miso" 36. Federation of these guilds numbered 29.

Industrial Guilds At the end of 1933 the number of Industrial Guilds was 344 representing 52 kinds of enterprises, a gain of 15 (78%) in number and 16 (44%) in kind as compared with the previous year. Cotton textiles head the list with 77, silk, textiles come next with 31 followed by ceramics with 28 and ice manufacturers with 21, etc. There were 23 federations of these guilds.

Export Guilds In the same period, the number of Export Guilds was 45 representing 12 kinds of commodities, a gain of 15 (50%) in number, while the number of kind remained stationary.

Chambers of Commerce and Industry At the end of 1933 there were 97 Chambers of Commerce and Industry in Japan, with the total membership of 3,435 elected by 110,530 voters, an increase of 3 in the number of chambers, 107 in members and 10,116 in votes.

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CHAPTER XI

FOREIGN TRADE

History of Development

Four Periods Japan's foreign trade for the last 70 years can be divided into four periods, namely, the first, before the Sino-Japanese War; the second, after the Sino-Japanese War to the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War; the third, after the Russo-Japanese War to the outbreak of the World War; and the fourth, the period following the World War. In the early part of the Meiji Era Japan's foreign trade was insignificant, mostly being done through foreign firms, but several Japanese trading concerns were soon founded, among them being the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, established in 1876, the Osaka Gumi, Morimura Gumi, Kwansai Boyeki Shokai and others. The Yokohama Specie Bank was founded in 1880 to serve as a monetary organ for traders engaged in foreign trade. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha and Osaka Shosen Kaisha were established in 1875 and 1874 respectively to carry on overseas marine transportation. The Tokyo Marine Insurance Company was founded in 1878. Thus important organizations for foreign trade were brought into being. During this first period Japan's economic conditions were primitive and her pursuits mostly agricultural. Her export volume between the first year of Meiji, 1868, and the 18th year was small—an average of one yen of exports per head of population. The import value was about the same. Even in 1893 the export and import totals were not more than ¥80,000,000 each. The Sino-Japanese War was an epoch in the national destiny of Japan. Foreign trade received a great fillip and considerable development was made. In 1894, when the war broke out between Japan and China, exports and imports were each more than ¥100,000,000, and in 1903, the end of the second period, exports amounted to ¥289,000,000 and imports ¥317,000,000.

The Navigation Law The navigation encouragement law was promulgated in 1896 and this accelerated the inauguration of overseas navigation by Japanese shipping companies. In connection with a revised tariff policy export duties were abolished and import duties on industrial materials were either abolished or reduced. Bar silver (Japan did not become a gold standard country until 1897) experienced a sharp drop before and after the War and the export trade was greatly stimulated thereby. In 1899, as a result of repeated efforts of the Government over many years, the trade conventions with foreign Powers were revised and the foreign settlement system for foreigners was replaced by one of mixed residence. Until 1887, about 87 per cent. of Japan's export trade and 88 per cent. of her import trade was handled by foreign merchants. In 1900, the foreigners' transactions in exports were 63 per cent. and Japanese transactions 37 per cent., the former's import transactions had decreased to 61 per cent. and Japanese transaction increased to 39 per cent. There was an excess of imports for every year of the period (1894-1903). The Russo-Japanese War imparted a far greater

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impetus to the country's foreign trade than the Sino-Japanese War, the trade sphere was widened still further. Foreign capital flowed into the country for investment. Exports attained the ¥300,000,000 mark in 1904, and in 1913 they reached ¥632,000,000 and imports amounted to ¥729,000,000. One of the noteworthy events during the period was that the treaty revision of 1899 was further revised in 1901, the result being that Japan acquired perfect tariff autonomy, and was able to establish the foundation of a protective tariff policy. Industrial development resulted. In 1901, exports that went through foreign merchants were only 48 per cent., while those through Japanese merchants were 52 per cent., and imports handled by the former in the same year were 36 per cent., while those by Japanese were 64 per cent.,—a complete reversal of conditions that had existed during the early reign of Meiji.

The World War The greatest efforts on economic circles of Japan, qualitatively and quantitatively, resulted from the World War. Between 1914 and 1918, when the War was going on, Japanese economy and finance went through a sweeping change for the better and the unprecedented business boom lasted until March, 1920, when a great reaction took place. The suspension of imports into Japan by the War prompted the country to become self-sufficient in various lines of industry. Heavy demands for stores came in rapid succession from European countries. Japan became one of the principal countries of export to China, the South Seas and India, taking the place of Europe and America. The export activities and trade markets for Japanese commodities were considerably enlarged, increasing in proportion to the length of the war. Exports which totalled only ¥600,000,000 in 1914, the first year of the fourth period of the trade development of Japan, went above ¥1,100,000,000 in 1916, and in 1919 the amount exceeded ¥2,098,000,000, setting an all-time record. Imports which in 1914 were less than ¥600,000,000, increased to more than ¥1,000,000,000, in 1917 and finally reached ¥2,336,000,000 in 1920. Special mention must be made that for four years from 1916 to 1918, Japan witnessed a great excess of exports. The combined export excess for the period totalled ¥1,408,000,000. This trade prosperity naturally stimulated the shipping business. With the continued favourable trade balance, an influx of gold into Japan took place. For the seven years from 1915 to 1922 the influx of gold amounted to ¥1,180,000,000, and in addition Japan came to hold an enormous amount of specie abroad. The amount held by the Government and the Bank of Japan at the end of 1920 was ¥2,178,000,000, a record high amount for Japan. When the armistice was concluded in 1918, the heavy demand for munitions came to an end, and with the gradual restoration of European industries to their former conditions, the collapse of the Russian market through the Revolution, the exhaustion of European countries and the consequent sinking purchasing power, Japan's export trade turned for the worse during the latter half of 1920. The 1920 reaction threw Japanese economy into a great panic. Exports for 1921 made a sudden and substantial decrease to the ¥1,000,000,000 mark from the record level of ¥2,098,000,000 for 1919. Imports also went off remarkably. To make matters worse, trade reverted to the adverse balance of import excess after 1919, the largest adverse balance being in 1924 and 1925 consequent on the great Kanto earthquake and fire of 1923. Imports

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for 1924 totalled ¥2,400,000,000, going above the previous record of ¥2,336,000,000 for 1920, and in 1925 the amount attained the considerable height of ¥2,500,000,000. This remarkable gain was due to heavy imports of materials needed for reconstruction work after the earthquake and fire. The Government exempted these imports from tariff duties. Due to the adverse trade balance, specie accumulated by Japan during the War boom was taken back by foreign countries. During the last 64 years, from 1868, the first year of Meiji, to 1932, only 20 years have seen an excess of exports over imports and the remaining 44 years have experienced an excess of imports over exports.

The Trade Returns The annual foreign trade figures from 1897 to 1934, taken from the Ministry of Finance reports and excluding the foreign trade of Korea and Formosa, follow. It may be added that the values of exports prior to 1904 represent the price at ports of destination, and those for that year and subsequent years, the price and packing charges. The values of imports prior to 1899 represent the original price only and those for that year and subsequent years, the cost, packing charges, freight, insurance and all other incidental expenses incurred up to the time of the arrival at the port of destination.

Year	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of Imports over exports
	(In ¥ 1,000)			
1897	163,135	219,300	382,435	56,165
1898	165,753	277,502	443,255	111,748
1899	214,929	220,401	435,331	5,472
1900	204,429	287,261	491,691	82,831
1901	252,349	255,816	508,166	3,467
1902	258,303	271,731	530,034	13,428
1903	289,502	317,135	606,637	27,633
1904	319,260	371,360	690,621	52,099
1905	321,533	488,538	810,071	167,004
1906	423,754	418,784	842,539	4,970 (Export exc.)
1907	432,412	494,467	926,880	62,054
1908	378,245	436,257	814,503	58,011
1909	413,112	394,198	807,311	18,913 (Export exc.)
1910	458,428	464,233	922,662	5,804
1911	447,433	513,805	961,239	66,371
1912	526,981	618,992	1,145,974	92,010
1913	632,460	729,431	1,361,891	96,971
1914	591,101	595,735	1,186,837	4,634
1915	708,306	532,449	1,240,756	175,857 (Export exc.)
1916	1,127,468	756,427	1,883,896	371,040 (Export exc.)
1917	1,603,005	1,035,811	2,638,816	567,189 (Export exc.)
1918	1,962,100	1,668,143	3,630,244	293,956 (Export exc.)
1919	2,098,872	2,173,459	4,272,332	74,587
1920	1,948,394	2,336,174	4,284,569	387,780
1921	1,252,837	1,614,154	2,866,992	361,317
1922	1,637,451	1,890,308	3,527,760	252,856
1923	1,447,750	1,982,230	3,429,981	534,479
1924	1,807,034	2,453,402	4,260,437	646,367
1925	2,305,589	2,572,657	4,878,247	267,068
1926	2,004,727	2,377,484	4,422,212	332,756
1927	1,992,317	2,179,153	4,171,471	186,836
1928	1,971,955	2,196,314	4,168,270	224,359
1929	2,148,618	2,216,240	4,364,858	67,621
1930	1,469,852	1,546,070	3,015,923	76,218
1931	1,146,981	1,235,675	2,382,656	88,693
1932	1,409,992	1,481,461	2,841,453	21,469
1933	1,861,045	1,917,219	3,778,266	56,174
1934	2,171,924	2,282,601	4,454,526	110,677

TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE

	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports over Imports	Excess of Imports over Exports
	(In ¥ 1,000)			
1897	19,219	81,466		62,247
1898	86,987	42,563	44,237	
1899	11,178	20,163		8,985
1900	56,707	11,517	45,189	
1901	14,049	10,960	3,088	
1902	2,028	32,161		30,132
1903	19,001	27,807		8,806
1904	107,795	33,946	73,849	
1905	19,354	31,506		15,152
1906	25,784	47,211		21,426
1907	18,759	8,256	10,503	
1908	3,772	17,544		13,772
1909	6,584	79,587		73,003
1910	25,175	17,671	7,504	
1911	24,398	6,168	18,230	
1912	28,325	11,544	16,781	
1913	27,093	1,021	26,072	

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	Exports	Imports	Excess of Exports over Imports	Excess of Imports over Exports
		(In ¥ 1,000)		
1914	29,649	9,107	20,542	
1915	44,566	24,296	20,270	
1916	28,079	101,029		72,950
1917	153,736	392,224	238,488	
1918	937	5,016		4,079
1919	5,053	327,476	322,423	
1920	3,897	404,726	400,829	
1921		188,621		188,621
1922	2,180	1,672	508	
1923	5,465	196	5,269	
1924	6	4,109		4,103
1925	22,305	173	22,132	
1926	35,897	1,628	34,269	
1927	49,680	8,515	41,165	
1928	3,436	2,696	740	
1929	3,490	613	2,877	
1930	311,007	9,686	301,321	
1931	421,400	11,177	410,223	
1932	121,378	140	121,238	
1933	28,608	125	28,483	
1934	13,924	331	13,594	

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
			(In ¥ 1,000)			
Rice and Paddy	1,093	6,570	15,879	4,786	2,123	8,420
Green tea	11,909	8,243	8,047	7,987	8,250	8,497
Tangles and sliced tangles	3,975	3,164	1,293	2,013	1,293	2,363
Cuttlefish, dried	3,690	3,246	1,348	1,138	2,344	3,751
Isinglass, Vegetable	4,649	3,883	3,415	3,165	3,198	3,215
Mushrooms, dried	2,035	1,702	1,292	1,041	1,498	2,363
Mandarin oranges	2,836	2,116	1,251	1,579	2,388	3,471
Refined sugar	29,974	26,734	14,862	7,797	14,909	13,531
Saké	2,529	2,290	1,794	3,206	2,901	3,585
Beer	3,755	3,439	3,034	4,835	7,684	5,535
Furs	3,656	2,257	1,633	2,663	3,071	3,023
Camphor	6,199	3,109	2,944	3,541	4,445	4,603
Menthol crystal	5,170	3,475	2,984	3,689	5,283	4,556
Fish oil and Whale oil	7,766	7,961	1,943	3,233	2,528	3,306
Vegetable wax	2,255	1,870	1,154	1,177	1,139	1,258
Waste silk	8,370	3,362	466	219	216	647
Raw silk	781,040	416,646	355,393	382,366	390,901	286,793
Cotton yarn	26,755	15,032	8,510	21,546	15,712	23,424
Silk tissue (Habutaé)	30,364	15,843	6,552	6,333	6,822	8,314
Imitation nankeens undyed (gray and bleached)	7,290	3,864	420	2,166	3,720	6,475
Cotton Crêpe (gray and blenched and others)	5,978	4,412	3,435	3,869	5,157	7,583
Cotton flannel (gray, bleached and others)	17,130	14,257	7,754	10,097	11,456	12,393
Shirtings, gray and sheetings	120,389	87,448	51,241	68,035	70,657	90,762
T. Cloth (gray, bleached and others)	9,568	7,823	4,960	6,485	7,507	10,069
Drills and Jeans (gray, bleached and others)	77,818	58,773	24,606	34,096	48,458	56,702
Silk handkerchiefs	4,448	2,356	1,630	1,402	2,464	4,307
Towels, cotton	4,252	3,539	2,576	3,823	9,686	11,275
Carpets and Carpetings	4,002	2,931	2,820	3,202	5,924	5,841
Cotton undershirts and drawers, knit	29,673	23,846	16,478	20,733	31,190	31,843
European-style clothing	641	676	557	666	1,177	1,875
Paper, European-style and Japanese	26,288	27,559	20,995	14,021	17,687	20,650
Coal	23,215	21,783	15,008	13,450	14,158	10,325
Iron manufactures	15,195	14,095	10,246	14,192	26,897	35,276
Porcelain and Earthenware	36,962	27,171	19,307	22,937	35,634	41,877
Looking Glasses and Mirrors	2,505	1,618	908	1,306	2,226	2,645
Clocks, hanging and standing	2,054	1,462	689	920	2,091	3,221
Shooks	6,354	5,106	3,224	3,304	4,506	5,779
Portland cement	9,182	10,066	9,089	8,545	7,394	8,038
Straw-plaits	2,886	1,594	917	1,357	2,758	1,595
Mats and Mattings for floors	1,755	1,416	942	1,278	1,944	2,560

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	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
			(In ¥ 1,000)			
Lamps and parts thereof	9,485	8,127	7,784	12,753	15,863	15,696
Lacquered-ware	1,818	1,428	1,061	1,193	2,371	2,570
Umbrellas and Parasols	1,888	1,194	866	568	1,258	1,364
Tooth-brushes	4,110	1,454	1,416	2,005	2,950	3,235
Matches	3,715	2,965	1,408	938	3,249	2,928

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES IMPORTED

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
			(In ¥ 1,000)			
Rice and Paddy	22,781	19,583	6,971	12,164	11,521	660
Wheat	70,896	41,509	32,935	49,572	44,384	40,748
Soy beans	60,091	36,664	27,817	31,240	38,034	41,028
Sesame seeds	3,760	3,120	3,154	3,683	3,602	3,026
Cotton seeds	6,380	3,769	1,909	2,347	3,762	3,000
Wheat flour	975	2,252	470	280	118	146
Condensed milk	3,995	3,269	2,850	1,943	779	1,696
Fresh eggs	3,983	2,817	2,959	43	16	—
Sugar	31,159	25,973	15,603	3,332	12,798	9,678
Hides and Skins	10,592	7,270	5,710	6,566	11,709	14,344
Leather, Sole	1,113	592	623	235	45	54
Caustic soda, crude	6,004	5,009	5,201	3,865	1,994	1,525
Ammonium sulphate, crude	48,086	26,624	15,861	7,035	9,420	13,806
Mineral oil (excluding crude oil and heavy oil) under 0.8762 S. G.	34,682	37,866	35,993	36,533	34,773	33,358
Paraffin wax	5,425	4,363	3,853	3,952	2,602	1,632
Synthetic colours	8,942	5,809	7,285	9,066	8,060	9,147
Raw cotton, ginned	572,639	361,715	296,115	447,130	604,467	730,936
Flax, Hemp, Jute and China grass	26,047	14,258	11,944	14,939	23,187	27,461
Wool	101,815	73,609	86,145	87,559	164,190	186,381
Woollen yarn	18,736	14,148	12,429	5,112	3,020	1,708
Cocoons	1,756	947	987	301	179	52
Wild silk	261	368	1,040	610	270	226
Cotton Italians and Satin	1,063	838	518	359	337	142
Cotton velvet and Plushes	883	663	631	403	99	92
Woollen cloth and Serges	12,827	7,023	6,033	6,548	3,365	2,442
Woollen cloth and Serges mixtured with cotton	7,013	3,947	3,540	3,570	3,682	2,638
Printing paper	3,658	4,524	5,361	5,530	3,668	5,657
Phosphorite	13,454	12,011	7,213	11,007	15,374	16,677
Coal	42,978	34,203	28,268	27,358	36,657	47,192
Iron, pig	28,435	15,845	11,229	12,173	25,251	26,528
Iron, round, square and flat, T. angle, etc.	17,635	6,938	3,376	4,457	7,839	7,710
Wire, coated with base metals	2,180	443	260	125	59	34
Iron, tinned plates or sheets	19,921	15,560	8,490	13,324	22,916	25,698
Iron, plates and sheets not coated with metals	22,628	10,018	3,462	3,018	8,652	8,357
Rails	2,807	1,034	497	841	331	416
Iron, pipes and tubes	11,255	5,488	2,172	2,222	2,585	4,421
Lead, ingots and slabs	15,063	11,116	8,127	9,972	11,901	17,903
Tin, ingots and slabs	9,202	4,845	3,527	5,956	10,670	15,316
Zinc, sheets and plates	1,170	855	515	939	1,339	14,611
Glass, plates and sheets (unsilvered)	4,386	3,652	2,665	3,128	2,967	3,176
Rolling stocks and parts thereof	1,420	324	132	74	47	65
Automobiles and parts thereof	33,608	20,773	16,329	14,821	13,871	32,302
Cycles and parts thereof	2,842	1,563	1,153	795	621	584
Steam boilers and engines	2,276	3,124	2,237	1,192	1,790	4,090
Electric machinery	8,811	5,093	2,323	1,802	1,911	1,311

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	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
			(In ¥ 1,000)			
Spinning machinery	14,486	6,365	3,512	7,998	3,520	6,394
Pulp for paper making	13,485	12,084	11,840	15,328	27,066	44,255
Leaf tobacco	9,850	6,600	8,142	8,670	6,239	8,411
Oil cake (bean, cotton, rape and others)	75,919	66,416	44,348	34,599	41,180	42,052

Trade Ports

On June 2 in the sixth year of Ansei, 1859, in the latter part of the Tokugawa Shogunate régime, Yokohama, Nagasaki and Hakodaté were opened to foreign trade. On December 7 in the 3rd year of the Keio Era (1867), Kobé was similarly opened and in the first year of the Meiji Era (1868) Osaka and Niigata were opened to international trade and commerce. In 1926 the total number of open ports in the Empire was 67, of which 41 were in Japan proper, 10 in Formosa, 11 in Korea and 5 in the South Sea islands. These were :

JAPAN PROPER: Yokohama, Nagasaki and Hakodaté (all opened in the 6th year of Ansei), Kobé (the 3rd year of Keio), Osaka and Niikata (the first year of Meiji), Ebisu (1869), Shimizu, Taketoyo, Yokkaichi, Shimonoseki, Moji, Hakata, Karatsu, Kuchinotsu, Izugahara, Sasuna, Shikami, Naha, Hamada, Sakai, Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nanao, Fushiki, Otaru, Kushiro, Muroran (all in 1899), Itozaki (1900), Wakamatsu (1902), Suminoe and Aomori (1904), Nagoya (1905), Miiké (1906), Otomari (1907), Muroran (1908), Kagoshima (1919), Imaharu, Tokuyama and Maoka (1922).

FORMOSA: Keelung, Tamsui, Anping, Takao, Kyuko, Goryu, Goro, Kako, Toseki and Mako.

KOREA: Jinsen, Gunsan, Moppo, Fusan, Chinnampo, Shingishu, Ryugampo, Gensan, Seishin, Joshin and Yuki.

SOUTH SEAS: Jaluit, Saipan, Kusaie, Angaur and Palau.

In 1873 Yokohama came to the topmost position in trade volume, next came Kobé, Nagasaki, Osaka and Hakodaté in the order mentioned. Since 1902 Osaka has outstripped Nagasaki and held the third most important position. Kobé overstepped Yokohama in 1893 and since then has occupied the premier position of all ports. Compared, Yokohama is the principal export port, while Kobé holds the first place for imports. The importance of Yokohama is due greatly to her geographical position, being the nearest port to America. She also has a good trade in silk textiles but holds second place to Kobé for the manufactured silks. Her imports consist of beans, wheat, oil, drugs, raw cotton, wool, iron, etc. Kobé is a great import port for grains, sugar, rubber, soda, chemical fertilizers, dyes, raw cotton, wool, pulp, iron and bean cake. Osaka's chief trade is in cotton goods : Moji is noted for being a large export and import port of sugar ; Nagoya for its shipments of porcelain and cotton cloth ; Shimizu for tea and tangerine oranges ; and Miiké for coal.

VESSELS ENTERED AT FIVE PRINCIPAL PORTS

(Unit: Ton)

	Yokohama	Kobé	Nagasaki	Moji	Osaka
1929	22,361,753	41,206,119	4,166,665	21,596,141	16,548,746
1930	22,359,290	42,579,369	3,772,707	21,141,985	17,131,553
1931	22,373,155	42,723,674	3,502,425	19,965,693	18,842,627
1932	22,207,385	43,033,220	3,348,239	20,538,484	19,539,931
1933	23,114,760	34,088,284	3,567,460	22,282,866	23,099,688

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STEAM VESSELS ENTERED TO JAPANESE PORTS

Year	Japanese		Chinese		British	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1928	13,422	34,723,286	13	19,158	1,954	9,106,794
1929	14,089	36,826,693	38	62,042	2,043	9,400,610
1930	13,247	35,942,573	68	155,278	1,646	7,865,014
1931	13,172	37,019,321	51	96,664	1,390	7,093,160
1932	12,714	36,406,061	57	53,969	1,470	7,481,516
1933	13,464	39,694,785	155	328,199	1,633	8,068,360

Year	French		German		Italian	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1928	106	709,707	292	1,202,483	29	159,676
1929	105	680,181	362	1,468,313	71	342,501
1930	108	703,752	367	1,579,774	63	272,276
1931	115	752,309	245	1,077,855	43	191,009
1932	70	551,684	212	944,703	28	106,962
1933	4	36,545	334	1,482,957	32	106,350

Year	Russian		Danish		Swedish		Norwegian	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1928	80	111,608	86	338,385	62	202,304	330	930,219
1929	116	166,781	93	356,030	61	212,962	356	965,920
1930	10	23,036	80	313,193	61	215,739	320	952,169
1931	37	83,660	71	274,473	62	227,104	294	929,439
1932	15	42,489	87	335,316	49	190,519	341	1,130,881
1933	19	47,578	100	387,136	67	249,336	417	1,360,714

Year	United States of America		Other Countries		Total	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1928	631	3,538,502	287	1,220,918	17,292	52,260,040
1929	639	3,552,252	261	1,150,455	18,231	55,184,740
1930	628	3,592,247	2,159	6,861,967	18,757	58,477,021
1931	530	3,215,153	1,877	5,847,847	17,887	56,807,994
1932	511	3,863,520	1,816	5,427,306	17,370	56,034,926
1933	534	3,443,765	2,068	6,421,570	18,827	61,627,290

SAILING VESSELS ENTERED TO JAPANESE PORTS

Year	Japanese Sailing Vessels of European Type		Junks		British		French	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1928	81	11,729	—	—	—	—	—	—
1929	87	12,066	—	—	—	—	—	—
1930	32	5,359	—	—	—	—	—	—
1931	41	4,501	—	—	—	—	—	—
1932	22	3,059	—	—	—	—	—	—
1933	36	1,422	—	—	—	—	—	—

Year	German		Russian		Danish		Swedish	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
1928	—	—	1	11	—	—	—	—
1929	—	—	1	328	—	—	—	—
1930	—	—	9	459	—	—	—	—
1931	—	—	1	12	—	—	—	—
1932	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1933	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

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Foreign Trade during the year 1933

Japan's foreign trade, excluding that of Chōsen (Korea) and Taiwan (Formosa), reached during 1933 a total value of ¥3,778,266,000 being made up of ¥1,861,046,000 of exports and ¥1,917,220,000 of imports. The excess of imports was ¥56,174,000. When compared with the returns for the preceding year, exports for 1933 showed an increase of ¥451,054,000 (32.0%), imports an increase of ¥485,759,000 (33.9%), the total of exports and imports an increase of ¥936,813,000 (33.0%), and the excess of imports an increase of ¥34,705,000 (161.7%).

In spite of the raising of customs tariffs, import quotas, and the system of import licenses as adopted by different countries along with the aggravation of the world economic depression, Japan's export trade has continued strikingly active during 1933. This development of the export trade extremely excited the public feeling in other countries and led to the boycott of Japanese goods all over the world. With the satisfactory proceeding of the Indo-Japanese Trade Conference and also with the appearance of some improvement in industrial conditions in the United States, however, our merchandise was exported in large amounts to various countries. Thus, the total of exports and imports showed a greater increase as compared with the preceding year.

With respect to the value of exports and imports of gold and silver, excluding those of Chōsen and Taiwan, the exports amounted to ¥28,608,000, imports to ¥125,000, and the excess of exports to ¥28,483,000.

Exports and imports during 1933, excluding those of Chōsen and Taiwan were as follows:

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE

(In ¥1,000)

	1933	1932	Increase (+) or Decrease (−)
Exports	1,861,046	1,409,992	+ 451,054
Imports	1,917,220	1,431,461	+ 485,759
Total	3,778,266	2,841,453	+ 936,813
Excess of Imports	56,174	21,469	+ 34,705

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER

(In ¥1,000)

	1933	1932	Increase (+) or Decrease (−)
Exports	28,608	121,378	− 92,770
Imports	125	140	− 15
Total	28,733	121,518	− 92,785
Excess of Exports	28,483	121,238	− 92,755

Export Trade

The export trade has, as in the preceding year, continued to increase during 1933. The export of such articles as raw silk, cotton tissues, silk tissues, rayon tissues, knitted goods, comestibles in tin and bottle and iron showed an increase in value. In particular, the rate of increase in comestibles in tin and bottle and iron was 106.3% and 182.7% respectively as against the preceding year. The study of the principal articles of export reveals that raw silk increased from ¥382,366,000 of the pre-

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ceding year to ¥390,910,000 in 1933, cotton tissues from ¥288,713,000 to ¥383,215,000, silk and rayon tissues from ¥110,828,000 to ¥140,926,000, comestibles in tin and bottle from ¥22,774,000 to ¥46,984,000, and iron from ¥12,278,000 to ¥34,666,000. The export of cotton yarns, however, showed a decline compared with the preceding year. Speaking geographically, it is noted that exports to all continents showed increases; especially those to South American and African continents indicated greater increases.

Principal exports are given below:

(In ¥1,000)

Items	1933	1932	Ratio to Exports of 1932 %
Raw silk	390,901	382,366	102.2
Cotton tissues	383,215	288,713	132.7
Silk and rayon tissues	140,926	110,828	127.2
Comestibles in tin and bottle	46,984	22,774	206.3
Knitted goods	42,047	26,935	156.1
Potteries	35,634	22,937	155.4
Wheat flour	34,955	20,539	170.2
Iron	34,666	12,278	282.3
Boots, shoes and clogs	29,630	20,666	143.4
Vehicles and parts thereof	28,342	11,506	246.3
Iron manufactures	26,897	14,193	189.5
Toys	26,375	15,120	174.4
Machinery and parts thereof	25,857	10,943	236.3
Wood	18,638	11,329	164.5
Paper	17,687	14,022	126.1
Cotton yarns	15,712	21,547	72.9
Glass and manufactures	15,327	9,282	165.1
Lamps and parts thereof	15,863	12,754	124.4
Coal	14,158	13,450	105.3
Hats, caps and bonnets	13,927	7,713	180.6
Woollen tissues	12,377	4,481	276.2
Alcoholic liquors	10,808	8,188	132.0

EXPORTS CLASSIFIED BY CONTINENTS

(In ¥1,000)

Continents	1933 Value	1933 Ratio to Total Exports %	1932 Value	1932 Ratio to Total Exports %	Ratio to Exports of 1932 %
Asia	930,637	50.0	677,613	48.0	137.3
Europe	182,078	9.8	127,176	9.0	143.1
North America	515,332	27.7	459,096	32.6	112.2
South America	30,379	1.6	13,133	0.9	231.3
Africa	137,239	7.4	85,695	6.1	160.1
Oceania	65,380	3.5	47,278	3.4	138.3
Total	1,861,045	100.0	1,409,991	100.0	132.0

Import Trade

As in the case of exports, almost all articles of import, with the exception of only two or three articles such as wheat and automobiles and parts thereof, showed in 1933 an increase in value as against 1932. The total value of imports showed an increase of 32.8% over the preceding year. In particular, the import of raw cotton increased from

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¥477,401,000 of the preceding year to ¥604,847,000 in 1933, wool from ¥87,559,000 to ¥164,192,000, iron from ¥65,075,000 to ¥136,641,000, and mineral oil from ¥98,588,000 to ¥108,859,000. Turning to the imports aggregated by continents, they all showed increases; especially those from South America, Africa, and Oceania showed greater increases.

Principal imports are given below:

(In ¥1,000)

Items	1933	1932	Ratio to Imports of 1932
			%
Cotton in the seed and cotton grinned	604,847	477,401	126.7
Wool	164,192	87,559	187.5
Iron	136,641	65,075	210.0
Mineral oil	108,859	98,588	110.4
Machinery	72,658	60,573	120.0
Beans and peas	50,345	42,070	119.7
Wheat	44,384	49,572	89.5
Oil cake	41,805	34,599	120.8
Wood	40,584	35,029	115.9
Coal	36,657	27,358	134.0
India-rubber	35,784	20,449	175.0
Ores	22,172	16,479	134.5
Oil yielding seeds	22,096	13,954	158.3
Fodder	20,761	19,929	104.2
Flax, hemp, jute and China grass	19,761	14,940	132.3
Phosphorite	15,374	11,097	138.5
Automobiles and parts thereof	13,871	14,821	93.6
Leather	13,545	7,897	171.5
Sugar	12,793	3,332	383.9
Lead	12,012	10,070	119.3
Salt	11,709	5,556	210.7
Rice and paddy	11,521	12,165	94.7

IMPORTS CLASSIFIED BY CONTINENTS

(In ¥1,000)

Continents	1933 Value	1933 Ratio to Total Imports	1932 Value	1932 Ratio to Total Imports	Ratio to Imports of 1932
		%		%	%
Asia	658,557	34.3	450,911	31.6	146.1
Europe	282,812	14.8	225,261	15.7	125.5
North America	668,140	34.9	550,057	38.4	121.5
South America	12,872	0.7	4,681	0.3	275.0
Africa	48,407	2.5	27,450	1.9	176.3
Oceania	211,391	11.0	139,922	9.8	151.1
Bonded Manufacturing Warehouses	35,040	1.8	33,179	2.3	105.6
Total	1,917,219	100.0	1,431,461	100.0	133.9

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VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Rice					
Kwantung Province	181	1,015	1,119	175	175
Asiatic Russia	155	743	382	457	412
United States of America	125	92	233	76	85
Canada	481	411	458	397	600
Hawaii	78	81	107	56	52
Other Countries	74	4,227	13,578	3,623	796
Total	1,094	6,570	15,879	4,786	2,123
Tea					
Kwantung Province	151	161	187	165	143
United States of America	8,125	6,366	5,274	4,752	5,083
Canada	1,581	802	675	671	721
Hawaii	84	64	56	48	43
Other Countries	2,137	992	2,088	2,535	2,457
Total	12,028	8,387	8,282	8,173	8,449
Beans & peas					
Great Britain	5,420	2,336	2,874	4,521	5,481
United States of America	6,345	3,238	831	131	200
Canada	449	270	82	80	24
Hawaii	260	241	145	116	45
Other Countries	2,137	1,138	1,196	1,105	1,408
Total	14,611	7,225	5,080	5,905	7,160
Aquatic products					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	119	337
Kwantung Province	2,127	1,600	895	1,977	2,268
China	8,727	5,975	2,654	2,545	2,278
Hongkong	6,053	5,416	2,752	574	1,397
Straits Settlements	251	973	562	193	893
United States of America	3,027	2,210	1,926	975	1,191
Hawaii	816	854	722	720	560
Other Countries	1,848	1,048	662	651	1,374
Total	22,849	18,080	10,176	7,759	10,301
Sugar, refined					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	136	653
Kwantung Province	5,066	2,500	1,959	4,416	6,994
China	22,085	22,771	11,442	2,853	6,158
Asiatic Russia	928	229	338	103	593
Other Countries	1,896	1,233	1,122	287	509
Total	29,975	26,734	14,862	7,797	14,909
Comestibles in tin & bottle					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	23	263
Kwantung Province	932	632	468	942	1,447
China	715	350	179	224	205
Hongkong	271	233	168	35	113
Asiatic Russia	54	67	74	97	127
Great Britain	5,523	4,874	4,635	6,157	13,136
United States of America	11,385	9,265	7,810	8,053	17,838
Hawaii	587	632	635	868	954
Other Countries	6,213	5,715	4,974	6,371	12,898
Total	25,681	21,762	18,948	22,774	46,984
Camphor					
British India	1,748	685	616	972	1,288
Great Britain	72	88	125	241	252
France	497	84	89	227	414
Germany	160	87	39	21	30
United States of America	3,060	1,169	1,348	1,217	1,568
Other Countries	662	994	724	859	890
Total	6,199	3,109	2,944	3,541	4,445

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Waste silk & floss silk					
Great Britain	329	89	31	42	54
France	5,569	1,976	465	427	656
Italy	1,885	1,053	86	120	333
United States of America	4,283	2,560	1,583	141	73
Other Countries	976	898	195	510	185
Total	13,042	6,578	2,398	1,241	1,303
Plaits for hat making					
Great Britain	1,297	847	266	486	744
France	1,053	503	255	831	1,177
Germany	626	522	251	477	691
Italy	473	158	60	97	126
United States of America	1,355	874	622	632	3,303
Australia	100	78	33	221	285
Other Countries	281	482	330	481	875
Total	5,186	3,466	1,820	3,228	7,204
Knitted goods					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	12	1,022
Kwantung Province	979	350	324	547	842
China	1,757	1,634	847	244	194
Hongkong	457	463	179	22	158
British India	9,929	7,948	3,901	6,698	9,628
Straits Settlements	434	209	86	232	771
Dutch East Indies	2,699	1,720	1,569	2,524	4,234
Philippine Islands	3,349	3,096	1,959	3,744	2,670
Great Britain	7,082	6,920	5,488	3,837	6,560
Egypt	2,392	1,183	1,305	1,818	3,370
Union of South Africa	1,395	1,444	1,293	1,314	2,565
Australia	80	51	15	29	43
Other Countries	6,158	5,439	4,205	5,913	9,984
Total	36,711	30,461	21,175	26,935	42,047
Silk, raw					
France	13,253	3,040	1,879	7,107	15,378
Great Britain	4,121	2,914	6,161	9,257	14,654
Italy	—	—	—	—	145
United States of America	755,378	398,715	342,479	360,148	355,805
Canada	5,692	3,558	2,595	1,164	208
Australia	2,352	2,783	1,928	3,165	3,297
Other Countries	244	635	349	1,523	1,411
Total	781,040	416,646	355,393	382,366	390,901
Cotton yarns					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	499	3,099
Kwantung Province	682	454	293	670	614
China	6,651	2,579	480	692	168
Hongkong	2,120	2,594	449	1,336	291
British India	13,448	6,575	5,592	14,343	7,605
Dutch India	770	446	357	—	1,236
Philippine Islands	683	403	331	249	193
Other Countries	2,397	1,977	996	2,309	2,502
Total	26,757	15,032	8,510	21,546	15,712
Silk tissues					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	25	661
Kwantung Province	2,792	704	590	1,169	3,574
China	4,438	2,110	848	159	128
Hongkong	3,752	2,574	1,662	338	521
British India	24,717	16,781	21,524	32,956	32,958
Straits Settlements	9,068	4,492	2,654	2,927	4,425
Dutch East Indies	6,402	8,882	8,910	14,365	15,968
French Indo-China	973	477	292	787	1,018
Philippine Islands	6,659	6,234	3,063	1,910	1,057

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Great Britain	10,327	6,262	4,212	4,761	8,726
France	10,745	4,402	1,966	2,064	3,524
Germany	1,227	690	285	258	351
Italy	373	236	135	103	195
United States of America	14,703	6,527	4,626	4,248	6,135
Canada	9,488	5,314	3,530	548	268
Argentine	1,870	1,456	1,907	2,169	2,537
Uruguay	3,030	3,319	777	232	1,573
Egypt	2,193	2,966	3,954	9,183	7,704
Union of South Africa	5,915	5,314	6,954	5,557	8,610
Australia	26,271	13,797	9,329	16,623	19,934
New Zealand	2,237	1,868	609	863	1,333
Other Countries	5,772	6,296	4,928	9,476	19,665
Total	149,954	100,710	82,766	110,827	140,926
Silk handkerchiefs					
British India	637	412	262	363	519
Great Britain	153	112	205	299	431
United States of America	1,350	622	546	200	579
Canada	188	110	81	57	89
Argentine	101	41	147	98	53
Uruguay	1,017	480	113	21	91
Egypt	35	6	6	4	15
Union of South Africa	91	71	29	20	82
Australia	28	7	1	3	16
Other Countries	848	492	235	331	545
Total	4,448	2,356	1,630	1,402	2,464
Cotton tissues					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	2,192	21,626
Kwantung Province	15,358	9,186	6,172	16,107	18,822
China	150,116	86,913	43,073	38,229	25,604
Hongkong	20,785	18,251	9,764	3,755	5,674
British India	109,139	61,216	49,866	80,658	71,163
Straits Settlements	5,798	6,283	5,212	11,229	17,607
Dutch East Indies	42,283	28,284	28,279	50,228	78,273
Philippine Islands	5,629	5,438	4,162	2,769	5,779
Siam	3,815	2,581	795	3,338	6,778
Turkey	2,210	3,725	3,506	5,574	2,024
United States of America	125	63	63	264	1,298
Chili	1,067	1,495	871	193	1,223
Argentine	4,164	1,442	1,407	3,300	6,615
Egypt	24,410	20,525	14,955	27,068	38,351
Union of South Africa	3,056	3,753	5,450	5,338	5,911
Australia	2,927	2,441	2,856	4,874	10,029
New Zealand	162	141	94	181	562
Hawaii	148	164	142	168	171
Other Countries	21,512	20,204	22,552	33,244	65,696
Total	412,707	272,116	198,731	288,712	383,215
Coal					
China	12,555	12,520	7,455	3,791	4,445
Hongkong	4,211	3,881	3,124	4,347	5,226
Straits Settlements	3,311	2,538	1,848	2,431	2,182
Dutch East Indies	144	144	123	195	61
French Indo-China	352	268	240	158	109
Philippine Islands	2,353	1,700	1,583	1,568	1,651
Other Countries	286	729	630	957	480
Total	23,215	21,783	15,008	13,450	14,158
Potteries					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	71	531
Kwantung Province	1,601	841	560	756	1,193
China	2,301	1,697	617	554	991

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Hongkong	650	525	243	142	247
British India	2,559	1,867	1,391	3,463	3,965
Straits Settlements	712	399	210	374	900
Dutch East Indies	4,928	2,265	1,711	2,414	3,728
Philippine Islands	667	679	400	635	959
Great Britain	517	719	696	825	1,296
France	636	583	1,079	311	643
Germany	297	317	199	100	146
Italy	356	242	195	236	371
Holland	1,028	1,157	1,200	848	981
United States of America	14,501	10,820	6,634	6,441	10,180
Canada	1,650	1,391	1,139	1,317	1,399
Argentine	388	249	174	150	395
Brazil	415	140	79	118	370
Egypt	101	119	146	408	438
Australia	1,159	767	665	1,768	2,707
Other Countries	2,494	2,081	1,960	1,998	4,185
Total	36,962	27,171	19,307	22,937	35,634
Cement					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	253	205
Kwantung Province	355	186	113	299	1,824
China	604	844	483	340	395
Hongkong	1,709	2,008	2,553	2,047	1,214
British India	429	746	1,038	1,307	949
Straits Settlements	913	1,509	1,800	823	597
Dutch East Indies	3,449	3,263	2,198	2,600	1,368
Philippine Islands	1,402	952	822	258	71
Other Countries	321	555	578	615	768
Total	9,182	10,066	9,089	8,545	7,394
Buttons					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	11	145
Kwantung Province	318	138	46	73	79
China	962	699	527	263	407
British India	546	412	319	635	639
Dutch East Indies	287	151	103	228	461
Great Britain	814	960	937	1,315	1,555
France	312	324	158	163	189
Germany	711	562	626	804	739
Spain	255	223	200	246	315
United States of America	152	120	128	157	357
Canada	240	232	157	121	85
Argentine	334	208	188	269	291
Brazil	150	125	114	154	209
Egypt	45	26	35	61	80
Australia	359	180	69	284	319
Other Countries	1,764	1,251	1,061	1,071	1,872
Total	7,218	5,619	4,674	5,862	7,748
Glass & glass manufactures					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	82	421
Kwantung Province	635	388	175	335	480
China	2,548	1,958	1,046	828	1,047
Hongkong	804	613	423	126	233
British India	4,086	2,888	2,239	4,106	5,506
Straits Settlements	496	480	220	202	617
Dutch East Indies	1,932	1,094	1,149	1,070	2,068
Philippine Islands	833	691	519	503	809
Siam	347	359	113	132	398
Great Britain	33	40	36	101	160
United States of America	281	136	100	491	802
Union of South Africa	139	137	110	158	450

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Australia	615	304	80	357	755
Other Countries	462	516	319	784	1,573
Total	13,211	9,609	6,534	9,281	15,826
Brushes					
China	196	172	75	29	74
British India	67	99	61	172	171
Dutch East Indies	106	69	42	108	142
Siam	65	33	21	38	42
Great Britain	767	654	471	505	693
United States of America	4,021	1,328	1,122	1,256	1,679
Canada	220	149	138	143	99
Argentine	41	26	40	19	16
Australia	112	59	5	19	70
Other Countries	494	369	300	634	1,463
Total	6,091	2,964	2,279	2,927	4,452
Matches					
Kwantung Province	59	44	33	27	44
China	123	34	14	1	1
Hongkong	2,397	1,715	693	12	154
British India	112	12	4	76	88
Straits Settlements	178	216	184	119	234
Dutch East Indies	204	145	111	66	107
Philippine Islands	410	418	205	98	136
African Countries	58	26	47	47	80
Other Countries	170	351	113	486	2,400
Total	3,715	2,965	1,408	988	3,248

VALUE OF CHIEF COMMODITIES IMPORTED FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Rice					
China	9	2	—	—	—
British India	3	1	—	282	—
French Indo-China	20	2	—	19	57
Siam	18,611	17,239	5,694	10,127	10,882
United States of America	4,138	2,336	1,275	1,733	580
Other Countries	1	—	—	—	—
Total	22,782	19,558	6,971	12,164	11,521
Beans & Peas					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	10,434	45,342
Kwantung Province	63,512	35,100	21,741	16,463	102
China	12,078	12,897	14,557	13,546	2,992
British India	2,455	1,336	811	1,300	1,434
Asiatic Russia	4	4	7	—	—
Other Countries	697	446	231	324	474
Total	78,746	49,784	37,349	42,069	50,344
India-rubber & gutta percha, crude					
British India	8,792	3,756	343	293	364
Straits Settlements	22,802	11,615	9,272	10,060	20,499
Dutch East Indies	1,881	2,173	3,206	4,995	7,268
Great Britain	158	59	39	45	48
Other Countries	253	325	321	593	1,503
Total	33,886	17,930	13,183	15,988	29,685
Sugar, (brown & white)					
Hongkong	—	—	—	—	—
Dutch East Indies	30,855	25,932	15,587	8,133	12,786
Philippine Islands	41	18	—	—	—

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Cuba	736	4	—	185	—
Other Countries	28	18	15	13	6
Total	31,160	25,973	15,603	3,332	12,793
Oil cake					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	3,030	31,480
Kwantung Province	33,000	30,021	18,413	16,861	2,218
China	40,562	35,132	24,680	11,821	5,928
British India	2,108	809	789	2,048	1,184
Asiatic Russia	91	65	—	13	82
Other Countries	158	388	465	823	335
Total	75,919	66,416	44,348	34,599	41,180
Coal					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	4,754	24,150
Kwantung Province	26,378	21,261	17,982	12,902	396
China	7,613	5,349	3,902	4,241	4,104
French Indo-China	7,285	5,950	5,106	4,295	6,037
Asiatic Russia	1,646	1,509	1,246	1,144	1,938
Other Countries	56	133	30	18	30
Total	42,978	34,203	28,268	27,358	36,657
Leather					
British India	2,542	1,965	1,761	1,488	1,956
Great Britain	908	671	406	342	404
Germany	598	541	583	625	565
United States of America	3,092	1,615	1,468	982	766
Other Countries	149	195	127	184	239
Total	7,289	4,989	4,347	3,617	3,933
Cotton, raw					
China	33,629	21,985	17,866	18,885	24,347
British India	231,108	147,688	113,262	91,746	168,796
Straits Settlements	46	8	11	117	27
Dutch East Indies	227	220	195	257	269
French Indo-China	93	605	18	27	110
United States of America	276,358	176,800	153,700	320,751	381,655
Egypt	22,170	12,592	11,619	15,300	19,084
Other Countries	9,383	2,243	98	313	10,554
Total	573,016	362,046	296,273	447,401	604,847
Other vegetable fibres					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	43	333
China	8,597	4,549	4,798	5,941	6,923
British India	4,848	2,968	1,954	3,669	5,400
Philippine Islands	15,298	8,627	6,525	7,056	9,616
Other Countries	657	302	470	391	864
Total	29,400	16,448	13,698	17,101	23,137
Synthetic colours					
Great Britain	72	30	24	35	22
France	660	198	524	631	579
Germany	5,356	2,586	4,085	4,959	5,217
Switzerland	1,514	1,526	1,431	2,025	1,236
United States of America	1,220	1,301	1,025	1,157	881
Other Countries	120	165	194	257	121
Total	8,942	5,809	7,285	9,066	8,060
Wool					
Kwantung Province	88	3	6	—	13
China	160	54	67	67	128
Great Britain	862	339	157	375	1,051
Chile	568	194	229	22	464
Argentine	662	620	873	481	2,427
Union of South Africa	22	19	64	1,031	2,529
Australia	99,059	72,336	83,295	84,245	156,513
Other Countries	394	41	1,451	1,335	1,064
Total	101,816	73,609	86,145	87,559	164,191

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Woolen or worsted-yarns					
Great Britain	3,868	1,928	2,264	3,132	2,168
France	1,174	752	375	65	2
Germany	7,177	4,584	3,220	155	19
Belgium	49	—	—	—	—
Italy	22	61	1	—	—
Austria	504	102	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	920	1,329	1,690	238	—
Poland	5,463	5,377	4,867	1,512	830
Other Countries	58	12	10	8	—
Total	18,736	14,148	12,429	5,112	3,020
Cotton tissues					
Great Britain	6,311	3,742	2,296	2,080	1,212
France	344	143	65	55	10
Germany	190	161	128	52	32
Switzerland	1,430	663	1,500	1,706	403
United States of America	171	214	318	69	45
Other Countries	128	74	65	76	1,249
Total	8,574	4,999	4,375	4,130	2,954
Wollen tissues					
Great Britain	15,034	8,916	7,884	8,597	6,833
France	594	268	194	157	51
Germany	3,939	2,010	1,699	1,541	297
Italy	65	24	11	7	7
United States of America	8	5	10	18	4
Other Countries	302	208	191	164	17
Total	19,941	11,434	9,993	10,487	7,212
Wood					
Kwantung Province	276	632	285	80	40
China	540	290	297	46	90
Dutch East Indies	1,150	601	760	681	1,609
Asiatic Russia	10,278	8,921	5,278	3,581	2,597
Siam	1,851	1,214	988	999	1,239
United States of America	67,316	32,619	26,176	20,225	28,744
Canada	5,110	6,731	7,776	7,346	7,632
Other Countries	2,317	2,062	1,815	2,117	3,628
Total	88,838	53,083	43,379	35,029	40,584
Printing paper					
Great Britain	1,711	1,152	840	757	486
Germany	818	1,045	375	169	17
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—
Holland	164	63	65	50	20
Sweden	654	1,160	1,610	633	26
Norway	57	612	897	284	15
United States of America	163	106	136	98	75
Canada	—	—	1,154	3,497	2,976
Other Countries	92	382	279	39	50
Total	3,659	4,524	5,361	5,530	3,668
Pig iron					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	2,241	18,101
Kwantung Province	6,515	5,928	4,924	4,706	60
China	2,795	1,482	2,356	1,933	—
British India	16,950	7,666	3,626	3,027	5,802
Great Britain	497	213	148	166	216
Germany	321	340	63	30	39
Belgium	17	11	—	—	—
Sweden	62	111	70	36	541
United States of America	1,278	85	39	30	34
Other Countries	—	5	—	—	455
Total	28,435	15,845	11,229	12,173	25,251

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(In ¥1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Lead (ingots & slabs)					
China	—	—	—	—	36
British India	1,025	1,279	1,181	1,566	2,011
Great Britain	41	11	19	7	25
United States of America	4,475	4,112	2,511	3,275	4,011
Canada	8,179	5,049	4,240	4,298	5,542
Australia	1,343	582	195	322	249
Other Countries	28	81	29	202	24
Total	15,064	11,116	8,127	9,972	11,901
Machinery & parts thereof					
Great Britain	33,136	22,947	11,662	12,419	12,204
France	4,177	3,517	1,662	4,448	3,422
Germany	19,574	15,653	10,415	9,699	15,978
Belgium	97	63	16	9	50
Switzerland	3,462	3,694	1,568	2,139	2,005
Sweden	2,156	1,649	1,248	1,862	3,721
United States of America	37,886	24,479	15,485	17,176	21,869
Canada	248	165	175	286	263
Other Countries	12,869	9,650	6,512	10,776	11,341
Total	113,609	81,820	48,748	58,817	70,859
Automobiles & parts thereof					
Great Britain	527	250	161	469	452
France	460	245	209	56	26
Germany	74	66	73	394	92
Italy	73	95	34	3	—
United States of America	31,047	19,867	15,816	13,838	13,288
Canada	1,311	188	21	36	—
Other Countries	108	58	11	23	10
Total	33,608	20,773	16,329	14,821	13,871
Mineral Oil. (excluding crude oil & heavy oil) under 0.730 S. G.					
Dutch East Indies	3,228	729	619	353	41
United States of America	654	255	174	5	4
Other Countries	206	—	—	10	—
Total	4,088	986	793	369	46
Minerai Oil. (excluding crude oil & heavy oil) under 0.8762 S. G.					
Dutch East Indies	14,728	12,645	12,636	14,511	15,789
United States of America	16,622	21,205	19,521	18,702	14,568
Other Countries	3,332	4,015	3,835	3,319	4,415
Total	34,682	37,866	35,993	36,533	34,773
Sulphate of ammonium, Crude					
Kwantung Province	414	166	440	190	43
Great Britain	17,666	8,381	3,788	2,386	1,828
Germany	23,275	16,922	10,984	4,187	6,942
United States of America	6,435	3,017	297	130	—
Australia	173	95	—	—	—
Other Countries	123	141	351	150	606
Total	48,086	29,624	15,861	7,035	9,420
Pulp for paper making					
Great Britain	682	180	2	82	—
Germany	722	645	245	1,293	621
Sweden	1,482	921	1,220	1,792	3,571
Norway	3,287	3,608	2,013	4,115	7,577
United States of America	2,318	832	2,418	3,951	7,801
Canada	4,626	5,459	5,200	3,144	6,043
Other Countries	368	436	738	949	1,449
Total	13,485	12,084	11,840	15,328	27,066
Caustic soda & soda-ash					
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	2	—
China	654	600	292	116	376
Great Britain	3,769	3,045	2,372	3,872	1,902
United States of America	4,531	2,840	2,884	1,013	1,036
African Countries	2,186	1,722	1,627	1,155	229
Other Countries	174	700	972	225	1,718
Total	11,314	8,980	8,150	6,385	5,263

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1934 Trade

The overseas trade of Japan in 1934 made a far more stride than in the preceding years, gains compared with 1933 being 17 per cent. in the exports and 19 per cent. in the imports and compared with 1931, the worst year for Japan since the World War, being 89 per cent. in the exports and 84 per cent. in the imports. The comparative figures for the last four years follow:

OVERSEAS TRADE OF JAPAN PROPER (¥1,000,000)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports				
Value	1,147	1,410	1,861	2,172
Index	100	123	162	189
Imports				
Value	1,235	1,431	1,917	2,282
Index	100	116	155	184
Total				
Value	2,383	2,841	3,778	4,454
Index	100	119	159	186
Excess of Imports				
Value	89	21	56	111
Index	100	23	63	125

During the three years there took place marked changes in the components of the overseas trade of Japan. In the exports a noticeable increase was witnessed in the finished manufactures and a great decrease in the half finished goods. In raw materials too a sharp decline occurred. In the imports finished manufactures underwent a considerable shrinkage, while raw materials increased. As compared with 1929, the year which was very much analogous to 1934 in the briskness of trade, it is noticeable that there took place in these five years an increase of 44 per cent. in the exports of finished goods and a decline of 35 per cent. in the exports of raw materials and at the same time an increase of 12 per cent. in the imports of raw materials and a decrease of 17 per cent. in the imports of finished goods.

FOREIGN TRADE AS CATEGORIZED BY INDEX NUMBERS

(Average of 5 years, 1921-1925, taken as 100)

	1929	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports					
Foodstuffs	149	96	97	147	160
Raw materials	87	44	50	72	93
Finished raw materials	109	52	60	67	62
Finished articles	144	82	108	159	207
Imports					
Foodstuffs	91	53	54	58	59
Raw materials	117	65	80	113	134
Finished raw materials	96	49	54	89	112
Finished articles	89	53	59	59	74

These changes in the components of the overseas trade of the country were caused by the accelerated industrialization of whole Japan coupled with the low exchange rate of the yen and the imposition of protective tariffs. Another noteworthy fact was the change that took place in the world markets for Japanese goods. In exports to North America there took place a great decrease due to the sharp drop of silk, but in all other continents extension reigned. In the total amount Asia leads the rest, but as viewed from the percentage of increase Central America ranks first at 175 per cent. followed by Africa and South America in order, and the last seat is occupied by Asia at 25 per cent. Compared with the conditions in 1931, excepting the United States which showed a loss of 6 per cent., all are showing a tremendous increase. In the Asiatic continent the increase was represented by above 131 per cent., in European Continent 118 per cent. in Oceania by 120 per

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cent., in Africa by 21 per cent., in South America by 501 per cent. and in Central America by 2,230 per cent. The markets of Japan can conveniently be divided into the old and new, the former being the United States, China, Kwantung province, British India, and the Dutch East Indies. The latter is South and Central American, Africa, Oceania, etc. The increase to the new markets was 179 per cent. against 52 per cent. to the old markets.

PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF JAPAN'S TRADE BY CONTINENTS

	1934 (¥1,000)	Comparison with the Previous Year	Comparison with 1931
		%	%
Asia	1,169,508	25	131
Europe	227,772	25	118
North America	413,141	(−) 19	(−) 6
Central America	43,295	175	2,230
South America	61,457	31	501
Africa	182,397	34	210
Oceania	74,359	28	120

VALUE OF THE CLASSES OF COMMODITIES EXPORTED AND IMPORTED IN 1933 AND 1934

EXPORTS

	1933 Yen	1934 Yen
Plants and animals	2,720,476	3,347,820
Grains, flours, starches & seeds	45,536,685	47,828,704
Beverages, comestibles & tobacco :—	112,993,780	124,945,571
Part I. (Tea)	8,449,608	9,557,111
Part II. (Aquatic products)	10,301,667	16,473,238
Part III. (Sugar & confectioneries)	17,165,435	15,801,611
Part IV. (Alcoholic liquors)	10,807,874	9,393,287
Part V. (Others)	64,539,404	71,791,718
Part VI. (Tobacco)	1,729,792	1,928,606
Skins, hairs, bones, horns, teeth, tusks, shells, etc., & manufactures thereof	8,995,335	10,704,374
Oils, fats, waxes & manufactures thereof	26,321,262	32,832,257
Drugs, chemicals, medicines, compounds or preparations thereof & explosives	48,203,672	52,460,068
Dyes, pigments, coatings & filling matters	11,741,825	15,518,543
Yarns, threads, twines, cordages & materials thereof :—	435,969,377	368,713,854
Part I. (Silk)	403,853,092	315,907,461
Part II. (Others)	32,116,285	52,806,393
Tissues & manufactures thereof :—	592,384,080	787,275,927
Part I. (Silk tissues)	140,926,488	190,922,081
Part II. (Cotton tissues)	383,215,392	492,351,023
Part III. (Other tissues)	29,995,298	54,861,618
Part IV. (Tissues, manufactures of)	38,246,902	49,141,205
Clothing & accessories thereof	143,425,620	154,266,079
Papers & paper manufactures	26,597,296	31,329,184
Minerals & manufactures thereof	24,641,489	24,426,499
Potteries & glass	50,960,959	61,331,744
Ores & metals	50,424,028	74,904,681
Metal manufactures	42,604,224	59,054,665
Clocks, watches, scientific instruments, fire-arms, vessels, vehicles & machinery	67,622,067	124,982,223

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	1933	1934
	Yen	Yen
Miscellaneous articles	111,858,375	139,069,504
Articles by post	29,314,491	26,203,743
Grand total	1,832,315,041	2,139,195,380
Re-exports	28,730,677	32,729,243
Total exports	1,861,045,718	2,171,924,623
Food, drink & tobacco :—	157,987,775	171,930,789
A. In a natural state	30,320,198	48,315,675
B. Partly or wholly prepared	127,667,577	123,615,114
Raw materials	73,764,803	95,739,209
Manufactures for further use in manufacturing	538,793,120	498,528,754
Articles wholly manufactured	1,031,576,027	1,345,511,501
Miscellaneous articles	58,923,993	60,214,370
Grand Total	1,861,045,718	2,171,924,623

IMPORTS

	1933	1934
	Yen	Yen
Plants & animals	1,420,424	1,142,570
Grains, flours, starches & seeds	133,306,581	125,444,090
Beverages, comestibles & tobacco :—	62,479,418	71,865,555
Part I. (Sugar & confectioneries)	12,854,493	9,788,480
Part II. (Alcoholic liquors)	1,757,743	2,063,152
Part III. (Others)	40,764,172	50,578,814
Part IV. (Tobacco)	7,103,010	9,435,109
Skins, hairs, bones, horns, teeth, tusks, shells, etc., & manufactures thereof	30,710,127	36,902,073
Oils, fats, waxes & manufactures thereof	122,504,329	136,634,188
Drugs, chemicals, medicines, compounds or preparations thereof & explosives	108,653,688	144,293,432
Dyes, pigments, coatings & filling matters	16,991,400	18,567,833
Yarns, threads, twines, cordages & materials thereof	822,078,780	969,156,807
Tissues & manufactures thereof :—	14,704,817	10,653,970
Part I. (Tissues of cotton)	2,954,205	952,082
Part II. (Tissues of flax, hemp or jute)	655,541	523,335
Part III. (Tissues of wool)	7,212,602	5,198,790
Part IV. (Others)	3,882,469	3,979,763
Clothing & accessories thereof	1,044,163	1,030,201
Pulp for paper making, papers, paper manufactures, books & pictures	41,965,707	61,879,024
Minerals & manufactures thereof	64,965,980	79,851,152
Potteris, glass & glass manufactures	7,995,653	7,894,338
Ores & metals :—	233,634,698	307,309,733
Part I. (Iron)	149,480,598	190,983,959
Part II. (Others)	84,154,100	116,325,774
Metal manufactures	6,533,815	8,706,009
Clocks, watches, scientific instruments, fire-arms, vehicles, vessels & machinery :—	106,574,617	143,590,180
Part I. (Clocks & watches)	2,244,668	2,795,902
Part II. (Scientific instruments & fire-arms)	17,103,284	19,697,411
Part III. (Vehicles & vessels)	14,568,664	33,074,613
Part IV. (Machinery)	72,657,971	98,022,254
Miscellaneous articles	128,355,111	142,565,126
Articles by post	7,544,506	8,944,160
Travelling effects	666,128	682,016
Grand total	1,912,129,942	2,277,112,457
Re-imports	5,089,916	5,489,143
Total imports	1,917,219,858	2,282,601,600
Food, drink & tobacco :	173,185	174,448,527
A. In a natural state	131,163	125,935,479
B. Partly or wholly prepared	42,021	48,513,048

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	1933 Yen	1934 Yen
Raw materials	1,181,146	1,413,655,900
Manufactures for further use in manufacturing	328,799	415,841,011
Articles wholly manufactured	220,328	262,643,583
Miscellaneous articles	13,761	15,812,579
Grand total	1,917,219	2,282,601,600

JAPAN'S EXPORTS BY COMMODITIES

Group I (Plants and Animals)

		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Lily bulbs	1,000 p.c.s.	26,988	1,900,013	31,218	2,236,549
Group total		—	2,720,476	—	3,347,320

Group II (Grains, Flours, Starches and Seeds)

Rice and paddy	100 kin	273,699	2,123,518	1,101,085	8,420,185
Beans and peas	,,	656,742	7,160,626	968,301	9,051,121
Wheat flour	,,	5,304,249	34,955,093	4,427,373	28,451,525
Group total		—	45,536,685	—	44,823,704

Group III (Beverages, Comestibles and Tobacco)

Onions	100 kin	176,759	650,116	419,205	1,327,019
Potatoes	,,	393,475	1,300,390	795,281	2,354,882
Mushrooms, dried	,,	11,464	1,498,436	13,061	2,363,770
Mandarin oranges	,,	384,295	2,388,826	528,112	3,471,450
Other fruits		—	1,936,190	—	1,775,941
Green tea	100 kin	215,895	8,250,575	217,968	8,497,360
Other tea	,,	6,988	199,033	22,207	1,059,751
Refined sugar	,,	2,172,317	14,909,111	2,019,868	13,531,670
Confectioneries	,,	34,510	1,109,143	38,405	1,280,398
Tangles and sliced tangles	,,	327,279	1,293,262	638,130	2,363,583
Fish and shellfish, fresh	,,	147,903	1,657,672	125,323	2,191,269
Dried fish	,,	131,093	3,255,911	230,898	5,687,198
Dried shellfish	,,	16,657	1,358,356	30,985	2,583,579
Isinglass, vegetable	,,	21,863	3,198,956	20,931	3,215,118
Condensed milk	100 kin (Tin included)	22,673	743,455	58,061	1,587,882
Crabs in tin	,,	197,347	18,619,164	159,806	15,420,564
Salmon and trout in tin	,,	323,850	11,230,206	376,480	18,860,901
Tuna fish in tin	,,	(separated from other		69,524	3,847,808
Sardines in tin	,,	comestibles in tin in 1934)		227,844	3,611,850
Comestibles in tin and bottle, others	,,	465,447	17,135,032	235,911	8,563,105
Saké	koku	25,284	2,901,613	31,843	3,585,510
Beer	,,	132,378	7,684,342	118,009	5,535,420
Tobaccos		—	1,729,792	—	1,928,606
Group total		—	112,993,780	—	124,945,571

Group IV (Skins, Hairs, Horns, Tusks and Manufactures)

Furs	100 kin	5,107	3,071,960	3,926	3,023,242
Bristles	,,	3,430	2,915,190	2,930	3,600,845
Group total		—	8,995,335	—	10,704,274

Group V (Oils, Fats, Waxes and Manufactures thereof)

		1933		1934	
Vegetable oil	100 kin	297,543	7,160,406	510,737	11,036,358
Peppermint oil	,,	5,217	2,006,755	5,412	1,838,294
Fish oil	,,	275,161	2,396,838	333,896	3,150,337
Kerosene oil	Gallon	1,347,562	544,061	1,170,857	423,253

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		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Other mineral oil	100 kin	317,020	2,545,587	448,538	3,495,639
Vegetable wax	,,	46,846	1,139,023	52,928	1,258,013
Hardened oil	,,	390,360	4,939,525	401,606	5,042,254
Soap for toilet	1,000 dozen	3,131	2,141,242	3,651	2,487,975
Group Total		—	26,321,262	—	32,832,257
Group VI (Drugs, Chemicals, Medicines and Explosives)					
Dried plants for insectifuge	100 kin	84,808	6,349,939	93,848	7,447,004
Sulphur	,,	535,244	2,430,842	761,837	2,886,569
Caustic soda	,,	(Separated from other chemicals in 1934)		204,886	2,025,068
Camphor	,,	27,604	4,445,108	27,964	4,603,224
Menthol crystal	,,	5,308	5,283,983	5,097	4,556,540
Prepared medicines		—	1,272,998	—	2,055,397
Other drugs, chemicals, etc.		—	15,023,644	—	11,647,519
Matches	,,	161,774	3,248,599	178,092	2,928,558
Group total		—	48,203,672	—	52,460,068
Group VII (Dyes, Pigments, Coatings and Filling Matter)					
Coal-tar dyes	100 kin	101,937	2,895,974	107,012	4,258,949
Coal-tar and pitch, etc.	,,	527,764	1,353,168	703,974	1,360,434
Pencils	Gross	1,798,582	1,467,974	1,887,310	1,810,684
Inks	100 kin	18,480	835,023	28,042	1,165,408
Paints	,,	66,163	1,829,919	67,551	2,023,396
Group total		—	11,741,825	—	15,518,543
Group VIII (Yarns, Threads, Twines, Cordages and Materials thereof)					
Cotton yarns	100 kin	144,916	15,712,038	194,533	23,484,585
Woollen and worsted yarns	,,	23,741	5,292,911	44,397	12,184,682
Raw silk	kin	497,485	390,901,086	551,308	286,793,375
Spun silk yarns	,,	427,679	2,066,922	1,168,767	4,875,985
Rayon	,,	6,696,524	9,483,169	16,792,508	22,399,525
Waste cotton and waste cotton yarns	100 kin	275,400	4,112,782	366,430	6,598,144
Group total		—	435,969,377	—	368,713,854
Group IX (Tissues and Manufactures thereof)					
Gray cotton tissues (imitation nankeen)	Sq. yard	18,915,607	3,601,316	29,719,786	6,263,327
Gray cotton tissues (Drill)	,,	21,331,499	4,289,196	34,493,662	7,428,495
Gray cotton tissues (Jeans)	,,	12,542,818	2,481,436	8,636,675	1,703,589
Gray cotton tissues (Shirtings)	,,	274,328,482	38,486,096	381,727,023	55,595,247
Gray cotton tissues (Dhooty)	,,	41,521,112	5,033,612	41,961,784	5,385,445
Gray cotton tissues (Sheetings)	,,	200,154,207	32,171,313	209,890,609	35,167,323
Gray cotton tissues (Others)	,,	40,074,607	6,824,201	63,999,970	11,464,644
Bleached cotton tissues	,,	464,189,351	78,032,591	509,797,660	88,916,657
Other cotton tissues	,,	1,013,219,396	211,698,791	1,294,967,826	279,854,625
Woollen tissues		—	12,376,977	—	29,848,720
Silk tissues, habutaé	kin	663,154	6,822,923	911,281	8,314,147
Fuji silk	Sq. yard	32,449,247	17,178,545	32,267,171	18,578,337
Silk tissues (others)		—	39,543,250	—	50,595,362
Rayon tissues	,,	—	77,381,765	401,408,470	113,484,235
Knitted tissues	,,	2,270,497	821,936	3,487,578	1,032,927
Rags	100 kin	664,788	6,328,158	734,669	8,719,807
All other tissues		—	10,119,438	—	14,138,339
Cotton blankets	100 kin	50,890	3,662,114	73,146	5,380,141
Grass rugs	Sq. yard	4,357,631	1,077,251	5,708,685	1,583,493
Table cloth	100 kin	8,772	1,857,300	10,788	2,168,197
Silk handkerchiefs	Doz.	1,267,201	2,464,438	2,074,768	4,307,721
Cotton handkerchiefs	,,	6,330,064	3,646,329	7,894,974	4,060,123
Cotton towels	,,	3,038,172	6,040,521	3,502,735	7,215,536

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		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Bed cloths	100 kin	22,052	2,095,661	28,406	2,869,056
Fishing nets	,,	39,939	3,325,152	47,672	4,094,221
Group total		—	592,384,080	—	787,275,927
Group X (Clothing and Accessories)					
Undershirts and drawers	Dozen	11,723,252	36,840,058	11,436,001	40,213,012
Hats, caps and bonnets (of felt)	,,	549,722	3,898,471	646,076	4,144,207
Hats, caps and bonnets (of imitation panama)	,,	1,521,332	7,601,189	1,425,816	9,279,685
Socks and stockings	,,	5,257,332	9,079,773	6,625,139	12,327,955
Rubber boots and shoes	,,	1,046,225	8,213,073	575,709	3,332,584
Sporting shoes of tissues and with rubber sole	,,	—	—	2,403,593	13,297,551
Buttons (of shell)	Gross	18,058,245	5,840,177	19,977,458	6,685,671
European clothing		—	1,177,869	—	1,875,036
Kimono (of silk)		—	8,230,436	—	11,046,050
Group total		—	143,425,620	—	154,266,079
Group XI (Paper, Pulp and Paper Manufactures)					
Printing paper	100 kin	620,692	7,642,050	580,185	7,675,365
Paper, torinoko	,,	109,363	2,089,245	86,397	1,593,866
Books and journals		—	1,383,137	—	1,921,996
Group total		—	26,597,296	—	31,329,134
Group XII (Minerals and Manufactures)					
Coal	Long ton	1,535,536	14,158,235	1,070,035	10,375,598
Cement	100 kin	7,904,095	7,394,590	8,998,422	8,038,278
Group total		—	24,641,489	—	24,426,499
Group XIII (Pottery and Glass)					
Potteries (tableware)	Dozen	(Separated from others in 1934)		43,828,235	36,354,674
Window glass	1,000 Sq. feet	13,709,563	969,029	28,318,261	1,596,897
Group total		—	50,960,959	—	61,331,744
Group XIV (Ores and Metals)					
Iron bars and rods	100 kin	752,171	4,669,125	1,803,907	11,504,879
Iron rails (including fish-plates)	,,	(Separated from others in 1934)		1,590,018	16,192,316
Iron plates and sheets	,,	302,769	3,257,465	539,541	6,299,048
Iron wire	,,	378,551	3,827,951	548,320	5,247,005
Copper wire	,,	101,184	4,653,497	110,664	4,609,132
Brass plates and sheets	,,	110,357	4,322,284	154,929	5,908,728
Group total		—	50,424,028	—	74,904,681
Group XV (Metal Manufactures)					
Insulated electric wire	100 kin	96,208	4,597,810	145,116	7,362,305
Iron nails and the likes	,,	417,431	4,491,305	479,386	4,822,000
Enamelled iron ware	,,	229,009	7,216,898	257,818	8,049,779
Antimony manufactures		—	2,969,707	—	3,610,236
Group total		—	42,604,224	—	59,054,665
Group XVI (Clocks, Scientific Instruments, Machines)					
Clocks	p.c.s.	755,416	2,091,713	1,232,898	3,221,164
Physical and chemical instruments		—	2,121,875	—	2,494,529
Telephonic instruments		—	2,834,936	—	5,241,328
Phonographs		(Separated from others in 1934)		—	3,263,008
Cycles and parts thereof		—	16,422,567	—	24,602,881
Other vehicles and tires		—	11,913,077	—	21,373,219
Electric machinery	kin	4,128,571	2,724,455	5,024,835	10,055,396
Spinning machines	100 kin	123,902	4,878,545	138,152	6,281,175
Locomotives	Number	(Separated from others in 1934)		1,759	8,422,130

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Group XVII (Miscellaneous)

		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Other machinery, parts and accessories		—	18,254,006	—	33,018,528
Group total		—	67,622,067	—	124,982,228
Venier plates	1,000 kin	15,066	2,550,784	21,880	4,010,598
Wood, shooks	1,000 set	7,848	4,506,063	10,013	5,779,643
Lacquered wares		—	2,371,433	—	2,570,476
Celluloid	100 kin	22,013	2,363,013	30,071	3,303,514
Celluloid manufactures		—	2,345,751	—	3,223,332
Brushes		—	4,452,933	—	5,246,142
Lamps and parts thereof		—	15,863,411	—	15,696,260
Toys		—	26,374,572	—	30,385,563
Artificial manures	,,	520,567	2,409,059	565,305	2,447,150
Fish meal	,,	(Separated from others in 1934)		1,998,155	12,124,763
Group total		—	111,858,375	—	139,069,504
Articles by post			29,314,491		26,203,743
Re-exports			28,730,677		32,729,233
Grand total			1,861,045,718		2,171,924,623

JAPAN'S IMPORTS BY COMMODITIES

		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Group I (Plants and Animals)					
Horses	Number	100	168,383	35	393,882
Group total		—	1,420,424	—	1,142,570
Group II (Grains, Flours, Starches, etc.)					
Rice and paddy	100 kin	2,375,740	11,521,151	115,598	660,761
Wheat	,,	8,520,470	44,384,004	8,155,061	40,748,550
Soy bean	,,	7,243,904	38,034,773	9,128,311	41,028,092
Red (small) bean	,,	1,237,836	7,119,737	1,244,768	5,979,666
Rape seed and mustard seed	,,	352,612	2,766,684	802,255	5,591,103
Group total		—	133,806,581	—	125,444,090
Group III (Beverages, Comestibles and Tobacco)					
Tea	kin	563,545	859,059	658,160	948,425
Coffee	,,	4,069,589	2,068,037	4,870,693	2,226,042
Sugar	100 kin	2,210,124	12,793,542	1,782,188	9,678,660
Meats		—	5,536,699	—	7,382,403
Salted fish	,,	813,690	10,079,499	972,247	11,480,355
Alcoholic liquors	litre	1,897,743	1,757,743	2,113,637	2,063,152
Salt	100 kin	14,787,296	11,709,350	17,941,312	14,839,369
Tobacco		—	7,103,730	—	9,435,109
Group total		—	62,479,418	—	71,865,555
Group IV (Skins, Hair, Bones, Horns, Tusks, Shells and Manufactures thereof)					
Furs	100 kin	11,087	1,427,306	9,314	1,084,719
Hides and skins	,,	347,201	13,544,614	414,336	16,320,324
Leather	,,	13,107	3,933,017	14,429	4,829,832
Bristles and hairs	,,	10,171	3,872,791	13,606	5,892,123
Shells of mollusca	,,	257,864	3,932,389	191,797	4,112,625
Group total		—	30,710,127	—	36,902,078
Group V (Oil, Fats, Waxes and Manufactures thereof)					
Fragrant volatile oil, vegetable	100 kin	5,528	2,655,610	5,557	2,546,684
Crude oil and heavy oil	100 gallon	6,130,089	68,346,696	7,439,851	82,482,862
Other mineral oils		—	40,512,671	—	41,543,749
Paraffin wax	100 kin	330,856	2,602,980	247,966	1,632,286
Group total		—	122,504,329	—	136,634,188

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		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Group VI (Drugs, Chemicals, Medicines and Explosives)					
Hops	100 kin	6,909	1,619,925	6,672	2,625,656
Tanning materials	,,	229,966	2,147,068	212,593	2,093,286
Tanning extracts	,,	176,138	2,881,146	193,362	3,063,776
India rubber and guttapercha	,,	1,165,497	29,685,229	1,197,051	57,337,922
Shellac	,,	31,630	1,664,668	33,735	3,308,400
Rosin	,,	368,233	2,993,619	351,273	3,160,996
Caustic soda, crude	,,	207,959	1,994,008	165,468	1,525,881
Soda ash and natural soda	,,	774,123	3,269,748	618,986	2,829,912
Nitrate of soda, crude	,,	581,692	3,858,059	663,400	3,494,475
Chloride of potash, crude	,,	561,785	5,009,091	764,382	5,790,445
Sulphate of potash, crude	,,	389,675	3,986,646	814,584	6,065,388
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	,,	1,807,477	9,420,832	2,681,688	13,806,538
Coal-tar distillates	,,	113,632	2,644,613	46,603	946,477
Chemicals derived from coal-tar distillates	,,	31,668	4,621,679	22,097	3,575,798
Explosives		—	3,373,022	—	1,005,163
Group total		—	108,653,688	—	144,293,432
Group VII (Dyes, Pigments, Coatings and Filling Matter)					
Synthetic colours	100 kin	16,202	8,060,218	18,394	9,147,156
Lacquer	,,	24,390	2,695,877	28,305	2,988,509
Group total		—	16,991,400	—	18,567,838
Group VIII (Yarns, Threads, Twine, Cordages and Materials)					
Cotton, ginned	100 kin	12,457,818	604,467,546	13,525,151	730,936,399
Cotton yarns	,,	17,690,433	14,476,546	16,355,730	13,251,795
Hemp, jute and Manila hemp	,,	1,114,704	13,904,475	1,334,734	15,094,043
Sheep's wool	,,	1,805,842	164,191,832	1,372,860	186,455,460
Woollen or worsted yarns	,,	12,285	3,020,918	6,899	1,708,380
Waste or old fibres	,,	171,898	5,198,747	172,052	5,203,754
Group total		—	822,078,780	—	969,156,807
Group IX (Tissues and Manufactures thereof)					
Cotton tissues	Sq. yard	9,098,917	2,954,205	1,404,399	955,082
Woollen cloths and serges	,,	817,467	3,365,558	560,874	2,442,862
Group total		—	14,704,817	—	10,653,970
Group X (Clothing and Accessories)					
Group total		—	1,044,163	—	1,030,201
Group XI (Paper, Paper Manufactures, Books and Pictures)					
Pulp for paper making	100 kin	2,708,373	27,066,350	3,814,656	44,255,752
Printing paper	,,	518,225	3,668,786	762,968	5,657,286
Books and periodicals		—	1,531,506	—	2,266,436
Group total		—	41,965,707	—	61,879,024
Group XII (Minerals and Manufactures thereof)					
Asbestos and manufactures thereof	100 kin	236,619	3,901,678	347,323	5,093,656
Phosphorite	,,	11,728,095	15,374,392	11,375,760	16,677,252
Coal	Long ton	3,440,703	36,657,486	3,996,506	47,192,729
Group total		—	64,965,980	—	79,851,152
Group XIII (Glass and Glass and Clay Manufactures)					
Plate or sheet glass	Sq. metre	2,070,770	3,896,711	1,667,388	3,853,462
Dry plates for photograph (undeveloped)	100 kin	14,162	2,195,113	12,564	1,823,972
Group total		—	7,995,653	—	7,894,338

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Group XIV (Ore and Metals)

		1933		1934	
		Quantity	Value (Yen)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
Iron Ore	100 kin	25,893,763	12,839,961	35,531,933	19,420,762
Platinum	1,000 gram	1,030,669	3,803,379	1,211,791	4,456,543
Pig iron	100 kin	10,680,855	25,251,759	10,239,965	26,528,461
Sheet bars	,,	1,083,933	4,533,673	1,023,219	5,018,933
Iron plates and sheets (tinned iron sheets and tinned steel sheets)	,,	1,331,868	22,916,015	1,468,025	25,698,178
Iron bands (hoop iron)	,,	1,395,115	8,275,234	1,276,664	9,869,847
Special steel	,,	117,549	4,865,018	117,970	6,327,021
Iron (waste or old)	,,	16,882,682	38,644,896	23,549,806	65,730,218
Aluminium	,,	120,646	10,233,107	169,597	12,576,368
Copper	,,	293,629	9,627,567	856,137	28,389,216
Lead	,,	1,120,905	12,011,984	1,585,234	17,977,326
Tin	,,	58,452	10,673,961	67,708	15,338,382
Zinc	,,	542,094	9,349,811	553,468	9,458,191
Nickel	,,	54,296	11,343,592	43,974	8,821,130
Mercury	,,	6,151	1,672,638	8,300	2,582,517
Brass and bronze	,,	55,573	1,291,830	114,687	2,653,726
Group total		—	233,634,698	—	307,309,733

Group XV (Metal Manufactures)

Iron cylinders for filling compressed gases	100 kin	9,653	342,284	45,059	1,589,309
Mechanic's tools, agricultural implements and parts thereof		—	532,185	—	1,023,751
Group total		—	6,533,815	—	8,706,009

Group XVI (Clocks, Watches, Scientific Instruments, Fire Arms, Vehicles and Machines)

Watches and clocks and parts thereof		—	2,244,698	—	2,795,902
Meters		—	1,704,158	—	1,607,134
Physical and chemical instruments		—	1,049,357	—	1,003,171
Photographic instruments		—	765,383	—	1,418,670
Telephonic instruments		—	2,268,572	—	1,002,352
Fire-arms		—	6,452,077	—	1,031,170
Automobiles	Number	491	1,864,392	896	3,357,061
Parts of automobiles		—	12,006,958	—	28,945,163
Steam boilers, parts and accessories thereof		—	1,790,678	—	4,090,880
Internal combustion engines	100 kin	62,082	16,147,618	158,219	20,777,828
Sewing machines	,,	7,880	2,060,832	25,049	5,622,664
Metal or wood working machinery	,,	87,230	16,247,079	153,125	21,432,589
Spinning machines	,,	33,975	3,520,143	54,695	6,394,679
Card clothing	,,	7,673	2,440,890	6,949	2,574,426
Group total		—	106,574,617	—	143,590,180

Group XVII (Miscellaneous)

Lumber		—	40,584,007	—	40,183,059
Film for cinematograph	100 kin	2,832	3,744,520	3,414	3,930,071
Fodder	,,	6,081,563	20,761,080	8,466,355	31,074,386
Wheat bran	,,	2,356,037	6,054,058	3,019,833	8,884,755
Oil cakes (bean)	,,	8,993,105	33,635,289	10,767,202	34,409,885
Group total		—	128,355,111	—	142,565,126
Articles by post		—	7,544,506	—	8,944,160
Travelling effects		—	666,128	—	682,016
Grand total		—	1,912,129,942	—	2,277,112,457
Re-Imports		—	5,089,916	—	5,489,143
Total imports		—	1,917,219,858	—	2,282,601,600

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Important Foreign Trade Countries

Great Britain Early in Meiji Great Britain, China, the United States and France were the most important countries for Japan's export trade. In the import trade Great Britain, China, France and the United States were the principal countries, in that order. With a rapid gain in the export of raw silk in 1879, the importance of export countries was changed to the United States, China, France and Great Britain, although no change was noted in their precedence as import countries. A change came over the precedence in import countries in 1893 and India became the largest exporting country to Japan, being followed by Great Britain, the United States and China in that order. This was due to the rapid growth of the Japanese spinning industry, for which Indian cotton was needed. At present Great Britain comes 6th in order of Japan's export trade and 7th of Japan's import trade. When British India is included, however, she stands next to the U. S. A. both in buying Japanese commodities and in selling her goods to Japan.

The U. S. A. America's economic condition and her financial and tariff policy have a direct bearing on Japan's export trade and domestic economy, for Japan's trade with the United States is far in excess of that with any other country. The close Japan-American trade relations trace back to the visit of Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan in the 6th year of Kaéi, 1853. In the early stage the trade volume was less than that with Great Britain and France, but in 1879 Japan's exports to that country gained to more than ¥10,000,000, and America became Japan's largest customer, a position she has since retained. In 1904 Japan's exports to America reached the ¥100,000,000 mark; in 1915 they amounted to ¥204,000,000 and in 1919 to ¥828,000,000, and the record amount was ¥1,006,000,000 in 1925. In the following year the amount went off to ¥860,000,000, but this, as compared with the exports of ¥4,000,000 in 1874, was an increase by 215 times and was 40 per cent. of Japan's total trade volume. Raw silk, silk textiles, refined tea, straw-braid, fancy mats and porcelain have been the principal exports from the very beginning. Imports from America increased in consonance with exports. In 1874 the value of imports was just over ¥1,000,000, this, by 1905 had advanced to ¥100,000,000, and in 1920 the amount set an all-time record of ¥873,000,000. The 1926 figure of ¥680,000,000 was 680 times the 1874 trade volume and was 26 per cent. of Japan's total import value of that year. Imports from America consist of raw cotton, kerosene oil, wheat, machinery and iron. The most unique feature of the Japan-American trade was that the trade balance was continuously in favour of Japan. In the last 60 years of trade relations, all but 1900, 1905, 1918, 1920, 1921 & 1932 saw an excess of exports over imports in favour of Japan. The latest three years, however, it has been reversed in favour of America. In 1934 the total volume of Japan-American trade comprised 26 per cent. of the total of Japan's foreign trade in that year.

China Japan entered into formal trade relations with China in 1873. Like Japan's trade with other countries, Japan's trade with that country made distinct development with the Sino-Japanese War, Russo-Japanese War and World War. Exports, which in 1873 amounted to only ¥4,786,000, went up to as high

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as ¥10,000,000 in each of the years 1887 and 1888. These years, however, were exceptional. The amount declined to ¥5,000,000 in 1889, but again advanced to the former level of ¥10,000,000 in 1896 and further to ¥117,000,000 in 1906 following the Russo-Japanese War. The largest amount, ¥597,000,000 was reached in 1919. In 1926 the amount still showed a total of ¥521,000,000, which meant 109 times the 1873 amount. The chief exports to China consist of marine products, spun silk, copper, cotton cloth, matches and sundry articles. Imports for 1873 from China amounted to ¥9,881,000; in 1907 the amount reached ¥60,000,000; and the all-time record amount was ¥484,000,000 in 1919. The 1926 figure of ¥396,000,000 meant 40 times the 1873 figure. Imports from China were kaoliang, beans, wild silk, raw cotton, wool, hides, ores and others. China supplies mostly raw materials to Japan who in return supplies manufactured goods. Japan's trade with China for 1931 experienced its worst set-back in recent years through the vigorous anti-Japanese movement following the outbreak of the Manchurian and Shanghai incidents. But the condition is turning for the better, regaining normal relation prior to the incidents, the trade between China (including Kwantung and Hong Kong) and Japan in 1934, amounting to ¥446,427,000 in Japan's export and ¥148,265,000 in the import.

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE EXPORTED TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥ 1,000)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
ASIA:							
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	25,947	82,071	107,151
China	373,141	346,652	260,825	155,750	129,478	108,253	117,062
Kwantung	110,190	124,476	86,814	65,541	120,584	221,068	295,868
British India	146,006	198,056	129,262	110,867	192,492	205,154	258,011
Hongkong	56,204	61,065	55,646	36,754	18,141	23,419	33,497
Straits Settlements	20,449	27,928	26,930	19,119	25,549	46,133	63,320
Asiatic Russia	11,197	15,033	26,973	14,941	13,065	12,090	11,366
French Indo-China	4,112	2,695	2,412	1,709	2,343	3,680	2,654
Dutch East Indies	73,414	87,125	66,047	63,450	100,254	157,487	158,450
Philippines	29,054	30,596	28,369	20,425	22,362	24,050	36,460
Siam	5,763	10,633	9,476	4,721	8,581	18,124	28,048
Aden	—	—	6,136	4,809	8,307	7,193	9,353
Syria	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,699
Iraq	—	—	—	—	—	—	17,166
Others	5,399	10,969	5,134	7,425	10,560	21,773	19,395
Total	834,934	915,232	704,030	505,018	677,613	930,636	1,169,503
EUROPE:							
Great Britain	58,904	63,183	60,682	51,830	59,658	87,849	109,269
France	63,408	44,494	26,302	15,774	21,358	38,736	38,318
Germany	12,582	13,449	11,106	8,102	9,098	12,411	19,677
Italy	6,190	6,108	6,120	3,204	5,660	6,167	9,579
Belgium	1,869	2,890	1,973	2,446	4,160	7,739	9,675
Austria	104	62	203	84	54	93	307
Switzerland	1,279	647	660	468	311	323	—
Netherlands	6,914	6,917	8,074	10,097	12,445	12,325	17,882
Russia	1,197	2,303	1,345	2,134	1,879	1,575	—
Norway	825	366	911	309	465	1,608	2,828
Sweden	812	864	939	1,239	1,610	3,259	6,113
Spain	869	1,258	880	683	910	1,844	—
Turkey	3,480	2,551	3,949	3,790	5,964	2,431	—
Denmark	1,472	1,083	1,430	1,045	1,412	1,412	—

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(In ¥1,000)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Greece	—	—	276	358	330	1,095	—
Portugal	9	17	69	59	344	529	—
Poland	11	13	10	15	19	44	—
Czechoslovakia	9	14	23	55	31	26	—
Other countries	455	1,072	407	296	639	2,605	—
Total	160,845	147,248	125,368	101,998	125,748	182,078	227,772
AMERICA:							
United States	826,141	914,084	506,112	425,330	445,147	492,237	398,928
Canada	27,047	27,096	17,884	13,067	8,562	6,580	8,666
Mexico	1,812	1,342	1,032	666	638	1,491	—
Cuba	611	1,256	1,248	641	962	3,328	9,986
Salvador	—	—	483	384	394	684	—
Colombia	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,005
Panama Canal Zone	—	—	376	449	551	1,110	—
Peru	1,785	2,601	2,234	800	841	3,899	6,879
Chile	1,884	2,719	2,471	804	286	1,475	7,459
Argentina	6,970	8,579	4,448	4,700	7,553	12,261	20,013
Brazil	1,982	1,572	958	642	1,330	2,765	—
Uruguay	—	—	4,114	1,150	422	2,451	6,965
Haiti	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,493
Others	11,993	11,507	3,706	3,754	5,541	17,423	—
Total	879,728	970,760	545,069	452,392	472,229	545,710	512,367
ALL OTHERS:							
Australia	43,000	44,075	25,486	18,405	36,895	51,416	64,462
Union of South Africa	11,694	13,179	14,196	19,282	16,418	26,740	29,539
East Africa	6,426	18,123	10,663	10,867	15,760	23,174	22,329
Egypt	23,714	31,352	28,997	22,829	41,876	55,607	72,988
Hawaii	6,472	6,271	6,392	5,623	6,676	6,484	5,526
New Zealand	3,092	4,094	3,226	1,966	2,993	6,452	8,588
French Morocco	—	—	—	—	—	—	19,076
Other countries	2,545	3,280	3,708	6,482	12,353	32,741	—
Total	96,946	115,376	92,671	85,460	132,973	206,618	262,252
Optional cargo	—	—	2,712	2,111	1,428	—	—
Total Exports	1,971,955	2,148,618	1,469,852	1,146,981	1,409,992	1,861,045	2,171,924

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED FROM VARIOUS COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
ASIA:							
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	25,999	147,897	164,209
China	234,514	209,975	161,666	145,697	102,746	113,357	119,562
Kwantung	150,439	166,322	121,405	90,165	76,719	20,161	27,223
British India	284,798	288,119	180,405	133,165	116,865	204,737	291,960
Hongkong	1,117	607	538	498	977	2,093	1,481
Straights Settlements	36,581	41,634	28,925	21,857	25,338	38,771	53,320
Asiatic Russia	22,014	22,874	37,218	30,864	31,078	31,042	32,753
French Indo-China	20,300	9,590	7,907	6,880	5,692	9,909	10,620
Dutch East Indies	112,917	77,345	59,983	46,080	40,409	55,709	63,464
Philippines	16,342	18,044	10,759	8,987	9,764	14,185	18,890
Siam	19,067	20,811	18,843	6,792	11,198	12,255	1,540
Aden	—	—	76	22	1	10	—
British Borneo	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,303
Others	5,107	2,627	229	327	501	8,424	—
Total	903,199	857,953	632,459	493,936	450,911	658,557	812,020

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(In ¥1,000)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
EUROPE:							
Great Britain	164,830	153,045	92,561	63,335	78,760	82,558	70,036
France	24,002	26,185	16,635	12,407	21,094	21,745	18,300
Germany	133,537	157,273	106,183	73,244	71,742	95,797	109,583
Italy	9,334	7,550	4,259	4,275	3,972	6,035	3,461
Belgium	14,497	15,828	8,024	4,726	6,133	14,693	17,226
Austria	1,724	1,718	1,423	935	1,549	2,473	3,542
Switzerland	19,640	17,570	15,231	10,396	12,105	9,185	10,925
Netherlands	4,772	5,462	2,938	2,884	3,879	3,717	3,652
Russia	2,141	3,080	2,582	3,787	1,357	5,717	8,055
Norway	4,538	4,680	5,502	3,292	5,956	11,624	14,279
Sweden	10,766	11,025	8,634	8,580	9,826	16,085	21,140
Spain	1,812	748	827	924	2,273	3,629	3,851
Turkey	247	202	54	374	189	976	1,973
Denmark	1,775	6,050	5,384	536	312	504	1,657
Greece	—	—	80	68	119	215	—
Portugal	445	717	853	873	1,303	1,515	1,448
Poland	3,235	5,487	5,388	4,999	1,638	947	—
Czechoslovakia	1,382	1,960	2,273	2,947	1,454	1,702	1,755
Others	507	1,253	934	1,178	1,649	3,685	—
Total	403,693	419,842	279,773	199,768	225,261	282,812	295,623
AMERICA:							
United States	625,536	654,060	442,881	342,289	509,873	620,778	769,359
Canada	66,464	68,729	46,164	35,672	39,504	46,801	54,093
Mexico	234	700	327	90	319	188	—
Cuba	954	758	20	16	196	193	—
Salvador	—	—	5	—	—	106	—
Panama Canal Zone	—	—	22	8	35	10	—
Peru	935	58	253	17	41	1,553	1,822
Chile	6,226	10,414	3,100	2,942	761	2,962	3,438
Argentina	4,673	3,235	2,812	2,901	2,719	6,738	12,128
Brazil	239	380	306	452	754	1,008	3,291
Uruguay	51	154	315	686	173	317	2,630
Others	462	126	62	209	359	368	—
Total	705,819	738,615	496,272	385,287	554,738	681,012	848,295
ALL OTHERS:							
Australia	130,494	132,600	94,308	113,337	134,277	204,586	197,757
Union of South Africa	1,341	1,447	1,618	1,332	2,635	4,312	8,233
East Africa	6,261	11,405	4,468	2,263	3,414	14,356	21,305
Egypt	20,340	25,824	16,222	13,567	19,787	26,455	46,259
Hawaii	175	145	73	268	532	135	—
New Zealand	796	677	389	1,439	1,470	2,399	11,594
Other countries	15,612	20,442	5,098	3,499	5,254	7,550	—
Total	168,759	181,138	122,179	135,709	167,372	259,797	293,870
Bonded	14,478	18,383	15,387	20,973	33,180	35,039	—
Unknown	363	306	—	—	—	—	—
Total Imports	2,196,314	2,216,240	1,546,070	1,235,675	1,431,461	1,917,219	2,282,601

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CHIEF ARTICLES OF TRADE BETWEEN JAPAN AND OTHER COUNTRIES

(In ¥1,000)

Manchoukuo

	1931	1932	1933	1934
From Japan				
Wheat flour	1,372	4,758	9,305	9,083
Refined Sugar	—	335	635	1,084
Beer	201	383	966	992
Cotton yarns	249	935	3,099	3,631
Silk and Rayon tissues	9	25	661	736
Cotton tissues	3,543	3,263	21,626	40,253
Woollen tissues	21	171	1,360	1,539
Knitted goods	37	12	1,022	899
Paper	1,551	812	1,287	1,933
Iron manufactures	88	230	1,458	1,882
Machinery and parts thereof	150	394	1,938	3,336
Hats and caps	3	6	698	803
Soap	13	174	651	782
Lumber	—	27	729	2,355
Potteries	—	87	531	1,238
Others and total	11,874	25,947	82,071	107,151
To Japan				
Beans and peas	12,128	21,076	45,342	47,609
Vegetable fibres	—	86	333	508
Oil-yielding seeds	1,060	1,492	9,294	10,456
Meats	0	42	316	332
Hides and skins	24	182	798	704
Oil cake	19,860	11,746	31,480	31,198
Coal	969	6,277	24,150	18,960
Pig iron	2,356	4,175	18,101	1,841
Wheat bran	—	85	25	139
Others and total	41,948	51,569	147,897	164,209

China

From Japan				
Wheat flour	5,907	6,153	3,340	109
Aquatic products	2,623	2,531	2,278	4,432
Sugar, refined	10,950	2,655	6,158	6,989
Beer	425	1,171	757	587
Cotton tissues	39,529	37,158	25,604	13,038
Woollen tissues	258	430	1,687	2,975
Paper	13,669	5,121	4,785	6,152
Coal	7,455	3,791	4,445	2,014
Glass and glass manufactures	1,023	809	1,047	1,191
Potteries	603	538	991	1,387
Iron	2,155	1,676	2,618	4,957
Iron manufactures	1,543	1,429	1,694	2,012
Brass	916	474	974	1,156
Soap	—	96	180	345
Machinery and parts thereof	6,731	3,848	4,951	9,691
Rubber tires	1,318	1,360	1,727	1,875
Lumber	2,277	2,362	2,702	2,704
Lamps and parts thereof	620	637	635	456
Hats and caps	465	194	507	967
Buttons	516	262	407	435
Others and total	143,876	129,478	108,253	117,062

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To Japan	1931	1932	1933	1934
Beans and peas	2,429	2,904	2,992	2,643
Oil-yielding seeds	8,454	6,878	9,477	11,215
Wheat bran	6,966	5,190	6,026	8,711
Wheat	—	—	—	92
Meats	7,441	2,548	3,964	5,009
Hides and skins	3,036	2,350	4,900	5,472
Oil cake	4,819	3,105	5,928	6,286
Caustic soda, soda-ash and natural soda	292	116	376	276
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	17,366	18,885	24,347	15,693
Vegetable fibres, excluding cotton	4,703	5,898	6,923	10,169
Coal	3,902	2,719	4,104	6,817
Ores	4,870	4,580	4,300	6,804
Tin	787	908	1,776	2,731
Others and total	103,749	77,175	118,357	119,562

Kwantung Province

From Japan				
Wheat flour	1,922	9,435	21,808	18,557
Aquatic products	895	1,977	2,268	2,263
Sugar, refined	1,959	4,416	6,994	4,781
Beer	735	1,509	2,240	2,189
Comestibles in tin and bottle	468	942	1,447	1,197
Cotton yarns	293	670	614	513
Silk and Rayon tissues	590	1,169	3,574	10,209
Cotton tissues	6,172	16,107	18,822	19,217
Woollen tissues	737	2,925	5,944	8,281
Knitted goods	324	547	842	1,014
Paper	2,088	3,609	6,128	6,851
Cement	113	299	1,824	4,119
Potteries	560	756	1,193	1,768
Iron	2,606	8,415	27,555	38,853
Iron manufactures	1,396	2,662	6,059	10,107
Brass	129	143	271	1,156
Machinery and parts thereof	4,280	3,953	14,197	39,429
Rubber tires	160	437	1,065	1,023
Lumber	528	723	2,854	4,141
Lamps and parts thereof	720	567	1,023	1,153
Soap	287	486	555	679
Others and total	65,541	120,583	221,068	295,868

To Japan				
Beans and peas	22,741	16,463	102	125
Oil-yielding seeds	2,541	2,772	95	26
Oil cake	18,413	16,861	2,218	3,364
Coal	17,012	12,902	396	31
Gum	916	1,441	663	—
Meat	—	1,441	663	713
Others and total	90,165	76,720	20,161	27,222

British India

From Japan				
Beer	649	694	900	528
Camphor	616	972	1,288	1,328
Menthol crystals	318	355	284	—
Cotton yarns	5,592	14,343	7,605	11,111
Silk and Rayon tissues	21,524	32,956	32,958	42,508
Silk handkerchiefs	262	363	619	1,369
Cotton tissues	49,866	80,653	71,163	74,132

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From Japan	1931	1932	1933	1934
Cotton towels	436	877	1,005	1,110
Cotton blankets	212	314	314	853
Woollen tissues	63	591	1,647	8,219
Knitted goods	3,901	6,698	9,628	834
Clothing and accessories	1,142	2,042	2,431	10,085
Paper	963	1,160	842	750
Cement	1,038	1,307	949	418
Glass and glass manufactures	2,239	4,106	5,506	5,473
Potteries	1,391	3,463	3,965	3,200
Iron	21	251	819	1,378
Iron manufactures	1,762	3,322	5,151	4,984
Brass	1,150	2,989	3,885	4,919
Machinery and parts thereof	470	900	2,104	2,272
Toys	711	1,465	3,809	3,067
Lumber	1,762	1,529	1,884	1,060
Lamps and parts thereof	809	909	1,233	1,219
Hats and caps	497	898	1,181	903
Soap	30	98	837	469
Umbrella	45	265	669	97
Buttons	319	636	639	1,303
Others and total	110,367	192,491	205,154	258,011
To Japan				
Beans and peas	811	1,300	1,434	1,370
Oil-yielding seeds	582	781	299	78
Leather	1,761	1,483	1,956	269
Oil cake	789	2,048	1,184	1,032
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	113,262	91,746	168,796	252,434
Vegetable fibres, excluding cotton	1,954	3,669	5,400	4,883
Ores	108	1,107	1,612	2,355
Pig iron	3,626	3,027	5,802	7,292
Lead	1,131	1,866	2,011	3,048
Gum	343	293	364	478
Others and total	133,165	116,865	204,737	291,959

Hong Kong

From Japan				
Aquatic products	2,752	574	1,397	2,792
Cotton yarns	449	1,336	291	—
Silk and Rayon tissues	1,662	338	521	929
Cotton tissues	9,764	3,755	5,674	7,310
Iron manufactures	—	125	266	508
Coal	3,124	4,347	5,226	3,638
Brass	—	49	150	1,015
Cement	2,553	2,047	1,214	668
Matches	693	12	154	954
Paper	—	524	649	1,251
Others and total	36,754	18,941	23,419	33,497
To Japan				
Tin	259	673	1,738	1,280
Others and total	498	977	2,093	1,481

Straits Settlements

From Japan				
Aquatic products	265	193	893	2,640
Silk and Rayon tissues	2,654	2,927	4,425	6,937

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	1931	1932	1933	1934
From Japan				
Glass and Glass manufactures	—	202	617	1,041
Cotton tissues	5,212	11,229	17,607	17,394
Coal	1,848	2,431	2,183	2,503
Cement	1,800	823	597	764
Potteries	210	374	900	1,289
Iron	—	618	371	48
Iron manufactures	226	345	1,186	2,245
Rubber tires	525	233	684	1,291
Toys	185	445	490	641
Knitted goods	—	232	771	1,320
Lumber	—	274	703	1,080
Matches	184	119	234	401
Others and total	19,119	25,546	46,183	63,320
To Japan				
Ores	8,433	7,284	8,820	8,742
Tin	2,084	3,793	5,329	10,612
Gum	9,272	10,060	20,499	37,818
Others and total	21,857	25,337	38,771	63,320

Asiatic Russia

From Japan				
Rice	382	457	412	483
Iron manufactures	2,392	1,497	1,183	941
Machinery and parts thereof	1,364	1,179	1,328	1,129
Others and total	14,941	13,065	12,090	11,366
To Japan				
Coal	1,246	1,144	1,938	2,670
Lumber	5,278	3,531	2,597	826
Others and total	30,880	31,078	31,042	32,752

French Indo-China

From Japan				
Silk and Rayon tissues	292	787	1,018	—
Others and total	1,709	2,343	3,680	2,654
To Japan				
Coal	5,106	4,295	6,037	7,105
Rice	—	19	57	332
Others and total	6,380	5,691	9,909	10,620

Dutch East Indies

From Japan				
Isinglass	401	448	458	647
Beer	234	535	1,639	224
Cotton yarns	357	1,445	1,236	1,695
Silk and Rayon tissues	8,910	14,365	15,988	14,081
Cotton tissues	28,279	50,228	78,273	82,828
Cotton towels	306	749	894	843
Cotton blankets	250	369	682	892
Knitted goods	1,569	2,524	4,234	4,388
Paper	129	643	1,082	514
Cement	2,198	2,600	1,368	667
Potteries	1,711	2,414	3,728	3,168
Glass and glass manufactures	1,149	1,070	2,068	1,931

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From Japan	1931	1932	1933	1934
Iron manufactures	841	2,575	4,365	5,055
Rubber tires	1,265	1,223	2,498	3,323
Toys	593	803	1,924	1,184
Lamps and parts thereof	590	766	1,706	1,336
Lumber	1,008	894	1,264	1,071
Hats and caps	872	728	1,230	903
Soap	22	149	486	—
Buttons	103	228	461	413
Umbrella	127	124	126	95
Matches	111	66	107	110
Others and total	63,450	100,254	157,487	158,450
To Japan				
Oil-yielding seeds	1,405	2,326	2,249	2,075
Sugar	15,587	3,133	12,786	9,678
Mineral oil, under 0.730 S.G.	619	353	41	317
Mineral oil, under 0.8762 S.G.	12,636	14,511	15,789	18,399
Tin	392	287	1,705	217
Lumber	760	681	1,609	2,152
Gum	3,206	4,995	7,267	14,383
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	—	257	269	577
Others and total	46,080	40,409	55,709	63,464

Philippine Islands

From Japan				
Silk and Rayon tissues	3,063	1,910	1,057	1,956
Cotton tissues	4,162	2,769	5,779	13,205
Knitted goods	1,959	3,744	2,670	3,431
Coal	1,583	1,568	1,651	1,447
Glass and glass manufactures	519	503	809	881
Potteries	400	635	959	—
Iron manufactures	650	469	932	927
Matches	205	98	136	111
Others and total	20,425	22,362	24,050	36,460
To Japan				
Vegetable fibres, excluding cotton	6,525	7,056	9,616	10,913
Others and total	8,987	9,764	14,185	18,890

Siam

From Japan				
Cotton tissues	795	3,338	6,778	10,818
Cotton blankets	128	305	985	1,175
Iron manufactures	380	568	1,190	1,609
Others and total	4,721	8,581	18,128	28,048
To Japan				
Rice	5,694	10,127	10,882	—
Lumber	988	999	1,239	1,012
Others and total	6,792	11,197	12,255	1,540

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Great Britain

From Japan	1931	1932	1933	1934
Beans and peas	2,874	4,521	5,481	6,222
Comestibles in tin and bottle	4,635	6,157	13,186	24,711
Fish and whale oils	756	1,130	591	482
Vegetable oil	846	769	510	890
Peppermint oil	84	278	672	557
Silk, raw	6,161	9,257	14,654	14,237
Silk and rayon tissues	4,212	4,761	8,726	11,548
Silk handkerchiefs	205	299	431	544
Knitted goods	5,488	3,837	6,560	7,672
Plaits for hat making	266	486	744	1,063
Potteries	696	825	1,296	1,161
Hats and caps	700	458	689	929
Lumber	1,381	2,865	3,887	5,089
Toys	2,099	2,288	4,053	4,604
Buttons	937	1,315	1,555	1,796
Brushes	471	505	693	1,038
Others and total	53,166	60,536	87,849	109,269
To Japan				
Leather	406	342	404	222
Ammonium sulphate, crude	3,788	2,386	1,828	1,838
Caustic soda, soda-ash and natural soda	2,372	3,872	1,902	2,163
Woollen yarn	2,264	3,132	2,168	1,669
Cotton tissues	2,296	2,080	1,212	735
Sheep's wool	157	375	1,051	904
Wool tissues	7,884	8,597	6,833	5,041
Printing paper	840	757	486	574
Other irons	7,790	13,219	17,299	11,491
Aluminium	70	352	557	146
Automobiles and parts thereof	161	469	452	401
Dynamos and electric motors	605	165	131	107
Other machinery and parts thereof	11,662	12,419	12,204	15,797
Others and total	63,334	78,760	82,558	70,036

France

From Japan				
Peppermint oil	87	299	571	504
Menthol crystals	131	502	1,426	783
Camphor	89	227	414	406
Silk, raw	1,879	7,107	15,378	20,333
Waste silk and Floss silk	495	427	656	891
Silk and Rayon tissues	1,966	2,064	3,524	2,373
Plaits for hat making	255	831	1,177	452
Potteries	1,079	311	643	—
Others and total	16,099	21,547	38,736	38,318
To Japan				
Synthetic colours	524	631	579	574
Aluminium	63	268	354	775
Other machinery and parts thereof	1,662	4,448	3,422	3,324
Others and total	12,398	21,094	21,745	18,299

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Germany

From Japan	1931	1932	1933	1934
Silk and rayon tissues	—	252	362	706
Isinglass	522	532	480	537
Fish and whale oils	496	628	886	1,405
Peppermint oil	165	248	392	542
Plaits for hat making	251	477	691	—
Buttons	626	804	739	—
Vegetable oil	—	275	414	636
Others and total	8,423	9,349	12,411	19,677
To Japan				
Leather	583	625	565	837
Ammonium sulphate, crude	10,984	4,187	6,942	11,680
Synthetic colours	4,082	4,959	5,217	5,979
Wool tissues	1,699	1,541	297	105
Pulp for paper making	245	1,293	621	361
Irons	9,717	11,228	24,885	23,592
Aluminium	543	378	974	364
Rails and plates	174	454	87	—
Automobiles and parts thereof	73	394	92	105
Other machinery and parts thereof	10,415	9,699	15,978	24,318
Dynamos and electric motors	552	722	984	588
Others and total	73,250	71,741	95,797	109,583

Italy

From Japan				
Waste silk and Floss silk	86	120	333	540
Others and total	3,215	5,672	6,167	9,579
To Japan				
Drugs, chemicals	—	577	463	—
Waste yarns and waste threads	—	239	1,018	—
Hats	—	408	249	—
Others and total	4,262	3,971	6,035	3,461

Poland

From Japan				
Total	15	19	44	—
To Japan				
Woollen yarn	4,867	1,512	830	—
Others and total	4,999	1,638	947	—

Austria

From Japan				
Total	84	54	93	—
To Japan				
Irons	514	909	1,776	2,560
Others and total	935	1,549	2,473	3,542

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Belgium

	1931	1932	1933	1934
From Japan				
Total	2,446	4,160	7,739	9,675
To Japan				
Irons	2,143	3,021	10,443	11,940
Others and total	4,726	6,133	14,693	17,226

Norway

From Japan				
Total	309	464	1,608	—
To Japan				
Pulp for paper making	2,013	4,115	7,577	10,463
Others and total	3,292	5,956	11,624	14,279

Switzerland

From Japan				
Total	468	811	323	—
To Japan				
Synthetic colours	1,431	2,025	1,236	1,336
Cotton tissues	1,500	1,796	403	96
Alminium	719	589	1,026	555
Watches and parts thereof	2,154	2,684	1,993	2,468
Dynamos and electric motors	74	196	163	—
Other machinery and parts thereof	1,568	2,139	2,005	3,499
Others and total	10,410	12,104	9,185	10,925

Holland

From Japan				
Fish and whale oils	78	527	201	—
Potteries	1,200	848	981	761
Toys	813	597	1,211	1,184
Others and total	10,136	12,444	12,325	17,882
To Japan				
Total	2,884	3,879	3,717	3,652

Sweden

From Japan				
Total	1,289	1,610	3,259	6,113
To Japan				
Pig iron	70	36	541	—
Other irons	974	1,830	3,897	4,702
Machinery and parts thereof	1,248	1,862	3,721	5,395
Gum	1,220	1,792	3,571	—
Pulp for paper making	—	1,792	3,571	7,438
Others and total	8,580	9,826	16,085	21,140

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Turkey

	1931	1932	1933	1934
From Japan				
Cotton tissues	3,506	5,574	2,024	1,392
Others and total	3,790	5,964	2,431	—
To Japan				
Total	874	139	976	1,973

The U. S. A.

From Japan				
Beans and peas	831	132	200	—
Tea	5,274	4,752	5,083	4,629
Aquatic products	1,926	975	1,191	1,713
Isinglass	723	537	674	479
Comestibles in tin and bottle	7,810	8,053	17,838	11,182
Vegetable oil	2,593	2,502	5,804	8,859
Dried plants for insectifuge	1,179	4,349	5,499	6,790
Menthol crystals	1,669	2,014	2,691	2,575
Camphor	1,348	1,217	1,568	1,716
Silk, raw	342,479	360,148	355,805	339,568
Waste silk and floss silk	1,583	141	73	78
Silk and rayon tissues	4,626	4,243	6,135	5,258
Silk handkerchiefs	546	200	579	623
Cotton tissues	63	264	1,298	2,863
Plaits for hat making	622	632	3,303	4,946
Knitted goods	450	510	879	1,514
Paper	918	735	943	636
Potteries	6,634	6,441	10,180	14,313
Toys	2,921	4,986	6,975	9,603
Hats and caps	6,136	3,032	4,143	4,521
Lamps and parts thereof	3,009	4,667	3,273	3,159
Brushes	1,122	1,256	1,679	1,807
Buttons	128	157	357	—
Glass and glass manufactures	—	491	802	1,315
Others and total	425,330	445,147	492,237	398,928
To Japan				
Wheat	2,523	751	238	9,869
Rice and paddy	1,275	1,783	580	—
Hides and skins	2,218	3,396	4,320	6,280
Leather	1,468	982	766	750
Mineral oil, under 0.876 S.G.	19,521	18,702	14,568	10,099
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	2,994	2,996	2,718	3,999
Caustic soda, soda-ash and natural soda	2,884	1,013	1,036	472
Synthetic colours	1,025	1,157	881	1,116
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	153,700	320,751	381,655	400,918
Cotton tissues	318	69	45	56
Pulp for paper making	2,418	3,951	7,801	16,321
Paper	—	98	75	135
Irons	8,172	11,239	27,395	67,466
Lead	2,511	3,275	4,011	6,823
Zinc	147	388	824	1,352
Copper	—	123	7,238	26,137
Alminium	106	675	89	33
Rails and plates	333	410	262	362
Watches and parts thereof	288	131	55	184
Automobiles and parts thereof	15,816	13,838	13,288	31,553
Dynamos and electric motors	766	592	376	398
Other machinery and parts thereof	15,485	17,176	21,869	35,137
Lumber	26,176	20,225	23,744	20,966
Others and total	342,289	509,873	620,778	769,359

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Canada

From Japan	1931	1932	1933	1934
Rice	458	397	600	1,195
Tea	675	671	721	875
Silk, raw	2,595	1,164	208	411
Potteries	1,139	1,317	1,399	1,508
Others and total	13,067	8,562	6,580	8,666
To Japan				
Wheat	7,937	8,762	10,243	8,119
Pulp for paper making	5,200	3,144	6,043	7,244
Printing paper	1,154	3,497	2,976	4,595
Coal	7,776	7,346	7,632	—
Lead	4,240	4,298	5,542	7,405
Zinc	1,506	2,618	3,957	3,419
Lumber	—	9,469	7,632	7,346
Others and total	35,672	39,504	46,891	54,098

Chile

From Japan				
Cotton tissues	371	193	1,223	6,072
Others and total	804	286	1,475	7,489
To Japan				
Sheep's wool	—	22	464	934
Potteries	—	150	395	628
Crude nitrate of soda	2,685	706	2,464	2,272
Others and total	2,942	761	2,962	3,438

Argentine

From Japan				
Silk and Rayon tissues	1,907	2,169	2,537	1,369
Cotton tissues	1,407	3,300	6,615	13,955
Buttons	—	269	291	487
Others and total	4,700	7,553	12,261	20,013
To Japan				
Sheep's wool	873	481	2,427	7,552
Others and total	2,901	2,719	6,788	12,128

Uruguay

From Japan				
Cotton tissues	—	55	553	2,071
Silk and Rayon tissues	777	232	1,578	4,337
Others and total	1,150	422	2,451	6,964
To Japan				
Total	686	173	317	2,630

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Egypt

	1931	1932	1933	1934
From Japan				
Cotton yarns	43	325	259	—
Silk and Rayon tissues	3,954	9,182	7,704	8,076
Cotton tissues	14,957	27,068	38,351	46,833
Knitted goods	1,305	1,818	3,370	3,029
Potteries	—	408	438	627
Cotton towels	—	195	451	516
Others and total	22,829	41,876	55,607	72,988
To Japan				
Sulphate of ammonium, crude	1,390	3,664	5,960	4,787
Seed cotton and ginned cotton	11,619	15,300	19,084	39,787
Others and total	13,567	19,787	26,455	46,259

Union of South Africa

From Japan				
Silk and Rayon tissues	6,954	5,657	8,610	10,899
Cotton tissues	5,450	5,338	5,911	4,458
Knitted goods	1,293	1,314	2,565	1,884
Glass and glass manufactures	—	158	450	757
Lumber	292	291	878	971
Toys	—	116	391	865
Others and total	19,282	16,418	26,740	29,539
To Japan				
Sheep's wool	64	1,031	2,529	5,780
Others and total	1,332	2,635	4,312	8,233

East Africa

From Japan				
Total	10,867	15,760	23,174	37,454
To Japan				
Caustic soda, soda-ash and natural soda	1,627	1,155	229	1,261
Others and total	2,263	3,414	14,356	21,305

Australia

From Japan				
Silk, raw	1,928	3,165	3,297	4,017
Silk and Rayon tissues	9,329	16,623	19,934	25,776
Cotton tissues	2,856	4,874	10,029	14,783
Cotton towels	172	383	656	720
Lamps and parts	—	433	606	559
Glass and glass manufactures	—	357	755	832
Potteries	665	1,768	2,707	—
Toys	207	861	1,811	1,765
Comestibles in tin and bottle	—	215	328	797
Others and total	18,405	36,895	51,416	64,461
To Japan				
Wheat	22,466	40,098	33,886	22,032
Meats	378	447	275	276
Beef tallow	2,382	2,437	3,250	2,588
Hides and skins	318	192	558	907
Sheep's wool	83,295	84,245	156,518	159,241
Zinc	1,198	1,594	2,102	2,293
Lead	—	322	249	579
Others and total	118,337	134,277	204,586	197,757

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New Zealand

	1931	1932	1933	1934
From Japan				
Silk and Rayon tissues	609	863	1,333	2,136
Others and total	1,966	2,993	6,452	8,588
To Japan				
Total	1,439	1,470	2,399	11,594

Hawaii

From Japan				
Aquatic products	722	720	560	—
Comestibles in tin and bottle	635	868	954	829
Others and total	5,623	6,676	6,484	5,526
To Japan				
Total	268	532	135	—

The Invisible Trade

The invisible foreign trade of Japan for 1933 continued to show an excess of receipts according to the report of the Finance Ministry. It amounted to ¥66,233,000, an increase of ¥51,115,000, as compared with the previous year. This gain was mainly due to the increase in receipts from foreign investment in Japan and in collection of capital invested abroad. As compared with the previous year, an increase was recorded in all items except payments to foreigners which showed a decrease of over ¥10,000,000 and also collection of foreign capital invested in Japan which decreased over ¥90,000,000. All told the total increase in assets was ¥190,444,000 (25%) and that in liabilities ¥139,329,000 (18%).

INVISIBLE FOREIGN TRADE OF JAPAN
(Compiled by the Ministry of Finance)
(In ¥1,000)

	Items	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
I	Assets (Invisible Exports):					
(a)	Ordinary receipts:					
	Interest and dividends on foreign securities	21,729	22,442	17,971	19,362	23,806
	Profit from undertakings abroad and remunerations for services rendered abroad	133,254	106,319	89,979	157,244	167,378
	Receipts in connection with shipping	238,534	194,420	166,911	181,843	227,930
	Insurance	125,712	116,218	108,812	117,258	117,570
	Receipts from foreign nationals in Japan, tourists, missionaries, etc.	57,983	50,730	43,166	55,478	69,458
	Government receipts from abroad	13,207	15,834	7,647	4,964	7,218
	Others	18,320	18,873	12,278	41,267	51,120
	Total	608,739	524,836	446,764	577,416	664,480
(b)	Extraordinary receipts.					
	Foreign capital invested in Japan	158,344	281,138	152,624	84,475	119,556
	Collection of capital invested abroad	209,288	149,617	286,950	105,988	174,287
	Total	367,632	430,755	439,574	190,463	293,843
	Grand total	976,371	955,591	886,338	767,879	958,323

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	Items	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
II	Liabilities (Invisible Imports):					
(a)	Ordinary Payments:					
	Interest and dividends on Japanese securities possessed by foreign nationals	108,994	103,103	90,355	108,330	138,914
	Profit of sund foreigner takings and remunerations for foreign services in Japan	17,151	15,682	11,895	19,857	9,466
	Payments in connection with shipping	79,359	69,085	66,270	82,142	101,868
	Payments in connection with insurance	117,421	115,854	105,896	108,359	108,876
	Expenditures abroad of Japanese tourists and travellers	54,647	50,017	44,897	39,852	68,462
	Government expenditures abroad	36,740	30,058	37,896	89,182	128,008
	Others	7,177	8,022	5,935	14,440	21,677
	Total	421,489	391,821	363,144	462,162	577,271
(b)	Extraordinary Payments:					
	Investment abroad of Japanese capital	225,091	269,272	303,154	100,954	215,775
	Collection of foreign capital invested in Japan	234,962	309,401	369,084	189,645	99,044
	Total	460,053	578,673	672,238	290,599	314,819
	Grand total	881,542	970,494	1,035,382	752,761	892,090
III	Balance:					
(a)	Excess of ordinary receipts	187,250	133,015	83,620	115,254	87,209
(b)	Excess of extraordinary payments	92,421	147,918	232,664	100,136	20,976
	Excess of receipts (+) or payments (−)	+94,829	−14,903	−149,044	+15,118	+66,233

Balance of International Payments

This table is based on the form required by the League of Nations and includes the figures for the foreign trade of Korea and Formosa. The figures were prepared by the Ministry of Finance:

CURRENT ITEMS:

INWARD OR CREDIT MOVEMENTS (Exports)

		1929	1930	1931	1932
			(In million yen)		
	Merchandise				
(1)	Merchandise, including silver bullion and coins other than gold, exported (according to trade returns)	2,250.2	1,547.8	1,198.7	1,491.7
(2)	Adjustment of (1) in order to arrive at the commercial value of f.o.b.	—	—	—	—
(3)	Contraband exports	—	—	—	—
	Total	2,250.2	1,547.8	1,198.7	1,491.7
	Interest and dividends				
(4)	Interest received on inter-governmental debts (inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—	—	—
(5)	Interest received on other foreign Government and municipal loans	12.2	11.0	9.9	9.9
(6)	Other interest and dividends received from long-term capital investment abroad	84.8	73.2	62.4	72.2

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		1929	1930	1931	1932
			(In million yen)		
(7)	Interest received from short-term capital invested abroad	5.4	6.5	3.9	5.1
	Total	102.4	90.7	76.2	87.2
	Other services				
(8)	Income of national ships on account of all foreign traffic:				
	a. ordinary freights	205.3	161.0	140.2	154.5
	b. charter money	1.8	4.0	2.2	1.6
	c. passage money	15.0	16.8	13.9	12.7
(9)	Port receipts from foreign shipping in national ports	3.8	3.2	3.9	5.0
(10)	Transport and other charges received for foreign goods transhipped or in transit	—	—	—	—
(11)	Commissions, insurance, brokerage and similar receipts	125.7	116.2	108.8	117.9
(12)	Port and telegraph and telephone earnings	1.1	0.8	1.5	1.2
(13) (14)	Funds brought in by immigrants and returned emigrants / Emigrants' remittances and money gifts from abroad	60.9	49.0	42.7	98.4
(15)	Receipts from foreign tourists and travellers	44.6	35.1	27.7	39.9
(16)	Diplomatic, consular and similar expenditures in Japan	5.1	4.6	4.5	6.6
(17)	Receipts for services rendered in Japan for "persons" domiciled abroad	—	—	—	—
(18)	Government receipts in cash on account of reparation payments:				
	a. amortisation / b. interest	3.5	6.7	2.0	—
(19)	Counter-value of reparation receipts in kind, included in merchandise imported below	4.3	2.5	1.2	—
(20)	Government receipts from abroad	4.4	5.9	2.9	3.7
(21)	Other current items	1.8	1.5	1.0	23.6
	Total	477.3	407.3	352.5	464.5
	Gold Coin and Bullion				
(22)	Gold bullion and gold specie exported according to trade returns	—	308.6	419.9	112.7
(23)	Adjustment of (22) in order to arrive at the commercial value f.o.b.	—	—	—	—
	Total	—	308.6	419.9	112.7
	Grand total	2,829.9	2,354.4	2,047.3	2,156.1

OUTWARD OR DEBIT MOVEMENTS (Imports)

		1929	1930	1931	1932
			(In million yen)		
	Merchandise				
(24)	Merchandise, including silver bullion and coins other than gold, imported (according to trade returns)	2,414.0	1,720.5	1,340.8	1,548.5
(25)	Adjustment of (24) in order to arrive at the commercial value f.o.b.	—	—	—	—
(26)	Contraband imports	—	—	—	—
	Total	2,414.0	1,720.5	1,340.8	1,548.5
	Interest and dividends				
(27)	Interest paid on inter-governmental debts (inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—	—	—
(28)	Interest paid on other Government and municipal foreign debt	65.7	64.3	55.0	58.0
(29)	Interest and dividends paid on foreign long-term capital invested in Japan	47.4	42.7	38.1	60.5
(30)	Interest paid on foreign short-term capital invested in Japan	9.1	8.9	6.7	6.5
	Total	122.2	115.9	99.8	125.0
	Other Services				
(31)	Payments to foreign ships on account of traffic between domestic ports:				
	a. ordinary freights	—	—	—	—

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		1929	1930	1931	1932
			(In million yen)		
	b. charter money	0.9	0.3	0.6	1.7
	c. passage money	—	—	—	—
(32)	Port expenses incurred by national shipping in foreign ports	47.9	40.9	40.5	49.3
(33)	Transport payments to foreign carriers	—	—	—	—
(34)	Commission, insurance, brokerage and similar payments	117.4	115.9	105.9	108.4
(35)	Post, telegraph and telephone payments	7.0	5.6	4.6	5.3
(36) (37)	Funds taken out by emigrants and returning immigrants / Immigrants' remittances and money gifts and travellers	4.6	3.5	3.0	3.9
(38)	Expenditures abroad by national tourists and travellers	42.1	39.7	34.4	29.6
(39)	Diplomatic, consular and similar expenditures abroad	11.9	9.8	9.9	9.6
(40)	Payments for services rendered abroad for "persons" domiciled in Japan	—	—	—	—
(41)	Government payments in cash on account of reparations:				
	a. amortisation	—	—	—	—
	b. interest	—	—	—	—
(42)	Counter-value of reparation deliveries in kind, included in merchandise exports above	—	—	—	—
(43)	Government expenditures abroad	29.8	24.4	33.3	83.9
(44)	Other current items	13.2	14.6	12.1	21.3
	Total	274.8	236.7	244.3	313.5
	Gold coin and bullion				
(45)	Gold bullion and gold specie imported (according to trade returns)	0.5	21.9	31.7	0.7
(46)	Adjustment of (45) in order to arrive at the commercial value c.i.f.	—	—	—	—
	Total	0.5	21.9	31.7	0.7
	Grand total	2,811.5	2,095.0	1,716.6	1,987.7

CAPITAL ITEMS:

INWARD OR CREDIT CAPITAL MOVEMENT

		1929	1930	1931	1932
	Long-term operations		(In million yen)		
(1)	Receipts on account of amortisation of inter-governmental debts (Inter-allied debts, etc.)	—	—	—	—
(2)	Receipt on account of other foreign Government and municipal loans	56.4	5.6	23.8	—
(3)	Receipts on account of amortisation of other loans	42.0	35.1	44.3	31.1
(4)	Existing domestic securities sold abroad	65.7	109.8	74.5	8.0
(5)	Foreign securities resold abroad	110.8	108.9	218.8	74.9
(6)	Real estate sold abroad:				
	a. abroad / b. in Japan	—	—	—	—
(7)	Sale of new domestic securities on account of new loans floated abroad:				
	a. Government and municipal loans	—	102.5	49.7	—
	b. Other loans	23.0	—	—	—
(8)	Sale of new domestic securities on account of foreign participation in domestic capital issues	—	—	—	—
(9)	Other foreign long-term capital invested in Japan	—	—	—	—
	Total	297.9	361.9	411.1	114.0
	Short-term operations				
(10)	Net increase in foreign short-term debts on account of credit raised and repaid	129.3	—	1.3	67.7
(11)	Net decrease in foreign floating assets on account of short-term credits granted and repaid	—	18.0	—	—
	Total	129.3	18.0	1.3	67.7
	Grand total	427.2	379.9	412.4	181.7

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OUTWARD OR DEBIT CAPITAL MOVEMENT

		1929	1930	1931	1932
	Long-term operations		(In million yen)		
(12)	Payments on account of amortisation of inter-governmental debts (Inter-allied debts)	—	—	—	—
(13)	Payments on account of amortisation of other Government and municipal foreign debt	9.4	6.1	97.9	57.1
(14)	Payments on account of amortisation of other loans raised abroad	28.3	9.8	12.4	52.8
(15)	Repurchase of national securities formerly held abroad	87.9	168.7	231.5	70.9
(16)	Purchase of existing foreign securities issued abroad	152.5	193.2	225.1	4.8
(17)	Real estate purchased abroad:				
	a. abroad	—	—	—	—
	b. in Japan	—	—	—	—
(18)	New foreign capital in foreign capital issues	—	—	—	—
(19)	Participation of domestic capital in foreign capital issues	—	—	—	—
(20)	Other long-term capital investment made abroad	72.6	76.1	78.1	96.2
	Total	350.7	453.9	645.0	281.8
	Short-term operations				
(21)	Net decrease in foreign short-term debts on account of credits raised and repaid	—	—	—	—
(22)	Net increase in foreign floating assets on account of short-term credits granted and repaid	133.4	221.4	81.3	229.8
	Total	133.4	221.4	81.3	229.8
	Grand total	484.1	675.3	726.3	511.1
	Net inward (+) or outward (−) movement of capital	−56.9	−295.4	−318.9	−329.4

Customs Duties

It was in 1859, at the time when most of the early commercial treaties with the Western Powers had been concluded, that custom-houses were for the first time established and customs duties were levied at a few open ports selected for the purpose. The customs tariff of that time was entirely determined by treaty; but the term of its operation was exceedingly short and the whole tariff was revised by treaty in 1866. This revised tariff kept our customs duties unchanged until 1899 when the treaties of commerce and navigation with the foreign Powers came into operation.

The coming into effect from 1899 of the revised commercial treaties with the foreign powers made it possible to bring into operation the general tariff which, combined with the conventional tariffs newly concluded, formed the customs tariff of our country. At the same time the export duties were entirely abolished.

In 1904 the urgent needs of the extraordinary fund in connection with the war with Russia led to the imposition of a special surtax on the customs duties as well as on the other taxes, and soon after the restoration of peace the entire customs tariff was revised and came into operation on October 1, 1906.

The Tariff Revision The Import Tariff Revision Bill passed the Imperial Diet in 1910 and was promulgated by Law No. 54 in April of the same year. The new tariff came into operation on July 17, 1911, but since then the tariff has been revised several times and at present the number of articles enumerated is 647, classified into seventeen groups; they are further subdivided and the duties thereon are converted as far as possible into specific duties. Raw materials are mostly duty-free; upon half-manufactured materials light duties are levied;

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and upon manufactured goods the rates vary from 15% to 40%; but on many manufactured goods low rates are imposed, while the goods on which the duty of 40% is imposed are manufactured goods which are imported in small quantities. Again, though a duty of 50% is levied upon articles of luxury, their importation is also very small.

As the Tariff Conventions concluded with Great Britain and Germany were to terminate on July 16, 1911, and that with France on the 3rd of the following month, negotiations for their revision were opened with these countries prior to their termination. Although the new Tariff Conventions with Great Britain and Germany came into force simultaneously with the expiration of the old Convention, the new Convention with France could not be established before the expiration of the old; and accordingly a provisional Convention was concluded pending the establishment of the new Convention, which was put in operation on February 29th of the following year.

A new tariff convention was also concluded with Italy in June, 1913.

Tariff in Korea In conformity with the Imperial Declaration concerning the Annexation of Chosen in 1910, the tariff system of the former Korean Empire was left in force in the territory for ten years after the event. On expiration of the term of ten years on August 28, 1920, the tariff in force in Japan proper was applied to Chosen.

The Luxury Duties Under the law No. 24, promulgated on July 31, 1924, which regulates import duties on certain luxuries, a hundred per cent. ad valorem import duty was imposed for the time being on about one hundred and twenty kinds of goods which were designated as luxuries.

A partial amendment of the import duties on luxuries was made on April 1, 1925, exempting articles imported for industrial use, materials for re-export and certain other materials from the 100% duties.

Kwantung Province With the object of encouraging the industries in Kwantung Province and of promoting exports to the home country, portland cement and twenty-nine other articles produced in the province were exempted from import duties by the Act of June 18, 1925.

The Revision of 1926 Although several amendments in minor details had been made from time to time, the customs tariff of the country has remained practically unchanged since 1910, and has not been adapted to the great change in economic conditions at home and abroad. The Government, therefore, introduced into the Imperial Diet in 1926 a Bill proposing a general amendment embodying the following principles:

(a) Raw materials which are not produced or are scarce in this country are to be free of duties.

(b) Necessary protection is to be given to staple industries that have bright prospects for the future.

(c) Import duties are to be left untouched or are to be reduced with respect to foreign articles with which home produce is able to compete.

(d) Duties on the necessaries of daily life are to be reduced.

(e) In order to discourage consumption, high duties are to be imposed upon articles other than necessaries of daily life.

(f) The number of specific duties are to be increased and more minute classification of articles is to be made for convenience in the imposition of duties.

Tariff Revision for Kwantung Province An amendment was made as to the articles exempted from import duties under the preference given to Kwantung province, by adding soy-

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bean oil and certain kinds of manufactured cloths to the free list. This amendment was put into effect on April 1, 1927.

For the customs tariff law and the customs duties on the principal commodities see Chapter VIII and Appendix.

Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law

This law, intended to protect Japan's foreign trade, particularly against restrictive measures undertaken by other nations to which Japanese goods are exported, was adopted at the 65th session of the Imperial Diet and has been in force since May 1, 1934. According to a Foreign Office statement, the promulgation of this law has been made necessary, because of a growing tendency in other countries to ignore the fundamental economic principles of ministering to one another's wants and promoting through their cooperative efforts the progress and prosperity of mankind, which is reflected in their attempts to suppress importation of foreign goods by means of high tariffs, restriction of imports, etc., and particularly because of the increasing number of countries which are setting up barriers against Japan's export trade. The law is intended to enable Japan to adjust her trade to the above situation, to balance thereby her international payments, and at the same time to take, if necessary, appropriate measures for safeguarding her commerce. It is stipulated in the law that the Government, whenever they consider it specially necessary for the purpose of adjusting trade or safeguarding commerce in answer to the measures that have been, or are to be, taken by foreign countries, may, in accordance with provisions of Imperial Ordinance and with the approval of the Tariff Investigation Commission, in respect of specified articles, and during a specified period of time, impose on such articles, in addition to the import duties enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, import duties not exceeding in amount their value ; or reduce, or exempt them from, import duties ; or prohibit or restrict the exportation or importation thereof.

First Application of the Law On July 20, 1935, the Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law was first applied against the chief imports into Japan from the Dominion of Canada, imposing 50 per cent. additional ad valorem duties upon them for a term of one year. The gist of the statement of the Foreign Office follows :

Under the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation by which Canada is bound, Japan and Canada must accord to each other the most-favoured-nation treatment. In spite of this fact, under the pretext of the fall in the exchange value of our currency, Canada has, in the imposition of ad valorem duty on all classes of Japanese goods, been determining the value of Japanese goods in terms of Canadian currency according to the legal value of exchange (¥100 to $49.85) and making this the standard value for the imposition of tariffs. Not only so, but Canada has been levying on such Japanese goods as it deems of the same class or kind as those made in Canada, the so-called exchange dumping duty, which is equivalent to the difference between the converted value based on the legal exchange value, and the actual value according to the current exchange quotation (¥100 to about $29).

While the Canadian laws provide for the application of the said converted value for the assessment of tariffs and of the exchange dumping

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duty on the products of all countries, about 20, whose currency has depreciated more than 5 per cent. in exchange value as compared with Canadian currency, yet as a matter of fact the products of only five countries besides Japan are affected. Furthermore, as the trade of those five countries with Canada is not only negligible but involves an extremely small amount of goods upon which the exchange dumping duty is levied, it is, in effect, only Japanese commodities that are subjected to gravely disadvantageous treatment.

While the Canadian Government is, under the pretext of safeguarding home industry, fixing the standard value of many foreign commodities by category for the assessment of tariffs, and making that value a basis for the levying of general ad valorem duties, and is collecting as a special duty the difference between such fixed standard value and the actual value of the commodities, an inordinately high value has been set upon Japanese goods. According to the investigations of the Japanese industrialists concerned, the import price inclusive of duty and taxes of not a few Japanese commodities in Canada is more than double the factory price of Canadian goods of a similar class or kind. This import price is said to be from three times to six or seven times the export price of those goods in Japan. Due to these circumstances, a decline has resulted in the export of these categories of Japanese merchandise, some of them actually decreasing to less than 10 per cent. of their value a few years ago. In fact, many Japanese who long resided in Canada and engaged in Japanese-Canadian trade, have returned to this country, being virtually put out of business.

The export of our goods to Canada, which has become increasingly difficult since the general revision upward of the Canadian tariff in 1930, was even more gravely hampered by the imposition, in the early part of 1932, of the exchange dumping and various other duties aforementioned. The Japanese Government, therefore, have been negotiating both at Tokyo and Ottawa for the rectification of such arbitrary imposition of duties, but the Canadian Government have failed to hold out any hopes as to the rectification of this attitude.

It is not the intention of our Government to ask for the establishment of an equilibrium of trade between Japan and Canada, although the balance has been unfavourable to us during recent years. All we ask is that for the sake of equity and fairness toward Japan, a good customer of Canada's, the Canadian Government should accord a really just treatment to our goods in a friendly spirit, as is the case with the United States of America, its neighbour, and with Australia, which, like Canada, belongs to the British Empire.

The Japanese Government, moreover, sharing the view of the British Government, hold the exchange dumping duty to be an infringement of the most-favoured-nation clause, and oppose absolutely its imposition. Especially do we believe it unfair for the Canadian Government to assess duties on the basis of the mint par, in complete disregard of the rise in the export prices of our goods, and to discriminate in the application of the exchange dumping duty against the goods of countries whose currency has depreciated, besides restricting severely the import of our own goods by levying on them special duties of an inordinately high rate, under the pretext of protecting home industries.

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We have, therefore, demanded the actual rate of exchange; the abolition of the exchange dumping duty; proper rectification in the fixing of values for tariff assessment and the application of special duties; together with the just and precise treatment of our merchandise by the Canadian customs officials. It was in compliance with a request from the Canadian Government that we presented these concrete demands at the beginning of last month. Simultaneously, however, we demonstrated a spirit of accommodation by suggesting that we should not be averse to adopting, after mutual consultation, appropriate measures as to certain important commodities of Canada likely to be adversely affected, in consequence of their consent to our requests. After our repeated urging, the Canadian Government at last replied to our representation, on the 10th instant, but their views are found to be still far removed from our basic demands, and it has become quite clear that as a practical proposition the Canadian reply does not remove the embarrassments imposed on our exports. . . .

The step that is being taken by the Japanese Government is an inescapable reaction to the restrictive measures of Canada against our goods and does not exceed the scope and degree of such measures. Of course, our friendly feelings toward Canada and its people will not suffer any change. We shall further continue negotiations with the Canadian Government, requesting a reconsideration, and are even ready to suspend the measures to be put into effect under the present ordinance when a satisfactory settlement is reached. We most earnestly desire that the Canadian Government will not fail to appreciate fully our views and immediately set about the rectification of their present arbitrary measures in order to restore the trade relations of the two countries, thereby contributing to the enhancement of the happiness of the people of Japan and Canada. (See Appendix for the Imperial Ordinance.)

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CHAPTER XII

INSURANCE

General Survey

Marine Insurance Comes First In Japan, as in most maritime countries, marine insurance preceded life insurance, but the margin of time separating the two was much narrower in Japan, for there was a difference of two years only. Following the Restoration, 1868, the feudal lords or daimyo were dispossessed of their domains, but the Meiji Government undertook to compensate them for the lands confiscated. The condition of Government finance, however, did not permit of the payment of large sums of cash to the daimyo and pension bonds were issued to them instead. Hachisuka, Ikeda, Daté and other powerful and rich lords searched for an outlet for their energies and surplus and decided on insurance and advanced a plan to form a marine and fire insurance business after the British system. A company was incorporated in Tokyo in January 1879, with Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa as the person most intimately concerned with the consummation of the plan, and Yataro Iwasaki, the founder of the Mitsubishi interest, as his able lieutenant. The initial capitalization was ¥650,000. Marquis Hachisuka was president and Viscount Shibusawa and Mr. Iwasaki advisers.

Life Insurance Follows The late Taizo Abé is the originator of life insurance in Japan. Two years after the introduction of marine insurance he founded the Meiji Life Insurance Company in September, 1881, with a capitalization of ¥150,000. The promoters of this company were mostly graduates of the Keio Gijuku (present Keio University). In 1888, the Teikoku Life Insurance Company was founded and the Nippon Life Insurance Company was incorporated in Osaka in the following year. Zenjiro Yasuda was the founder of the Meiji Fire Insurance Company, the first of the kind in Japan.

The Present Status

The home insurance business at present consists of 12 kinds, namely, life, military conscription, accident, marine, fire including forest fire, transport, automobile, burglary, glass, fidelity, engine and boiler and re-insurance. Conscription insurance is interesting as it cannot be considered as pure insurance. The idea is to provide relief to the parents of young men who are called up to serve their time in the army. The insurance is taken out at any time from birth to 15 years of age, then, when the boy is conscripted, at 20 years of age the sum contracted for is paid to his parents. In case the boy is not called upon to serve his time in the army the premium only is repaid and the assured persons, who are enrolled in the army, participate and the forfeited accrued interest of those not called up, together with that of those who have died before being conscripted. It is 36 years since the business was first commenced and four companies engage in it. Japan's grand total of insurance business for the last 12 business years, as prepared by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, follows:

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Business year	Number of concerns	Paid-up capital and funds	Liability reserves at end of year	Contracts in force at end of year	
				No.	Amount‡
		(In ¥ 1,000 and 1,000 contracts)			
1921-22	98	91,176	510,869	8,952	10,670,858
1922-23	95	118,043	591,350	11,121	13,690,379
1923-24	96	119,043	670,003	11,467	13,971,965
1924-25	95	119,043	780,115	13,633	16,704,023
1925-26	95	122,018	890,457	15,876	19,269,426
1926-27	95	124,062	1,016,929	16,029	20,651,623
1927-28	93	123,757	1,130,869	17,517	22,268,970
1928-29	94	123,585	1,253,062	19,086	23,752,130
1929-30	93	124,335	1,408,520	22,199	25,949,943
1930-31	92	123,229	1,519,352	23,097	27,490,557
1931-32	91	122,170	1,637,178	22,693	27,469,633
1932-33	89	121,342	1,831,610	23,123	29,427,346
1933-34	85	151,526	1,985,929	25,444	33,109,146

In March, 1934 the number of insurance companies against loss was 51; total amount of their authorized capital reached ¥329,900,000 and paid-up capital ¥128,088,645. The number of companies was same while authorized capital and paid-up capital increased by ¥45,900,000(16%) and ¥29,446,145 (29%) respectively as compared with the previous year.

The number of insurance companies against death and conscription was 34, with total amount of authorized capital and fund ¥42,650,000 and paid-up capital ¥23,437,500. In comparison with the previous year the number decreased by 4, paid-up capital increased by ¥717,000 (2%) while authorized capital decreased by ¥4,230,000 (9%).

The number and amount of new contracts of these companies in 1933-34 and their comparison with the previous year are given below:

Kind of Insurance	Contracts made in 1933-34		Comparison with the previous year					
	Number	Amount		Number	%		Amount	%
Fire	20,377,560	¥27,593,339,000	in.	2,146,847	16	in.	¥3,650,381,000	15
Marine	5,140,252	7,874,981,000	in.	630,742	13	in.	830,207,000	11
Transportation	1,744,067	5,521,416,000	in.	105,530	6	in.	1,365,082,000	32
Fidelity	3,407	5,976,000	de.	29	0	de.	85,000	-4
Engine and boiler	1,251	4,236,000	in.	69	5	in.	201,000	5
Automobile	87,525	70,868,000	de.	7,007	7	in.	583,000	0
Burglary	4,230	11,461,000	de.	141	0	de.	289,000	2
Glass	345	129,000	in.	47	13	de.	7,000	5
Accident	224,595	199,925,000	in.	108,751	9	in.	67,225,000	50
Life	1,056,220	1,756,493,000	in.	214,005	25	in.	318,129,000	22
Conscription	268,296	223,925,000	in.	42,079	18	in.	34,670,000	18

INSURANCE COMPANIES

1929-1934

(Amount in Yen)

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund		Reserve Fund	
			Authorized	Paidup	Liability and Current	Others
Accident	1929-30				684,591	35,066,173
	1930-31				707,136	45,728,277
	1931-32				773,651	51,818,800
	1932-33				893,369	54,242,900
	1933-34				945,927	57,815,170

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number of Companies	Capital or Fund: Authorized	Capital or Fund: Paidup	Reserve Fund: Liability and Current	Reserve Fund: Others
Fire	1929–30				102,077,593	54,691,596
	1930–31				104,127,232	64,889,160
	1931–32				105,263,129	64,726,756
	1932–33				110,585,848	67,291,681
	1933–34				114,713,943	71,736,746
Marine	1929–30				70,445,289	46,288,232
	1930–31				70,648,175	52,849,608
	1931–32				69,803,589	55,550,554
	1932–33				72,077,803	55,018,772
	1933–34				76,628,071	67,553,842
Transportation	1929–30				2,251,140	51,296,634
	1930–31				2,152,045	59,609,464
	1931–32	1929–30 52	293,500,000	100,690,000	2,059,980	60,555,454
	1932–33				1,871,347	62,739,172
	1933–34				2,043,729	66,808,842
Fidelity	1929–30	1930–31 52	294,000,000	100,915,000	69,000	8,125,000
	1930–31				80,000	6,547,990
	1931–32				93,500	12,750,700
	1932–33	1931–32 51	290,500,000	99,900,000	97,000	12,773,200
	1933–34				95,000	18,118,800
Engine and Boiler	1929–30				44,167	51,187
	1930–31	1932–33 51	284,900,000	98,622,500	41,324	55,203
	1931–32				40,050	56,740
	1932–33				39,727	58,640
	1933–34				39,031	60,560
Automobile	1929–30	1933–34 51	329,900,000	128,088,645	2,031,571	22,845,466
	1930–31				2,067,320	41,574,577
	1931–32				2,102,260	47,612,200
	1932–33				2,190,315	49,950,200
	1933–34				2,274,918	53,494,800
Burglary	1929–30				274,412	22,345,000
	1930–31				185,927	32,650,772
	1931–32				276,045	38,885,000
	1932–33				245,717	41,213,000
	1933–34				249,745	44,050,000
Glass	1929–30				106,756	17,000,000
	1930–31				07,417	21,875,881
	1931–32				142,674	28,870,000
	1932–33				53,877	30,220,000
	1933–34				58,199	32,600,000
Life	1929–30				1,163,788,805	109,115,805
	1930–31				1,263,134,501	117,345,902
	1931–32	1929–30 40	45,600,000	23,330,000	1,371,312,737	115,323,750
	1932–33	1930–31 40	43,530,000	22,270,000	1,483,841,744	130,732,919
	1933–34	1931–32 40	46,030,000	22,895,000	1,609,664,179	147,526,178
		1932–33 38	46,880,000	22,720,000		
Conscription	1929–30	1933–34 34	42,650,000	23,437,500	113,075,176	2,212,567
	1930–31				125,761,781	2,938,904
	1931–32				140,447,768	2,799,387
	1932–33				159,713,779	3,589,619
	1933–34				179,217,142	4,722,361

Conditions of Business

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Earnings: Premiums	Earnings: Interests	Earnings: Others	Earnings: Total
Accident	1929–30	535,443	—	6,803	542,246
	1930–31	641,479	—	10,138	651,617
	1932–32	623,425	—	16,861	640,286
	1932–33	726,101	—	94,810	820,911
	1933–34	952,702	—	111,581	1,064,283
Fire	1929–30	87,168,118	8,157,715	22,905,056	118,230,889
	1930–31	88,114,367	8,161,557	19,617,218	115,893,142
	1931–32	86,565,556	8,073,139	18,701,654	113,340,349
	1932–33	88,830,852	7,944,468	21,891,064	118,666,384
	1933–34	94,082,693	8,053,153	21,222,340	123,358,186

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Conditions of Business

Earnings

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Premiums	Interests	Others	Total
Marine	1929–30	29,292,816	11,858,423	7,711,668	48,862,407
	1930–31	28,428,116	12,278,210	8,077,114	48,778,440
	1931–32	24,821,774	12,224,926	0,383,383	47,430,083
	1932–33	26,689,037	12,848,842	19,960,740	49,498,619
	1933–34	31,101,512	13,786,286	8,257,452	53,145,250
Transportation	1929–30	1,099,514	—	26,763	1,126,277
	1930–31	878,012	—	20,517	898,529
	1931–32	692,599	—	24,370	716,909
	1932–33	791,657	—	11,515	803,172
	1933–34	1,021,082	—	25,243	1,046,325
Fidelity	1929–30	90,972	—	5,227	96,199
	1930–31	08,914	—	6,205	115,119
	1931–32	196,353	—	7,355	103,708
	1932–33	86,940	—	6,151	93,091
	1933–34	83,719	—	6,112	89,831
Engine and Boiler	1929–30	82,321	11,233	3,253	96,807
	1930–31	120,109	16,042	4,210	40,961
	1931–32	81,275	10,746	9,716	101,737
	1932–33	79,195	9,650	9,784	198,629
	1933–34	80,542	11,385	9,848	101,775
Automobile	1929–30	1,586,989	6,506	4,954	1,598,459
	1930–31	1,426,762	5,641	8,617	1,441,820
	1931–32	1,359,529	5,369	36,533	1,401,431
	1932–33	1,543,289	5,026	10,996	1,559,260
	1933–34	1,749,665	5,778	41,344	1,796,787
Burglary	1929–30	61,428	—	991	62,419
	1930–31	58,889	—	657	59,546
	1931–32	85,564	—	743	86,307
	1932–33	59,180	—	962	60,142
	1933–34	59,158	—	1,332	60,490
Glass	1929–30	3,597	—	59	3,655
	1930–31	4,138	—	168	4,306
	1931–32	3,998	—	205	4,203
	1932–33	6,983	—	237	7,220
	1933–34	7,680	—	460	8,140
Life	1929–30	296,192,520	74,996,872	13,399,508	384,588,400
	1930–31	294,288,980	79,245,891	13,137,302	386,672,173
	1931–32	309,473,125	83,809,213	12,707,823	405,990,161
	1932–33	320,137,748	92,551,304	19,583,430	458,872,225
	1933–34	350,372,780	99,973,149	26,522,160	476,868,089
Conscription	1929–30	22,465,137	7,320,189	1,158,484	30,943,810
	1930–31	23,593,777	8,043,992	1,042,661	32,680,430
	1931–32	22,106,176	8,401,764	2,855,319	33,363,259
	1932–33	26,623,705	12,462,744	6,254,506	45,340,955
	1933–34	25,939,982	11,057,417	5,254,869	42,252,268

Conditions of Business

Expenses

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Claims Paid	Payment by Contract other than Claims	Business Expenses	Others	Total
Accident	1929–30	226,808	2,676	211,431	3,679	444,594
	1930–31	247,680	4,420	245,179	12,635	509,914
	1931–32	276,357	5,817	233,417	8,309	523,900
	1932–33	477,406	8,769	307,868	14,798	808,841
	1933–34	538,176	11,392	381,344	14,823	945,735
Fire	1929–30	34,028,258	8,736,992	51,736,427	7,325,086	101,826,763
	1930–31	32,346,239	9,525,008	53,204,534	9,116,779	104,192,560
	1931–32	33,941,596	9,564,105	51,488,784	7,150,417	102,144,902
	1932–33	33,962,283	10,711,007	52,125,132	6,479,769	103,278,141
	1933–34	34,704,434	12,259,579	55,594,541	6,660,150	109,218,704
Marine	1929–30	20,176,515	1,804,534	7,112,702	9,176,675	38,273,426
	1930–31	20,502,208	1,843,089	6,733,109	10,360,640	39,442,046
	1931–32	17,988,187	1,759,847	6,026,539	12,119,924	37,894,497
	1932–33	18,128,982	2,053,878	6,080,650	9,116,202	35,379,712
	1933–34	19,602,005	2,317,516	6,823,090	7,605,849	36,348,460

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Claims Paid	Payment by Contract other than Claims	Business Expenses	Others	Total
Transportation	1929-30	163,862	77,053	264,994	26,763	532,672
	1930-31	178,552	96,725	211,078	3,325	489,680
	1931-32	142,850	80,640	179,152	10,439	413,081
	1932-33	122,169	77,475	185,420	3,949	389,013
	1933-34	100,487	99,038	215,810	7,894	423,229
Fidelity	1929-30	31,222	1,114	26,181	78	58,595
	1930-31	29,304	5,016	33,913	94	68,327
	1931-32	35,165	4,032	31,605	96	70,898
	1932-33	35,564	2,150	28,426	89	66,229
	1933-34	26,820	2,078	26,111	105	55,114
Engine and Boiler	1929-30	—	898	73,644	4,163	78,705
	1930-31	—	1,008	113,258	9,631	123,897
	1931-32	—	919	79,126	7,466	87,511
	1932-33	—	730	77,812	5,644	83,686
	1933-34	—	664	78,199	7,162	86,025
Automobile	1929-30	624,508	274,703	518,605	24,065	1,441,881
	1930-31	700,338	262,097	495,649	29,813	1,037,897
	1931-32	707,010	235,583	495,687	22,979	1,461,259
	1932-33	826,684	263,314	492,289	15,748	1,598,035
	1933-34	866,525	275,363	540,735	74,302	1,756,925
Burglary	1929-30	33,487	372	15,908	86	49,853
	1930-31	25,523	5,225	15,676	109	46,533
	1931-32	20,833	710	13,147	80	34,770
	1932-33	29,153	826	20,404	854	51,237
	1933-34	22,836	1,339	22,151	511	46,837
Glass	1929-30	1,543	388	720	12	2,663
	1930-31	2,040	408	775	10	3,233
	1931-32	2,335	266	888	11	3,500
	1932-33	3,753	319	1,452	19	5,543
	1933-34	5,339	559	1,826	13	7,737
Life	1929-30	86,142,864	42,528,009	69,986,533	43,295,077	241,952,423
	1930-31	93,874,841	53,585,432	68,463,909	59,305,724	275,229,906
	1931-32	108,033,944	69,521,359	71,609,063	30,844,607	280,008,973
	1932-33	114,600,140	77,059,835	75,293,331	26,098,902	293,052,208
	1933-34	124,659,486	78,516,055	83,935,600	22,959,150	310,070,291
Conscription	1929-30	753,935	2,952,036	7,078,490	3,703,624	14,488,085
	1930-31	918,577	3,749,397	6,417,199	9,491,906	20,577,079
	1931-32	1,076,070	4,811,537	7,284,566	5,359,134	18,531,307
	1932-33	1,698,627	7,593,676	10,599,968	5,877,887	25,770,158
	1933-34	1,681,245	5,831,146	11,618,262	2,753,896	21,884,549

Conditions of Business

Kind of Insurance	Business Year	New Contracts		Contracts in force at the end Business Year	
		Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Accident	1929-30	188,353	95,218,000	185,171	77,878,000
	1930-31	111,069	100,145,000	105,814	78,694,000
	1931-32	96,318	113,015,000	88,904	89,274,000
	1932-33	115,944	132,700,000	97,907	104,977,000
	1933-34	224,595	199,925,000	206,709	172,879,000
Fire	1929-30	17,671,741	22,196,333,000	15,127,092	17,062,355,000
	1930-31	18,498,471	22,855,352,000	15,815,125	18,135,844,000
	1931-32	17,913,069	21,821,161,000	15,086,303	17,526,420,000
	1932-33	18,230,713	23,942,948,000	15,321,736	18,627,406,000
	1933-34	20,377,560	27,593,329,000	16,943,563	21,119,623,000
Marine	1929-30	3,952,406	7,152,185,000	575,142	1,316,438,000
	1930-31	4,158,871	6,473,136,000	707,156	1,338,530,000
	1931-32	4,437,864	5,962,947,000	778,466	1,359,601,000
	1932-33	4,509,510	7,044,774,000	805,934	1,619,671,000
	1933-34	5,140,252	7,874,981,000	884,104	1,796,231,000
Transportation	1929-30	1,601,867	4,321,364,000	77,633	218,249,000
	1930-31	1,637,266	3,648,717,000	76,887	180,731,000
	1931-32	1,603,594	3,303,935,000	72,783	175,673,000
	1932-33	1,638,537	4,156,334,000	75,037	258,971,000
	1933-34	1,744,067	5,521,416,000	82,913	334,900,000

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Kind of Insurance	Business Year	Number	Amount	Number	Amount
Fidelity	1929–30	3,109	6,299,000	2,650	4,987,000
	1930–31	3,434	7,661,000	2,943	5,715,000
	1931–32	3,443	6,677,000	3,167	5,779,000
	1932–33	3,436	6,299,000	3,196	5,543,000
	1933–34	3,407	5,976,000	3,179	5,097,000
Engine and Boiler	1929–30	1,188	4,701,000	1,188	4,701,000
	1930–31	1,708	6,679,000	1,187	4,472,000
	1931–32	1,171	4,310,000	1,171	4,310,000
	1932–33	1,182	4,701,000	1,182	4,035,000
	1933–34	1,251	4,236,000	1,233	4,182,000
Automobile	1929–30	82,923	81,551,000	63,352	58,526,000
	1930–31	77,112	65,820,000	58,316	47,421,000
	1931–32	88,449	62,986,000	60,664	47,735,000
	1932–33	94,532	70,285,000	66,083	53,934,000
	1933–34	87,525	70,868,000	59,481	53,186,000
Burglary	1929–30	31,045	8,096,000	28,831	6,983,000
	1930–31	22,478	7,644,000	3,175	4,992,000
	1931–32	4,059	6,267,000	3,484	5,055,000
	1932–33	4,371	11,750,000	3,610	9,539,000
	1933–34	4,230	11,461,000	3,546	9,314,000
Glass	1929–30	182	53,000	177	50,000
	1930–31	242	66,000	227	60,000
	1931–32	234	62,000	229	61,000
	1932–33	293	136,000	278	129,000
	1933–34	345	129,000	326	120,000
Life	1929–30	721,299	1,289,418,000	5,164,548	6,663,735,000
	1930–31	704,167	1,254,493,000	5,310,878	7,113,828,000
	1931–32	793,909	1,430,738,000	5,492,808	7,643,858,000
	1932–33	842,215	1,438,364,000	5,668,350	8,065,173,000
	1933–34	1,056,220	1,756,493,000	6,029,271	8,806,589,000
Conscription	1929–30	166,301	124,420,000	971,572	536,041,000
	1930–31	146,688	110,367,000	1,016,055	580,370,000
	1931–32	155,493	127,652,000	1,023,636	611,867,000
	1932–33	226,217	189,255,000	1,080,047	677,968,000
	1933–34	268,296	223,925,000	1,229,857	806,593,000

Note: Business year covers the period from April 1 to March 31 the following year. Most companies have several kinds of insurance and accordingly capital is not given here separately.

PRINCIPAL FOREIGN INSURANCE COMPANIES IN JAPAN

Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry

(Amount in yen)

LIFE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits	Business Conditions: Received Premiums	Claims paid	New Contracts: Number	New Contracts: Amount	Contracts in force at the end of business year: Number	Contracts in force at the end of business year: Amount
1928–29	3	23,572,673	11,068,904	3,944,460	5,073	39,899,000	36,733	196,692,000
1929–30	3	25,109,954	12,442,569	4,307,818	6,356	46,006,000	39,171	222,963,000
1930–31	3	27,189,420	13,419,465	5,403,514	6,606	42,321,000	41,162	239,064,000
1931–32	3	31,643,125	13,749,202	5,983,207	5,834	33,209,000	41,894	243,397,000
1932–33	3	31,708,560	12,256,409	6,065,434	3,528	17,698,000	38,957	220,780,000

FIRE INSURANCE

1928–29	26	5,523,848	6,022,298	3,900,922	320,521	1,714,210,000	298,806	1,198,735,000
1929–30	26	5,523,848	6,482,014	4,020,954	384,935	1,947,773,000	334,502	1,262,488,000
1930–31	26	5,625,033	6,099,768	2,727,712	363,437	1,912,953,000	297,612	1,194,171,000
1931–32	26	5,525,909	5,008,450	2,346,005	287,047	1,516,256,000	235,557	974,365,000
1932–33	26	5,126,901	4,438,087	2,519,249	201,824	1,473,093,000	143,650	918,122,000

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MARINE INSURANCE

Business Year	Number of Companies	Deposits	Business Conditions: Premiums Received	Claims paid	New Contracts: Number	New Contracts: Amount	Contracts in force at the end of business year: Number	Contracts in force at the end of business year: Amount
1928-29	15	4,007,637	991,390	691,293	71,783	322,860,000	13,849	32,697,000
1929-30	16	4,108,196	1,079,196	997,517	84,231	342,805,000	18,531	50,002,000
1930-31	16	4,175,463	981,072	529,586	91,724	377,486,000	16,555	35,230,000
1931-32	16	4,111,716	808,287	422,664	91,454	258,240,000	18,767	34,648,000
1932-33	16	3,757,780	1,052,831	575,059	107,901	316,005,000	16,452	46,737,000

INVESTMENTS OF HOME INSURANCE COMPANIES

The Insurance Year Book by the Department of Commerce and Industry

Year	Number of Companies	Advances: Mortgages on Real Estates	Advances: Mortgages on Factories, etc.	Advances: Mortgages on Vessels	Loans on Securities	Loan on Companies, Policies	Loans to Public Bodies	Others	Total
1929-30	93	61,104	70,444	18,774	63,905	118,741	34,728	11,512	379,211
1930-31	92	69,484	82,228	15,313	84,758	153,994	42,399	6,060	454,239
1931-32	91	80,590	104,180	13,410	102,760	191,642	49,214	6,269	548,067
1932-33	89	82,070	118,836	12,288	126,151	220,418	64,964	3,842	628,572
1933-34	85	78,344	87,287	11,354	118,216	230,438	58,305	7,003	590,950

	Securities: Government Bonds	Local Government Bonds	Debentures	Shares	Other Securities	Total	Deposits with Banks	Grand Total
1929-30	120,556	71,015	356,167	340,806	41,497	930,042	273,657	1,582,910
1930-31	129,646	86,174	412,111	315,753	14,632	958,318	274,512	1,687,069
1931-32	120,586	94,026	460,749	305,498	17,744	998,604	261,370	1,808,041
1932-33	114,238	98,489	482,828	332,179	43,839	1,071,575	271,129	1,971,277
1933-34	128,469	130,871	513,099	441,031	49,196	1,262,669	335,077	2,188,696

Leading Japanese and Foreign Insurance Companies

(1) JAPANESE CONCERNS

Life Insurance Companies	Est'd.
Teikoku Life	1888
Meiji Life	1893
Yasuda Life	1894
Aikoku Life	1896
×Dai-ichi Life	1902
Taihei Life	1909
Nisshin Life	1907
Nippon Conscription	1911
Nikka Life	1914
×Fukoku Conscription	1923
Taiyo Life	1896
Taisho Life	1913
Toyo Life	1900
Nippon Kyoritsu Life	1894
Fukutoku Life	1912
Yurin Life	1894
Yokohama Life	1907
Daido Life	1902
Katakura Life	1921
Nippon Dantai Life	1934
Fukuju Life	1908
×Showa Life	1931
Fuji Life	1909
Nippon Kyoiku Life	1896
Property Insurance Companies	
Tokyo Marine and Fire	1878
Meiji Fire	1891
Teikoku Marine and Fire	1893
Nippon Marine	1896
Nippon Movables Fire	1898
Tomei Fire and Insurance	1907
Toho Fire	1911
Chiyoda Fire	1913
Taisho Marine and Fire	1918
Japan Automobile	1928
×Nippon Life	1889
Jinju Life	1894
Dai-ichi Conscription	1898
×Chiyoda Life	1904
Sumitomo Life	1907
Mitsui Life	1914
×Japan Physicians' Mutual Relief	1919
Tokyo Fire	1888
Nippon Fire	1892
Osaka Marine and Fire	1893
Yokohama Fire and Marine	1897
Kobé Marine Transport and Fire	1907
Okura Fire and Marine	1911
Teikoku Fire	1912
Fuso Marine and Fire	1917
Mitsubishi Marine and Fire	1919

Mark × represents companies of the mutual basis.

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(2) FOREIGN INSURANCE CONCERNS

Sun Life Assurance Co. of Canada, Montreal (Tokyo Office)
The Manufacturers Life Insurance Co., Toronto (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The New York Life Insurance Co. (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The London and Lancashire Insurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The London Provincial Marine and General Insurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Northern Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Phoenix Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Guardian Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The New Zealand Insurance Co., Ltd., Oakland, N. Z. (Japan Office, Tokyo)
Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation, London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
Union Insurance Society of Canton, Ltd., Hongkong (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The North China Insurance Co., Ltd., Shanghai (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Yangtze Insurance Association, Ltd., Shanghai (Japan Office, Yokohama)
Union Assurance Society, Ltd., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The London Assurance Corporation (Japan Office, Yokohama)
L'Union Fire, Accident and General Insurance Co., Paris (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Palatine Insurance Co., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
Royal Insurance Co., Ltd., Liverpool (Japan Office, Tokyo)
Norwich Union Fire Insurance Society, Ltd., Norwich (Japan Office, Tokyo)
Caledonian Insurance Co., Edinburgh (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Netherlands Insurance Co., The Hague (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Liverpool & London & Globe Insurance Co., Ltd., Liverpool (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The North British Mercantile Insurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Yorkshire Insurance Co., Ltd., New York and London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Sun Insurance Office, Ltd., London (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Law Union and Rock Insurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Home Insurance Co., New York (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Continental Insurance Co., New York (Japan Office, Tokyo)
The Hongkong Fire Insurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Canton Insurance Office, Ltd. (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Alliance Assurance Co., Ltd. (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The Commercial Union Assurance Co., Ltd., London (Japan Office, Yokohama)
The South British Insurance Co., Ltd., Oakland, New Zealand (Japan Office, Tokyo)

ASSOCIATIONS

Association of Life Insurance Companies of Japan, Tokyo (President, Mr. S. Hirosé)
Joint Fire Insurance Association of Japan, Tokyo (President, Mr. K. Kagami)
Foreign Fire Insurance Association, Yokohama (President, Mr. James A. Dixon)
Marine Insurance Association of Japan, Tokyo (President, Mr. K. Kagami)

Post Office Life Insurance

With a view to promoting the welfare of the middle and lower classes of the community, the Post Office Life Insurance Law (Law No. 42) and the Post Office Life Insurance Special Account Law (Law No. 43) were promulgated on July 8th, 1916, the former being put into effect on October 1st and the latter on August 20th of the same year. The main features of the life insurance schemes may be summarized as follows :

1. This insurance is the work of the Government and is to be dealt with at the post offices.

2. The amount of insurance for a person will be from ¥20 up to ¥450.

3. The insured need not be subjected to any physical examination.

4. If the insured die within one and a half year from the conclusion of the insurance contract by some causes other than the calamities or the infectious diseases specified in law, a portion of the amount insured will not be paid.

5. This insurance is divided into Whole Life, Endowment and Infantile. Endowment policies are divid-

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ed into seven kinds of the terms of 10 years, 15 years, 20 years, 25 years, 30 years, 35 years and 40 years. Infantile policies are, to present, either 15 years or 20 years endowment.

6. The age of a person to be newly insured must be between 3 and 60 years.

7. The Mortality Table constituting a basis for the computation of premium was compiled by adding 20% to the Mortality Rates of the Japanese population under Table No. 2 published in 1912 by the Government Statistics Bureau. The interest on premiums is 3½% per annum.

8. The premiums are to be paid monthly. Those who have difficulty in monthly payment of the premiums, such as seamen, emigrants and farmers, are allowed to pay the premiums in advance. In such case, the prescribed premiums are reduced.

9. The period within which premiums should be paid in is fixed at one month, and two months' grace is allowed.

10. Within one year after the lapse of the policy, it may be revived.

11. When, after the conclusion of the contract, the insured either loses one or both of their limbs or becomes blind of both eyes, the future premiums need not be paid.

Besides whenever a policy has been in force for a period of thirty years and the insured person has arrived at the age of 70, the policy holder concerned may propose to have his future premiums paid up.

12. When, after the lapse of five years since the conclusion of the contract, the payment of the insured sum or the repayment of the paid-in premium is made, the beneficiary shall receive an additional sum as a rebate.

13. A loan may be allowed on the application of the insurer, not exceeding the amount which is to be paid back on the cancellation of the insurance contract.

14. In order to maintain and promote the health of the Health Consultation Service Regulation, 1922, so far been established in principal cities.

15. Beneficiaries or policy-holders are required to ask the judgment of the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry prior to legal action against the Government for their contracts.

Post Office Life Annuities

While the history of the Post Office Life Annuities may be traced as far back as 1897, the authorities concerned thought it wise to introduce Post Office Life Insurance first and see how this would work, until, in 1926, changing social conditions and the maturing for the first time of the Post Office Life Insurance Endowment Policies gave favourable indications for the Annuity business, and a bill in this connection was introduced and unanimously approved by the Diet in March.

The main features of the system which came into operation on October 1st of the same year may be summarized as follows:

1. The annuity business is to be administered by the same system as that of the Post Office Life Insurance.

2. Annuities that may be purchased are divided into:

(1) Immediate Life Annuities.
(2) Deferred Life Annuities.
  (a) Annuities commencing at the age of 50.
  (b) Annuities commencing at the age of 55.
  (c) Annuities commencing at the age of 60.
  (d) Annuities commencing at the age of 65.

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3. The Post Office Life Annuities may be purchased either with or without provision for the return of the purchase money, and purchasers must select one of these two plans when they make their application.

4. The ages of persons entitled to become annuitants under this system must fall, in the case of Immediate Life Annuities between 40 and 80 inclusive and in the case of Deferred Life Annuities between 12 and 60 both inclusive.

5. The premium rates are calculated on the mortality rates by deducting 20 per cent. for males and 30 per cent. for females from the general mortality rate of the Japanese population.

The rate of interest allowed in the calculation of the value of annuities under the instalment payment plan is 5 per cent. and under the single payment plan, such rate shall be determined, from time to time, by the Minister of Communications upon the basis of the current market price of public bonds. The rate is fixed at 5½% per cent. for the present.

The reserves to be maintained against policies are worked out by the net premium method.

6. The maximum annuity that can be purchased on the life of any one person is ₹2,400, and the minimum is ₹120 under the instalment premium plan or ₹12 under the single premium plan.

7. Premiums are payable either in a single sum or by instalments; in the latter case, the premium payment is divided into four periods, namely, 10 year payment, 15 year payment, 20 year payment and ordinary payment, and the premium may also be paid yearly, half yearly or quarterly. All premiums are payable either at any post office designated by the purchaser or at his residence to the collector.

8. In the case of an Immediate Annuity, the annuity will begin on the date of contract and continue from that time until the death of the annuitant. In the case of a Deferred Annuity, the annuity will begin on the date of the annuitant's reaching a certain specified age and continue from that time until the death of the annuitant.

9. Annuitants are given the right, subject to certain conditions to claim a change in their contracts.

10. Should events stipulated as a reason for the return of purchase money actually occur, such return is to be made according to prescribed conditions.

11. Provided a contract reserves the right for the purchaser or the annuitant to claim refund of premiums paid, such person may avail himself of a cash loan of not more than 50% of the premiums paid, provided that the sum is not less than ₹20 per contract, or, if the proceeds are to be applied to the payment of the premium, a sum equal to one year's premiums.

12. Annuitants or purchasers are requested, before bringing a civil action against the Government in respect of their contract, to submit their cases before the Post Office Life Insurance Committee of Inquiry.

13. A special account is established of the management of this business.

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POST OFFICE LIFE INSURANCE

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance, the Department of Communications

(Amount in Yen)

Financial Year	New Contracts			Revivals		
	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured
1929-30	2,157,554	2,305,921	355,829,271	104,827	79,282	14,027,873
1930-31	2,434,292	2,308,475	357,792,091	131,351	103,006	17,871,493
1931-32	2,800,819	2,453,427	388,633,808	166,531	129,941	22,318,260
1932-33	2,888,356	2,412,634	371,027,787	177,421	139,271	23,628,101
1933-34	3,096,872	2,647,666	417,989,686	114,735	93,230	15,618,247

Financial Year	Death			Expirations			Surrenders, Lapses and from other Causes		
	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured
1929-30	170,551	136,191	28,168,608	19,550	13,506	1,293,451	849,912	789,929	133,290,431
1930-31	185,446	153,736	25,691,415	25,413	19,962	1,918,265	1,255,103	1,194,688	196,626,198
1931-32	200,888	158,270	27,915,317	55,302	43,436	4,487,420	1,544,375	1,362,097	226,778,654
1932-33	213,312	178,664	29,531,662	113,022	105,125	10,719,540	1,344,789	1,174,690	194,708,465
1933-34	238,634	201,423	33,086,753	133,608	144,528	14,808,961	964,867	869,287	144,324,326

Financial Year	Net Increase			Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year		
	Number	Premiums	Sums insured	Number	Premiums	Sums insured
1929-30	1,222,358	1,445,578	212,104,654	14,528,019	11,580,039	1,949,938,004
1930-31	1,098,681	1,043,185	151,427,706	15,626,700	12,623,224	2,101,365,710
1931-32	1,166,785	1,009,535	151,770,677	16,793,485	13,632,759	2,253,136,387
1932-33	1,389,702	1,093,274	159,657,564	18,183,187	14,726,033	2,412,793,951
1933-34	1,874,499	1,525,280	241,389,396	20,057,686	16,251,313	2,654,183,347

Welfare Service for the Insured

Health service is one of the subjects which have commanded constant attention since the very inception of the system of Post Office Life Insurance in this country. Of the various kinds of health campaigns which have been embarked upon by the Bureau with a view to maintaining and promoting the health of the insured, the establishment of the Health Consultation Offices was first realized in 1922. At present there are 135 offices in 127 centres of the country. The Central Office is in charge of the work of replying to any consultation involving any of the following :

1) Serochemostrical research
2) Biochemistical research
3) Bacteriological rersearch
4) Roentgen diagnosis
5) Hygienic research
6) Animal experiment
7) Complicated diagnosis of initial tuberculosis, carcinoma, etc.

POST OFFICE LIFE ANNUITIES

Compiled by the Bureau of the Post Office Life Insurance, Department of Communications

Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	New Contracts			Deaths		
		Number	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities	Number	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities
			Yen	Yen		Yen	Yen
1929-30	Immediate Annuities	2,894	3,107,454	2,751,437	143	149,255	13,958
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,734	2,951,909	1,071,972	678	63,999	23,432
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	8,269	387,453	1,279,307	434	11,365	51,786

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Financial Year	Kind of Annuities	New Contracts Number	New Contracts Premiums	New Contracts Amt. of Annuities	Deaths Number	Deaths Premiums	Deaths Amt. of Annuities
			Yen	Yen		Yen	Yen
1930-31	Immediate Annuities	3,474	4,478,799	365,582	274	275,224	26,781
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	14,725	3,239,008	1,062,176	895	65,612	31,413
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	15,197	528,801	2,114,633	446	16,206	55,791
1931-32	Immediate Annuities	3,398	4,272,463	343,952	417	418,408	38,648
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	12,998	2,823,411	896,890	811	77,951	37,048
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	16,751	561,973	2,271,458	458	13,764	51,454
1932-33	Immediate Annuities	4,609	5,536,318	437,472	476	445,484	40,759
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	15,285	3,524,887	1,098,903	1,047	184,418	49,017
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	16,077	544,602	2,170,603	426	15,948	51,929
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	5,413	6,536,965	501,012	550	628,061	56,890
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	16,587	4,771,335	1,327,205	1,148	124,324	51,644
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	19,642	827,548	2,751,437	551	21,117	66,899

		Surrenders Number	Surrenders Premiums	Surrenders Amt. of Annuities	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Number	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Premiums	Cancellation of Contracts by Statutes Amt. of Annuities
			Yen	Yen		Yen	Yen
1929-30	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,090	153,690	71,982	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	7,383	178,895	861,103	2,057	36,272	258,696
1930-31	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,725	334,600	129,368	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	7,484	212,259	898,525	1,455	35,429	186,750
1931-32	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,852	328,619	127,687	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	8,202	224,190	995,121	3,624	58,160	444,652
1932-33	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,779	281,530	112,070	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	7,765	204,255	926,669	3,380	59,806	420,100
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	2,132	239,415	86,066	—	—	—
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	5,929	155,830	700,918	2,821	49,844	348,068

		Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes Number	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes Premiums	Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes Amt. of Annuities	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year Number	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year Premiums	Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year Amt. of Annuities
			Yen	Yen		Yen	Yen
1929-30	Immediate Annuities	+ 22	+ 3,885	+ 242	8,817	8,943,896	748,298
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 18	− 19,163	− 5,118	122,214	11,545,381	5,285,794
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 25	−103,502	−469,867	80,518	1,908,472	7,707,234

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		Increase (+) or Decrease (−) from other Causes			Contracts in Force at the End of the Financial Year		
		Number	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities	Number	Premiums	Amt. of Annuities
			Yen	Yen		Yen	Yen
1930-31	Immediate Annuities	+ 36	+ 13,742	+ 388	12,053	13,161,213	1,087,487
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 35	− 58,258	− 10,679	133,284	14,325,919	6,176,510
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 52	−103,181	−358,798	66,268	2,070,198	8,322,023
1931-32	Immediate Annuities	+ 70	+ 31,610	+ 1,813	15,104	17,046,880	1,394,604
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 68	− 70,547	− 13,250	142,451	16,672,213	6,894,915
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 76	− 91,490	−301,699	70,659	2,244,567	8,800,552
1932-33	Immediate Annuities	+114	+ 81,760	+ 5,610	19,351	22,219,474	1,796,918
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 90	− 76,205	− 13,953	153,769	19,704,948	7,813,778
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 87	− 98,568	−281,697	75,077	2,470,553	9,290,640
1933-34	Immediate Annuities	+ 90	+ 65,370	+ 4,629	24,294	28,193,748	2,245,668
	Deferred Annuities under the Single Premium Plan	− 69	− 68,423	− 14,227	167,007	24,044,120	8,989,045
	Deferred Annuities under the Instalment Premium Plan	− 55	− 71,131	−228,148	85,363	2,940,178	10,698,043

Loans and Investment Loans of the Post Office Life Insurance Fund totalled ¥656,440,881 in 1933 as against ¥557,603,911 in 1932; ¥454,067,209 in 1931; ¥356,849,980 in 1930; and ¥273,124,259 in 1929. Of ¥656,440,881, the total advances made in 1933, ¥247,721,136 was for the operation of the fund; ¥85,452,269 was against policies of the Post Office Life Insurance itself; ¥105,700,088 against governmental bonds and securities and ¥142,200,252 against commercial securities, and ¥74,245,436 was in deposit at the Deposit Bureau and ¥1,121,700 in the vault of the Post Office Life Insurance Bureau in cash. For a further information see the table below:

LOANS AND INVESTMENT OF THE P.O.L.I. FUND

At the end of March, each year

(in yen)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Free lodging houses	¥643,202	¥624,952	¥599,584	¥571,561	538,941
Easy eating houses	157,664	147,582	141,248	133,668	128,414
Public markets	5,510,167	5,369,456	5,136,193	5,274,586	5,031,142
Common benefit of retail traders	4,684	4,514	24,336	23,297	18,014
Cost Price Medical Service Work	2,167,377	2,305,582	2,438,280	2,356,453	2,230,100
Maternity hospitals	243,966	255,881	252,184	248,309	242,554
Public tuberculosis asylums	291,502	271,910	1,099,182	941,557	1,043,152
Redemption of old debts incurred for the running of public tuberculosis asylums	16,862	80,031	80,031	172,987	
Labour exchanges	351,770	304,542	255,416	242,211	225,549
Public Pawn Shops	1,222,916	1,470,060	1,570,545	1,530,751	1,582,612
For redemption of old loans incurred for the running of public pawn shops	15,000	37,000	44,198	120,172	
Day nurseries	284,547	268,308	258,922	240,959	222,123
Public bath houses	114,565	101,263	95,227	101,030	90,963

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	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Establishment and maintenance of landed farmers	57,800,932	72,993,015	85,068,173	97,407,642	110,788,262
Local improvement & adjustment of boundaries	441,151	598,796	1,620,648	1,594,312	1,943,128
Petty amount industrial fund	—	80,000	578,048	933,324	133,306
Advances of travelling expenses for persons placed in employments and daily advances for day-labourers	505,000	505,000	504,600	4,180	3,962
Residences	11,127,776	10,752,860	10,009,401	9,390,534	8,424,216
Redemption of old debts incurred for the building of residences	13,512	13,025	11,985	10,388	
Epidemic hospitals	2,705,873	3,095,918	2,921,332	2,827,729	2,214,257
Redemption of old debts incurred for the building of epidemic hospitals	577,429	549,452	494,587	453,578	
Sewerage	9,450,185	11,256,492	12,120,728	12,951,452	14,005,991
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	8,832,250	9,053,517	8,933,587	8,524,231	
Garbage equipment	1,154,530	1,215,470	1,321,748	1,477,951	613,968
Cooperative use of farm tools	2,155,781	2,300,863	2,113,861	2,127,529	2,124,705
Primary schools	42,130,534	41,781,120	36,589,071	33,886,447	20,959,879
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	4,518,326	4,477,763	3,928,192	3,316,921	
Business continuation schools	50,680	36,800	28,337	48,666	42,843
Public hospitals	598,164	562,046	509,826	523,749	558,163
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	117,106	65,231	117,590	196,029	
Water works	22,280,618	27,592,835	32,101,736	33,914,413	16,818,483
Redemption of old debts incurred for the aforesaid purpose	10,517,817	16,254,453	19,594,863	18,724,771	
Cooperative equipments for aquatic industry	1,149,913	1,180,489	1,219,122	1,339,670	1,525,936
Adjustment of arable lands	477,330	313,211	132,125	70,161	79,506
Office buildings in cities, towns and villages	361,933	334,063	316,900	404,822	378,004
Advances against insurance policies	32,791,655	50,046,822	67,871,575	85,452,269	97,525,839
Others and Total	22,859,226	268,995,585	302,973,321	333,173,405	295,139,511
Investment against Government bonds	55,556,997	69,769,984	87,913,050	105,700,088	116,489,821
Investment against other securities	49,514,322	71,186,405	126,029,787	142,200,252	265,581,610
Deposits at the Deposit Bureau	27,594,037	44,045,235	38,911,752	74,245,436	80,832,164
Cash on hand	3,325,398	70,000	1,776,000	1,121,700	370,000

State Live-Stock Insurance

The live stock insurance is making a steadily prosperous business. In March, 1930 there were only 6 societies engaged in this live stock insurance business, with only 1,304 head having been insured. In March, 1930 the aggregate amount insured was ¥127,622 which increased to ¥13,024,819 in March, 1933 and to ¥19,491,871 in March, 1934, with premiums received increasing from ¥2,166 in March, 1930 to ¥424,650 in March, 1934. The following shows the business results of the last four years:

LIVE STOCK INSURANCE

March of	Insurance societies	Insured cattle	Insured amount	Premiums received	Claims paid
			Yen	Yen	Yen
1931	102	41,474	4,156,117	83,277	20,749
1932	173	96,450	8,207,310	165,042	104,814
1933	209	173,891	13,024,819	279,630	167,002
1934	234	263,550	19,491,871	424,650	278,808

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LIVE STOCK INSURANCE CLASSIFIED BETWEEN HORSES AND CATTLE

March of		Insured Number of animals	Insured Amount	Premiums
1931	Cattle	30,899	2,947,205	49,179
	Horses	10,572	1,208,912	34,098
1932	Cattle	66,939	5,470,796	88,423
	Horses	29,511	2,786,514	76,619
1933	Cattle	108,818	8,005,867	129,488
	Horses	65,073	5,018,952	150,142
1934	Cattle	165,356	12,806,058	203,019
	Horses	98,194	7,185,813	221,631

State Health Insurance

At the end of the fiscal year 1932 there were 1,720,199 persons insured by the State Health Insurance as against 1,633,237 in 1931, of which 1,684,509 were persons insured compulsorily as against 1,599,230 in 1931, the increase being 86,962 in the former and 1,707 in the latter case. Premiums collected for 1932 totalled ¥26,119,521 as against ¥27,582,195 for 1931, ¥33,213,428 for 1930, ¥37,128,306 for 1929 and ¥36,817,377 for 1928. During the corresponding 5 years something between ¥23,000,000 and ¥33,000,000 was paid out annually to the beneficiaries. For full particulars figures follow:

HEALTH INSURANCE

March of	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1929	1,933,613	1,901,550	31,847	216
1930	1,899,893	1,871,236	28,317	340
1931	1,547,780	1,518,476	28,868	436
1932	1,633,237	1,599,280	33,823	184
1933	1,720,199	1,684,509	35,530	160

UNDER GOVERNMENT'S CONTROL

March of	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1929	1,160,953	1,158,740	2,024	189
1930	1,146,258	1,143,997	1,921	340
1931	933,683	930,072	3,180	431
1932	1,047,553	1,043,702	3,667	184
1933	1,122,141	1,117,478	4,503	160

UNDER CONTROL OF HEALTH INSURANCE ASSOCIATIONS

March of	Number of Associations	Total	Persons Insured Compulsorily	Persons Insured Voluntarily	Persons Insured in Continuation Voluntarily
1929	343	772,660	742,810	29,823	27
1930	349	753,635	727,239	26,396	—
1931	345	614,097	588,404	25,688	5
1932	345	585,684	555,528	30,156	—
1933	347	598,058	567,031	31,027	—

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PREMIUMS COLLECTED & INSURED MONEY PAID OUT

During	Total		Under Government's Control		Under Control of Health Insurance Association	
	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out	Premium	Insured Money Paid Out
1928-29	36,817,377	33,149,373	18,735,546	16,655,838	18,081,831	16,493,535
1929-30	37,128,306	34,050,430	18,864,142	17,664,505	18,264,164	16,395,925
1930-31	33,213,428	32,723,084	17,754,974	17,593,322	15,458,454	15,129,762
1931-32	27,582,195	26,512,962	15,598,925	14,854,272	11,983,270	11,658,690
1932-33	26,119,521	23,764,305	15,177,291	13,648,413	10,942,230	10,115,892

Actuarial Work

The Japanese Government began in 1927 the actuarial work of compiling "New Experience" mortality tables from the materials of ordinary life policies in 19 home life insurance companies, whose records escaped from burning in the Great Earthquake and Fire of 1932. The materials of the 19 companies used for this comprehensive work were for males 3,565,574 policies with ¥3,854,943,000, for females 1,116,549 policies with ¥892,335,000, covering the period of 15 years from 1912. The work was conducted under the special charge of the Insurance Bureau in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, using perforated cards and statistical machines of the Hollerith Accounting Company. After four full years the work was completed, at the end of March, 1931. Some important features of this New Table are as follows:

(1) An unprecedentedly large number of materials was used,

(2) The computation of the rate of mortality was by the policy year method, the age at entry was taken from the nearest birthday and the duration by the nearest method.

(3) The number of policies and amounts insured are both used as the basis for determining "qx" (the Japanese 3 Life Office Table is based on the lives insured only). In Full Aggregate Tables the rate of mortality and the expectation of life based on amounts insured are very favourable, for both males and females of every age. But in Truncated Tables the same tendencies were not observed.

(4) Deaths from influenza 1918-1920 (for males 6,143 policies with ¥4,351,000, for females 2,200 policies with ¥1,353,700) and from the great Earthquake-Fire of 1923 (for males 2,336 policies with ¥3,215,500, for female 1,117 policies with ¥1,066,500) were included in the materials. The effects were found to be about 4%.

(5) Days of grace were excluded in computing the rates of mortality (contrary to the practice in Japanese 3 Life Office Table) causing about 2% plus (males and females) in the Full Aggregate Table, but in the Truncated Aggregate Table the influence has not been so markedly observed.

(6) In Japan, before 1872, the lunar calendar system was used, so the ages of the persons who were born before 1872 have been recalculated on the solar calendar system.

(7) Compared with the Japanese 3 Office Table the rate of mortality in the New Full Aggregate Table shows very favourable tendencies except for men between the ages of 25 and 40, and in New Truncated Aggregate Tables the tendencies are quite remarkable. If allowances were to be made for the points mentioned in (4) and (5) there are good reasons to believe that the experienced mortality in Japan would

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show better figures throughout every age.

(8) Compared with Japanese Population Table No. 4, the figures in the New Table for males are less than those of the Population Table except for old ages; and for females except for middle ages, they are higher than those of the Population Table.

(9) The following tables show the comparisons of the New Japanese Experience Table, Japanese 3 Office Table and Japanese Population Table No. 4, which is prepared by Mr. Takejiro Sumio, an actuary:

FULL AGGREGATE TABLE

(Male)

Age x	New Experience Table JPM qx	JPM ex	JAM qx	JAM ex	Japanese 3 Office Table JM qx	JM ex	Psplation Table No. 4 qx	ex
10	.00262	46.42	.00285	47.05	.00499	46.195	.00317	46.53
15	.00546	42.32	.00557	42.77	.00648	42.403	.00597	42.31
20	.00981	38.94	.00975	39.41	.00890	38.969	.01080	39.10
25	.00841	35.71	.00789	36.16	.00792	35.628	.00951	36.06
30	.00730	32.05	.00687	32.46	.00718	31.914	.00823	32.59
35	.00772	28.18	.00732	28.54	.00764	28.028	.00871	28.87
40	.00950	24.30	.00908	24.61	.00935	24.118	.01053	25.13
45	.01295	25.03	.01278	20.82	.01373	20.350	.01371	21.49
50	.01856	16.97	.01785	17.25	.02028	16.906	.01862	18.02
55	.02751	13.71	.02694	13.95	.02857	13.763	.02627	14.77
60	.04134	17.09	.04071	11.05	.04373	10.960	.03915	11.87
65	.06127	8.28	.05779	8.51	.06084	8.640	.05705	9.31
70	.09203	6.13	.08828	6.28	.08283	6.422	.08480	7.11
75	.13681	4.41	.13291	4.48	.13335	4.583	.12446	5.31
80	.20158	3.04	.19864	3.06	.19044	3.233	.18274	3.87
85	.29177	2.01	.29215	1.99	.27574	2.156	.26469	2.77
90	.41079	1.26	.41772	1.22	.38983	1.356	.37276	1.95
95	.55588	0.73	.57174	0.69	.53333	733	.51059	1.37

TRUNCATED AGGREGATE TABLE

(Male)

Age x	New Experience Table JPM (3) qx	JPM (3) ex	JAM (3) qx	JAM (3) ex	Japanese 3 Office Table JM (5) eq	JM (5) ex
10	.00293	46.01	.00319	46.15	.00705	44.051
15	.00551	41.71	.00538	41.89	.00862	40.651
20	.01082	38.39	.01115	38.55	.01199	37.656
25	.00947	35.36	.00965	35.55	.01024	34.825
30	.00805	31.87	.00802	32.09	.00820	31.876
35	.00823	28.09	.00811	28.32	.00818	27.601
40	.00980	24.26	.00968	25.48	.00992	23.734
45	.01308	20.52	.01328	20.74	.01485	20.040
50	.01862	16.97	.01828	17.21	.02171	16.692
55	.02748	13.71	.02714	13.94	.03004	13.645
60	.04135	10.79	.04076	11.05	.04490	10.927
65	.06127	8.28	.05779	8.51	.06084	8.640
70	.09203	6.13	.08828	6.28	.08283	6.422
75	.13681	4.41	.13291	4.48	.13335	4.583
80	.20158	3.04	.19864	3.06	.19044	3.233
85	.29177	2.01	.29215	1.99	.27574	2.156
90	.41079	1.26	.41772	1.22	.28983	1.356
95	.55588	0.73	.57174	0.69	.53333	0.723

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FULL AGGREGATE TABLE

(Female)

Age x	New Experience Table				Population Table No. 4	
	JPF		JAF			
	qx	ex	qx	ex	qx	ex
10	.00426	45.41	.00362	45.66	.00371	47.00
15	.01089	41.75	.01060	41.93	.00901	43.12
20	.01366	39.42	.01377	39.58	.01208	40.38
25	.01194	36.97	.01185	37.15	.01117	37.72
30	.01061	34.02	.01042	34.19	.01045	34.69
35	.01043	30.75	.01012	30.89	.01078	31.44
40	.01053	27.31	.01035	27.41	.01134	28.09
45	.01114	23.70	.01115	23.79	.01182	24.58
50	.01439	20.07	.01466	20.18	.01382	20.95
55	.01929	16.61	.01907	16.75	.01839	17.43
60	.02658	13.31	.02607	13.41	.02540	14.12
65	.04167	10.26	.04318	10.41	.03977	11.10
70	.06612	7.70	.06647	7.97	.06157	8.44
75	.10135	5.60	.09814	5.98	.09585	6.21
80	.15336	3.93	.14170	4.39	.15026	4.41
85	.22888	2.64	.20056	3.14	.23315	3.04
90	.33300	1.69	.27794	2.18	.35351	2.04
95	.46779	1.02	.37604	1.46	.51107	1.36

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CHAPTER XIII

AGRICULTURE

General Survey

Shogunate to Meiji Era Under the Tokugawa Shogunate farmers were restricted as to the kinds of their products, while the favoured few were given license for the exclusive cultivation of sugar cane and a few other products. Not only did the statutory ban come direct from the Shogunate, but feudal clan governments, in their turn, put on their own restrictions and handed out their own favours. The farmers were unable to escape from these restrictions, one feudal government might be less strict than another and the tendency would be for an efflux of farmers from the areas with stringent regulations to the areas more lenient, but the Government prevented such migration by prohibiting the sale of cultivated land. As the feudal clans strove after the attainment of a position of self-sufficiency in foodstuffs, the majority of the farmers were compelled to centre their energies on the production of rice and barley, the main foods of the Japanese people.

Export Ban Raised Like the Tokugawa régime, the Meiji Government concentrated its energy on agricultural development, but in a more informed manner. The export of rice and barley, which was banned by the Tokugawas, was permitted by the Meiji Government from January, 1872, the fifth year of Meiji, and since then the export of rice has been made free in principle, although limits have been imposed occasionally, and for short times, because of the need of regulating the price of rice. The reason for the Government initiating rice exports was that it had decided to break away from the centuries' old custom of having taxes paid in rice and accept monetary payments only. It possessed a large amount of rice in its warehouses, an amount which was ever increasing, and this fact prompted it to dispose of its stocks abroad to prevent the drop of rice prices and avert the consequent blow to Government finance. The Government consigned the rice to a British trading concern, Walsh and Hall. The export lasted for two years, to January, 1874, and during this period 1,197,843 koku were shipped to Hongkong, Amoy, Shanghai, Swatow, Fukien, Sydney, Melbourne, London and San Francisco. By this sale, the Government obtained ¥4,925,905. Trade conditions abroad at the time were very bad and the amount the Government received was about ¥1,420,000 less than was expected might be realized from a sale at home, but it had the desired effect of preventing a fall in domestic prices. After all, the greater part of the rice had been taken over, without payment from the Tokugawa Shogunate and feudal clans, so the Government was by no means a loser on the transaction, and the farmers benefitted as farm products were emancipated from all restrictions on trading. The Tokugawa ban on the sale of land was removed in part in 1872. By removing the ban the Meiji Government recognized the private ownership of land and, furthermore, made the sale and

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mortgaging of it easy by adopting a system of land certificates.

Relief of Unemployed Samurai The majority of samurai were naturally thrown into unemployment by the Restoration of Meiji, and as they were the warrior class their unemployment was a great menace to the new Government. In order to give them proper employment the Government decided to encourage them in agricultural pursuits and as Hokkaido, the Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands, Sambongihara (Aomori prefecture) and Koganegahara (Chiba prefecture) required developing, the Government, in concert with former feudal lords, sent batches of samurai immigrants to these districts. A liberal subsidy was given to them, and as the results proved satisfactory the Government was successful in tiding over the possible crisis coming from a sudden increase of jobless samurai.

The Komaba School Toshimichi Okubo, one of the greatest figures of the Restoration, concentrated his energy on agricultural development. The Komaba Agricultural School, Tokyo, predecessor to the College of Agriculture of the Tokyo Imperial University, was founded in 1877 through his efforts. The Government protection for agricultural development was thoroughgoing. The appropriation of funds, establishment of agricultural schools and experimental stations, importation and application of Western agricultural technique, plantation of beet sugar, sheep-raising, cattle-breeding and sundry other necessary steps for agricultural improvement were adopted.

Agricultural Encouragement

The Government Activities George A. H. Hall, an American agricultural expert, was engaged by the Government in 1871 as an adviser on live-stock breeding and farming. The importation of cotton seeds from the Netherlands, the opening of the Komaba Agricultural Experimental Station, and sundry other enterprises were undertaken. In 1875, the Government sent abroad officials and students to study agriculture. A sheep-raising industry was sanctioned and an eight year plan to bring the industry to an advanced stage of efficiency was devised. Farms were selected in three villages in Chiba prefecture and the enterprise was under the supervision of American experts. Sheep were imported from Australia, America and China. The Senju Woollen Cloth Manufacturing Co., still in existence under Government management, was established in September, 1879. Beet sugar cultivation was started with the erection of a sugar refining mill at Mombetsu, Hokkaido, in 1879, with Government support. The expenses were ¥136,460. Work was started in 1881. The plantation area was 120 cho, and this was divided and allotted to 440 farm houses. Due to inexperience only 15,000 kin of sugar were produced and the plan to manufacture 700,000 kin of sugar yearly ended in failure. All these protective steps of the Government came to an end with the death of Okubo and the farming industry was left to look after itself until 1890.

New Ministry Created The Government in April, 1881, established the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, against public opinion, but its general policy seemed to be one of laisser faire and, in consequence, various Government enterprises were transferred to private management. For the ten years from the Sino-Japanese War, 1894-95, to the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-5, a policy of protection was resorted to, and various protective measures were adopted, such as enforcement of the Japan Hypothec Bank Law, Agricultural

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and Industrial Bank Law, Arable Land Readjustment Law, Agricultural Society Law, Co-operative Society Law, Staple Produce Traders' Association Law, and the Prefecture Agricultural Experimental Station Treasury Subsidization Law.

Purpose of Measures Taken Not only were these measures intended for to protect the farmers from troubles peculiar to their own industry but also to protect them from the increase of troubles arising from the growth of other industry and competition with foreign farm products. Farm products in Japan were diminishing in quantity and quality through sundry conditions, such as the climate, labour wages and Japan's changing social and international relations. With the promotion of foreign trade, cheaper-priced farm products such as raw cotton, indigo and beans began to be imported in large quantities and, when the occupation of Formosa as the result of the Sino-Japanese War resulted in a rapid expansion of sugar cultivation in that region, large-scale enterprises at home were rendered unnecessary. The import tariff on raw cotton was cancelled in April, 1896, and domestic plantations ceased to exist.

Subsidies and Tariff After the Sino-Japanese War bankruptcy was very rife among the farmers and relief was given to them by the passing of the Agricultural Society Law in 1899, by which the societies were to be given an annual subsidy of ¥150,000. In 1906, rice and unhulled rice were taken off the free list and a duty of 64 sen per 100 kin was imposed on their importation, the tariff on barley was raised to 57 sen from 10.1 sen per 100 kin and that on wheat raised to 47 sen from 15.3 sen per 100 kin and, in 1911, the tariff on rice and unhulled rice was raised to ¥1 and that on wheat to 77 sen.

Other Encouragement During the first decade or so of the century the Government also paid much attention to agriculture in other directions, for instance, the Treasury was authorized to subsidize research into and relieve sericulturists whose silk-worms had suffered from disease. An Increased Mulberry Growth Encouragement Fund, Land Improvement Encouragement Fund, Insect Ravage Prevention Fund and certain other funds and subsidies were paid out of the Treasury. As foreign rice and wheat were heavily imported agricultural interests suffered, a suffering that was not mitigated by the inflow of new capital, for capital was now being centralized in the cities and farmers, ever in constant financial difficulties, were compelled to borrow from money lenders at high rates of interest. Educated landlords found it advisable to give up farming and rural communities lost their leadership while urban industry gained.

The World War The World War promptly affected agriculture. Production in foreign countries fell, and as the prices of agricultural products rose Japanese foodstuffs were exported in large quantities. In 1914 the export value of cereals, flour and starch totalled ¥9,000,000, in the following year it increased to ¥24,000,000, in 1916 it was ¥36,000,000, in 1917 it was ¥79,000,000, and in 1918 passed the ¥100,000,000 mark. There was also an increased home demand, the cities were enjoying unprecedented prosperity and while the prosperity lasted the farmers benefitted, but with the termination of the war reaction set in, prices dropped, and agriculture found itself in the well of depression from which it has not yet extricated itself. The largest area under cultivation was

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6,162,000 chobu, in 1921, but since then the area has kept declining.

Gold Embargo The replacement of the gold embargo enabled Japan to dodge the immediate settlement of its most important domestic problem, that of the farmers. The factors entering the equation were many and complicated, bearing directly not only upon the living standards of the agricultural community, which constitutes 46 per cent. of Japan's population, but upon the solvency of the banks. Before the re-imposition of the gold embargo, rice was selling at ¥17 per koku, against a cost of production estimated at about ¥30. Making up this high cost of production were dear money (the farmer pays 10 or 11 per cent. on his borrowings), high taxes (the farmer with a profit pays more than double the merchant with a profit and infinitely more when profits are lacking), the cost of fertilizers, and the cost of living (forced upward over a period of years by a rising tariff wall). Inability of the farms to pay taxes and interest had forced down the prices of real estate. Between the financial panic of 1927 and the replacement of the gold ban in December, 1931, such prices had fallen between 30 and 50 per cent., depending on locality. Lenders on rural real estate were carrying paper losses of between ¥500,000,000 and ¥625,000,000 the figure representing the difference between the current market price of the land and the amounts due, including defaults in interest and instalments. The losses represented between 20 and 25 per cent. of the value of the total agricultural mortgages outstanding.

An Analysis Assuming that the ¥2,700,000,000 of outstanding loans were on a 50 per cent. basis, the value of the land involved is ¥5,400,000,000, or 41 per cent. of the total value of farmlands in 1931, and the average amount of debt on each cho of land on which borrowings have been made is ¥2,058, an average of ¥226 a year in interest alone. The interest burden on each koku of rice produced on such debt-laden land is ¥12.20. If the 1924 valuation of ¥5,680 per cho were taken as averaged, the debt burden per debt-laden cho would rise to ¥2,813, and the annual interest burden per koku of rice to ¥16.70.

Lasd Values Land values went up sharply during the World War and post-war boom years. Between 1917 and 1924 they were at their peak, between 1924 and 1927 they fell but slightly, but between the 1927 panic and the replacement of the gold embargo at the end of 1931 they fell about 30 per cent. The effect of this decline in farm land value can be estimated from the following figures, which represent outstanding loans of the Hypothec Bank of Japan and of all the prefectural agricultural and industrial banks at year-ends:

End of	Loans	Average price per cho
1917	¥391,235,000	
1918	422,511,000	¥4,330
1920	630,444,000	5,940
1924	1,119,216,000	5,680
1927	1,407,718,000	5,460
1931	1,724,560,000	4,110
1932	1,843,596,000	3,880

The figures in the right-hand column above are those of the Hypothec Bank of Japan.

Farm Households and Arable Land

Farm Households Number of farm households totalled 5,621,535 at the end of 1933, which figure holds 45% of the total number of households in Japan Proper. Comparison with that of the previous year indicates decrease of 20,974 (0.4%).

The review of the ten preceding years reveals the trend of slow but

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uninterrupted increase in the number, although the percentage held by it to the total households has been on the yearly decline.

As classified by those principally engaged and those subsidiarily engaged in agriculture, the figure consists of 4,126,052 (73%) of the former, increasing by 9,374 (0.2%) and 1,495,483 (27%) of the latter, lower by 30,348 (2%), both as compared with the figures of the previous year. During the ten preceding years steady upward trend is indicated by the former, the latter pursuing the contrary course.

Farm households cultivating their own lands numbered 1,745,847 (31%), while the number of tenant-farmers and households cultivating their own lands together with those leased being 1,499,855 (27%) and 2,375,833 (42%) respectively.

The trend followed by those cultivating their own lands during the past ten years and those cultivating their own lands together with those leased has been a slow growth, tenant-farmers indicating a tendency towards decline in number recently.

As classified by size of agricultural area operated, number of farm households of those operating area under 0.50 ha. 1,920,643 (34%), those ranging from 0.50 ha. to under 0.99 ha. 1,927,660 (34%), those from 0.99 ha. to under 1.98 ha. 1,247,517 (22%), and those from 1.98 ha. and over 525,715 (10%).

To summarize, those operating on a small scale have been increasing, while those on a medium and a large scale showed a marked drop.

Owners of Arable-lands Number of owners of arable-lands totalled 5,119,936 at the end of 1933 decreasing from that of the previous year by 402 (0.01%). As divided according to area owned, this figure is made up of those owning area under 0.50 ha. which leads the list, being 2,550,437 (49.8%), those owning from 0.50 ha. to under 0.99 ha. numbered 1,284,076 (25.0%). In this way the more the area, the less the number of owners, and so those owning 49.59 ha. and over are only 3,634 (0.1%) in numbr. In the light of the tendency during the previous ten years uninterrupted increase is traceable in the total number, while by reference to the tendency of number fluctuation according to area owned, those under 2.98 ha. are pursuing a steady upward course, those owning more than 2.98 ha. showing the reverse trend.

Area of Arable-lands Area of arable-lands at the end of 1933 was computed at 5,978,939.90 ha., occupying 15% of the total area of Japan proper. This figure consists of 3,198,970.21 ha. (54%) of rice-fields and 2,779,969.69 ha. (46%) of upland-farms. Comparison of these figures with those of the previous year indicates increase of 5,645.85 ha. (0.2%) on the part of the former and increase of 30,778.61 ha. (1.1%) on the latter, both making increase of 36,424.46 ha. (0.6%) in the total area. As reviewed from the point of the tendency during the ten preceding years, area of rice-fields has been on the gradual increase, that of upland-farms pursuing the downward direction.

Classified into those cultivated by owners of lands and those by tenant-farmers, area cultivated by the former was 3,159,188.93 ha. (53%), increasing by 21,184.77 ha. (0.7%), the latter being 2,819,750.97 ha. (47%), higher by 15,239.69 ha. (0.5%), both as against the figures of the previous year.

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FARM HOUSEHOLDS AND ARABLE LANDS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Compiled by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

FARM HOUSEHOLDS

Year (At the year end)	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Total	5,532,429	5,543,599	5,555,157	5,561,608	5,575,881
Households principally engaged in agriculture	3,857,486	3,880,284	3,900,584	3,921,436	3,952,249
Households subsidiarily engaged in agriculture	1,674,943	1,668,315	1,654,573	1,640,172	1,623,632
Classified by the mode of tenure of the lands					
Households cultivating their own lands	1,725,828	1,725,034	1,732,180	1,737,193	1,748,071
Tenant-farmers	1,531,177	1,525,656	1,508,589	1,495,676	1,482,856
Households cultivating their own lands together with those leased	2,275,424	2,297,909	2,314,488	2,328,789	2,344,954
Classified by the size of agricultural area under operation					
Under 0.50 ha.	1,944,663	1,951,156	1,951,880	1,944,523	1,946,700
0.50 ha. —— 0.99 ,,	1,868,794	1,877,185	1,885,723	1,895,837	1,894,667
0.99 ,, —— 1.98 ,,	1,181,133	1,185,364	1,190,283	1,195,332	1,209,809
1.98 ,, —— 2.98 ,,	323,666	322,850	321,548	321,741	321,202
2.98 ,, —— 4.96 ,,	138,011	137,084	134,116	133,661	133,074
4.96 ha. and over	76,162	74,960	72,157	70,514	70,429

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	5,575,583	5,599,670	5,633,800	5,642,509	5,621,535
Households principally engaged in agriculture	3,990,135	4,041,682	4,090,585	4,116,678	4,126,052
Households subsidiarily engaged in agriculture	1,585,448	1,557,988	1,543,215	1,525,831	1,495,483
Classified by the mode of tenure of the lands					
Households cultivating their own lands	1,737,438	1,742,993	1,756,399	1,754,537	1,745,847
Tenant-farmers	1,478,214	1,486,133	1,495,310	1,498,596	1,499,855
Households cultivating their own lands together with those leased	2,359,981	2,370,544	2,382,091	2,389,376	2,375,833
Classified by the size of agricultural area under operation					
Under 0.50 ha.	1,938,155	1,939,404	1,941,488	1,936,419	1,920,943
0.50 ha. —— 0.99 ,,	1,899,842	1,916,367	1,933,172	1,933,219	1,927,660
0.99 ,, —— 1.98 ,,	1,220,182	1,227,417	1,236,380	1,242,863	1,247,517
1.98 ,, —— 2.98 ,,	318,037	316,525	319,747	324,294	319,351
2.98 ,, —— 4.96 ,,	130,169	129,056	130,078	129,523	129,529
4.96 ha. and over	69,248	70,901	72,935	76,191	76,835

The prefecture of Okinawa is excluded from the figures of 1923.
Excluding owners of arable-lands not engaged in cultivation.

OWNERS OF ARABLE-LANDS

Year (At the year end)	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Total	4,970,444	4,979,018	4,997,592	5,008,751	5,045,060
Under 0.50 ha.	2,470,162	2,478,560	2,492,235	2,484,708	2,504,293
0.50 ha. —— 0.99 ,,	1,207,052	1,218,144	1,221,261	1,226,627	1,240,036

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Year (At the year end)	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
0.99 „ — 2.98 ha.	890,574	888,628	889,814	903,537	909,699
2.98 „ — 4.96 „	232,923	227,718	230,106	229,957	228,953
4.96 „ — 9.92 „	117,088	115,355	114,114	114,357	112,851
9.92 „ — 49.59 „	47,695	46,330	45,917	45,510	45,178
49.59 ha. and over	4,950	4,293	4,145	4,055	4,055

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	5,040,649	5,064,945	5,095,447	5,120,388	5,119,936
Under 0.50 ha.	2,508,933	2,524,633	2,535,438	2,546,089	2,550,437
0.50 ha. — 0.99 „	1,246,245	1,256,899	1,273,214	1,286,050	1,284,076
0.99 „ — 2.98 „	899,560	895,932	899,128	903,41	899,506
2.98 „ — 4.96 „	222,984	224,844	224,983	222,827	222,779
4.96 „ — 9.92 „	113,425	112,941	112,869	112,449	113,104
9.92 „ — 49.59 „	45,445	45,812	46,052	46,270	46,400
49.59 ha. and over	4,057	3,884	3,763	3,788	3,634

N.B.—The prefecture of Okinawa is excluded from the figures of 1923.

ARABLE LANDS

Year (At the year end)	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Total ha.	6,015,039.57	6,016,874.38	6,029,803.64	6,028,171.54	6,035,171.80
Cultivated by owners of the lands „	3,252,321.42	3,259,256.53	3,268,730.18	3,269,971.64	3,270,176.03
Cultivated by tenant-farmers „	2,762,718.15	2,757,617.85	2,761,073.46	2,758,199.90	2,764,995.77
Rice-fields „	3,057,238.21	3,076,375.44	3,092,733.42	3,103,900.86	3,121,588.66
Cultivated by owners of the lands „	1,484,436.20	1,500,449.55	1,512,655.93	1,521,842.58	1,529,507.01
Cultivated by tenant-farmers „	1,572,802.01	1,575,925.89	1,580,077.49	1,582,058.28	1,592,081.65
Upland-farms „	2,957,801.36	2,940,498.94	2,937,070.22	2,924,270.68	2,913,583.14
Cultivated by owners of the lands „	1,767,885.22	1,758,806.98	1,756,074.25	1,748,129.06	1,740,669.02
Cultivated by tenant-farmers „	1,189,916.14	1,181,691.96	1,180,995.97	1,176,141.62	1,172,914.12

Year (At the year end)	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total ha.	5,848,695.17 *5,849,488.17	5,867,101.09	5,904,607.83	5,942,563.44	5,978,989.90
Cultivated by owners of the lands „	3,059,426.78 *3,036,886.81	3,066,146.98	3,120,478.81	3,188,032.98	3,159,188.98
Cultivated by tenant-farmers „	2,789,268.39 *2,812,601.45	2,800,954.11	2,784,129.02	2,804,530.51	2,819,750.97
Rice-fields „	3,166,170.74 *3,165,874.61	3,177,749.55	3,185,312.92	3,193,345.89	3,198,970.21
Cultivated by owners of the lands „	1,468,153.29 *1,418,483.20	1,471,615.83	1,484,729.55	1,490,420.73	1,496,365.29
Cultivated by tenant-farmers „	1,698,017.45 *1,747,391.50	1,706,133.72	1,700,583.37	1,702,925.16	1,702,604.92
Upland-farms „	2,682,524.43 *2,683,613.56	2,689,351.54	2,719,294.91	2,749,217.55	2,779,969.69
Cultivated by owners of the lands „	1,591,273.49 *1,618,403.61	1,594,531.15	1,635,749.26	1,647,612.20	1,662,823.64
Cultivated by tenant-farmers „	1,091,250.94 *1,065,209.95	1,094,820.39	1,083,545.65	1,101,605.35	1,117,146.05

N.B.—The prefecture of Okinawa is excluded from the figures of 1923.
The discrepancies between the actual area at the end of 1929 and the figures obtained by adjusting the area at the end of 1928 with reference to the change of area in 1929 in the last table are explained by the fact that the area at the end of 1929 has undergone some changes with the results of Arable-Land Census of 1929.

* Results of the Arable-Land Census taken on the 1st of September, 1929.

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Value of the Production

The production and value of rice, wheat and cocoons, the three chief staples in the country for the last five years follow:

VALUE OF PRODUCTION

			1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Rice	Quantity	(1,000 koku)	66,875	55,215	60,390	70,829	51,839
	Value	(1,000 yen)	1,117,951	913,181	1,235,023	1,433,590	1,384,622
Wheat	Quantity	(1,000 koku)	6,125	6,406	6,498	8,013	9,450
	Value	(1,000 yen)	75,286	53,607	66,649	114,033	121,744
Cocoons	Quantity	(1,000 kwan)	106,464	97,072	89,550	101,163	78,199
	Value	(1,000 yen)	304,213	275,557	296,791	500,129	203,849

Rice Statistics

Supply and Demand of Rice The supply and demand of rice for the past 11 years were as follows:

SUPPLY

(In koku)

Rice year	Brought over from the previous year	Production of the year before	Imports including those from Colonies	Total
1924	6,789,850	55,444,089	9,533,613	71,767,552
1925	5,210,234	57,170,413	12,088,344	74,468,991
1926	5,500,031	59,704,286	9,541,387	74,745,704
1927	5,967,771	55,592,820	12,670,239	74,230,830
1928	5,765,541	62,102,541	11,255,519	79,123,601
1929	7,840,192	60,303,089	8,909,410	77,052,691
1930	7,027,557	59,557,694	8,602,411	75,187,662
1931	5,719,241	66,875,535	11,486,145	84,080,961
1932	9,140,247	55,215,263	11,602,116	75,957,626
1933	8,907,000	60,390,098	12,747,000	82,045,000
1934	9,007,000	70,829,000	13,744,000	93,582,000

DEMAND

	Exports including those to Colonies	Carried forward to next year	Consumption	Total population in Japan Proper	Per capita consumption
1924	767,359	5,210,234	65,789,959	58,622,000	1.122
1925	1,908,448	5,500,031	67,060,512	59,405,000	1.129
1926	539,081	5,967,771	68,238,852	60,267,000	1.132
1927	1,284,285	5,765,541	67,181,004	61,190,000	1.098
1928	965,164	7,840,192	70,298,245	62,127,000	1.132
1929	539,807	7,027,557	69,485,827	63,078,000	1.102
1930	539,963	5,717,117	68,930,582	64,043,000	1.076
1931	1,968,389	9,140,247	72,977,325	64,983,000	1.124
1932	631,613	8,907,430	66,418,583	65,957,000	1.007
1933	623,000	9,007,000	72,413,000	66,837,000	1.090
1934	681,000	16,430,000	76,470,000	66,900,000	1.142

Each rice year begins with November of the previous year and ends with October, and production of the year before in 1924 represents the crop in the autumn of 1923.

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Area of Rice Fields The area of rice fields and rice production follow:

Year	Rice fields (1,000 chobu)	Rice production (1,000 koku)	Per tan production (koku)
1926	3,158	55,598	1.760
1927	3,174	62,103	1.957
1928	3,192	60,303	1.889
1929	3,211	59,558	1.855
1930	3,239	66,876	2.064
1931	3,249	55,215	1.700
1927–1931 5 year average	3,213	60,811	1.892
1932	3,257	60,390	1.845
1933	3,173	70,829	2.232
1934	3,172	51,840	1.634

Korean Rice Crop The total rice crop in Korea for 1933 totalled 18,190,000 koku, an increase of 1,844,000 koku from the 1932 total. Since rice is more expensive than millet, the Korean eats millet imported from Manchuria and exports his rice to Japan. That, at least, is the theory. In recent years, however, the Korean Government-General's efforts to promote rice production have been so successful that the imports of millet no longer occupy the important position they once did. Korea is consuming more rice. Figures follow:

RICE CONDITION IN KOREA

Year	Production	Foreign rice imports (In 1,000 koku)	Exports to Japan Proper
1924	13,219	926	4,428
1925	14,773	504	5,213
1926	15,300	821	5,903
1927	17,298	361	7,068
1928	13,511	429	5,377
1929	13,703	586	5,167
1930	19,183	17	7,929
1931	15,873	233	7,197
1932	16,346	106	—
1933	18,192	—	7,990
1934	16,717	—	—

Formosan Rice Crop Formosa had a good crop in 1932 and consequently exported more to Japan proper. Its gains more than offset the Korean losses. The 1933 production of rice was also on the increase, the crop being 8,666,000 koku, an increase of 593,000 koku compared with 1932. Its export to Japan proper is also on the increase, the 1933 export figure being 4,123,000 koku against 3,330,000 koku of the previous year.

RICE CONDITION IN FORMOSA

Year	Production	Foreign rice imports (In 1,000 koku)	Exports to Japan Proper
1926	6,101	403	2,437
1927	6,637	799	2,703
1928	6,841	287	2,387
1929	6,451	551	2,172
1930	7,111	68	2,071
1931	7,516	6	2,663
1932	8,072	150	3,333
1933	8,666	—	4,123
1934	9,088	—	—

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Imports of Rice Imports of foreign rice into Japan during 1933 amounted to 998,000 koku, a gain of 13,000 koku over 1932. Added to the imports from Korea and Formosa, these brought the total imports to 12,747,000 koku, a gain of 1,144,000 koku over 1932. Figures follow:

IMPORTS OF RICE

Year	Korean rice	Formosan rice	Foreign rice	Total
		(In 1,000 koku)		
1923	3,453	1,131	1,620	6,208
1924	4,547	1,658	3,326	9,538
1926	5,213	2,186	2,141	9,541
1927	5,903	2,637	4,128	12,670
1928	7,068	2,430	1,753	11,255
1929	5,377	2,253	1,277	8,909
1930	5,167	2,185	1,248	8,602
1931	7,992	2,663	829	11,486
1932	7,198	3,420	985	11,603
1933	7,531	4,216	998	12,747

The Uses of Rice In the following there is shown rice consumption as classified by uses in 1930:

Uses	Consumption	Percentage of total
	(In 1,000 koku)	
Seeds	816	1.1
Eating	59,471	86.4
Making Saké	3,593	5.2
Making Mochi (rice cake)	3,393	4.9
Making Miso (bean mash) and Soy	478	0.6
Making Cake and Amé (Jelly)	774	1.1
Paste	35	—
Others	213	0.3
Total	68,776	100.0

Production Cost

The cost of production of rice for 1933 in comparison with the previous two years was, according to an investigation made by the Imperial Agricultural Society, as follows:

	1933	1932	1931
Production cost per koku	¥ 24.97	21.83	23.07
Production cost per tan (.245 acre)	63.57	58.90	58.05

The production cost per tan includes the following:

	1933	1932	1931
Direct production cost	¥ 33.22	30.39	29.60
Indirect production cost	30.35	28.51	28.45

1934 Rice Crop Rice crops in 1934 amounted to 51,839,629 koku, being a decrease of 18,989,488 koku (26.8%) as compared with the previous year and of 10,733,913 koku (17.2%) as compared with the average for the five years. The total rice fields under cultivation in 1934 covered an area of 31,728,739 tan, and the average yield per tan was 1.634 koku. This shrinkage in production was due to the poor harvests in the north eastern districts owing to the untimely cool weather which had checked growth of rice plants and, on the other hand, to the dearth of rainfall in Kyushu and Shikoku districts. The first forecast on September 20 was estimated at 57,026,780 koku. But the typhoon of September 21 brought about heavy damages to the rice crops in Kansai districts.

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The weather that followed was also unusually unseasonable, low in temperature and scanty in sunshine. The second forecast on Oct. 31, 1934, reported a decrease of 6,280,640 koku as compared with the first estimate. But the recovery of weather since the second estimate gave a result which saw an increase of 1,093,489 koku (2.2%).

Farm Relief Measures

Frozen Real Estate Liquidation Loans Loans secured by mortgages of real estate amounted to about ¥6,000,000,000, of which those guaranteed by ordinary banks totalled ¥1,650,000,000. Because of the great depression in agriculture relief had to be given. Three measures were taken. The first was to advance ¥50,000,000 through the Japan Hypothec Bank, prefectural hypothec banks and Hokkaido Colonization Bank to ordinary banks to commence liquidation of outstanding loans, but, due to the fact that no Government guarantee for the losses that might be sustained by those banks was provided for legally, they hesitated to take up the business. A bill providing that the Government should guarantee their losses to the maximum amount of ¥100,000,000 was submitted to and passed by the 63rd ordinary Diet session in December, 1932, and liquidation started.

Farmers demanded a moratorium on their debts, but the Government found it impossible to accept the demand and agreed to postpone the redemption of the principal and interest of their debts to the Deposit Bureau for three years, commencing the 1932-33 year and at the same time decided to advance ¥65,000,000 to farmers for readjustment of these debts. The third measure taken by the Government was to guarantee probable losses of the Central Bank for Co-operative Societies to the amount of ¥30,000,000. Out of about ¥1,000,000,000 loans to farmers, medium-sized business men and industrialists by the credit societies, ¥300,000,000 was estimated as bad debts. In order to smooth out this financial difficulty, the Government decided to make the Central Bank for Co-operative Societies advance loans to the amount of ¥100,000,000 of low interest rate funds to these credit societies, against which the Government guarantees ¥30,000,000. The term of redemption was 15 years.

A large rice crop means a great crisis for Japanese farmers occupying more than 45 per cent. of the total population of Japan. They can hardly cover their production cost of rice by cheap price following a large crop. A considerable farm deprivation followed and purchasing price sank heavily. The situation threatened to affect industries, whose prosperity depends very much upon the purchasing power of farmers. The Government and political parties racked their brains how to find out proper counter measures. The Rice Control Law, which the Government believed as the best, went into force on November 1, 1933. The law provides for fixing the high and low rice prices for every year by an Imperial ordinance. Prices are based on productive cost and living expenses. In order to maintain these prices the Government buys rice at the lowest price and sells it when the market price reaches the highest official price. According to the law, the Government is in a position to accept applications for sales of rice indiscriminately from farmers, but in the first year it does not buy rice other than that produced in 1933. The Government also will not buy rice failed to be duly qualified by testing. The 1933-34 high rice price was fixed at ¥30.50 and the

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lowest at ¥23.30 per koku. Korean and Formosan rice is left out of the control law. Taking advantage of this, colonial rice found its way heavily into the Japanese market. Japan who encouraged an increased production of colonial rice for many years to make good short supply of home rice does not want it any more, because of a surplus supply in recent years. The cultivation of paddy fields in Japan leaves no more room for further development, while the increased production is still going on in Korea and Formosa, as follows :

(In koku)

	Japanese Rice crop	Korean Rice crop	Formosan Rice crop
1927	62,102,541	15,300,707	6,686,563
1928	60,303,089	17,298,887	6,841,070
1929	59,557,694	13,511,725	6,450,641
1930	66,882,008	18,701,746	7,110,852
1931	55,215,263	15,872,999	7,516,324
1932	60,390,098	16,345,825	8,072,848
1933	70,829,000	18,192,000	8,361,800
1934	51,839,629	16,717,000	9,088,800

Rice Question in 1934 The rice year 1934 (which means 12 months ending October 31, 1934) was one of misfortune. On September 1, 1933 (which was two months before the close of the rice year 1933), the total rice stock in the country was estimated at 17,126,000 koku, an increase of 1,979,000 koku as compared with the previous year's figure of the corresponding date. The first rice crop forecast, which was published on September 20, 1933, placed the figure at 65,680,000 koku, which gave an ample indication of rice flood that would take place as the between-season approached. Uneasiness was soon visible in rice markets and pessimism prevailed due to prospective decline in the price of rice. Holders of large quantities of rice began to clamour for Governmental purchases of the commodity. Local agricultural associations held a national convention and passed a resolution urging the Government to take a quick step for the remedy of the situation. The Government lent a willing ear to the demand, and adopted measures immediately. The first was the disbursement of the rice relief fund, amounting to ¥30,000,000, in September instead of in December as usual and the second was purchases by the Government of early rice crop to the extent of 350,000 koku. But these proved to be a mere patch-work. Fundamentarily the supply of rice was greater than the demand for.

In the meantime, the approach of the promulgation of the Rice Control Law had shown effects. A further collapse of the market had been held in check. But the weak tone still tenaciously held and it gradually became known that the Rice Control Law was insufficient for the solution of the rice question. Some other measures had to be taken. In response to the demand, the Government drew up two trial measures : (1) a reduction in the production of rice and (2) the encouragement of storing of rice. Around the first item of the programme, however, hot discussions ensued. Opposition was expressed even among the Cabinet members, not to mention the Seiyukai, with the result that it was postponed indefinitely. The other item, viz., the encouragement of storing of rice was put into effect on and from December 1, 1933.

Rice Control Law Such was the situation at the beginning of the 1934 rice year. The Rice Control Law was put in operation as from November 1 of 1933, with the minimum standard price at ¥22.70 per koku and the maximum price at ¥30.50, pending the final decision of the Rice Control Commission, which announced the price rates on December 16 at ¥30.50-¥23.30.

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Immediately after the law was put into effect, the market quotations were somewhat above the minimum price fixed by the commission, owing principally to the expectation for a rise. But soon this proved unreal. The prospective increase of the crop in the second forecast, a large stock of surplus rice and the steady approach of the marketing period of new rice crop, all these combined to produce a drop in the price after the middle of December, which finally shrank below the minimum price. Application for sales of the commodity came thick to the Government. At the end of December the quantity offered for sale to the Government amounted to 2,370,000 koku (5,920 bales) and to 6,000,000 koku on January 4, 1934. Meantime, the harvest of 1933 was made known, it being 70,847,000 koku, which was 10,450,000 koku more than in the previous year. This meant that the rice supply in 1934 would leave a surplus of 18,300,000 koku over and above the demand. Under such circumstances it was no wonder that the market continued weak and sales to the Government received a further impetus. Thus the aggregate quantity of rice purchased by the Government reached 8,757,000 koku at the end of February.

Taiwan and Chosen Rice To make the situation worse rice from Taiwan and Chosen began to flood the rice market of the country, with the ensuing low price and dull market. Naturally the farmers began to clamour for immediate steps to be taken to remove the additional cause of their distress. The politicians joined their voice with the farmers and decided that unless the influx from the overseas territories be restricted within a certain limit, the Rice Control Law would lose most of its meaning. The 65th Session of the Diet witnessed fierce arguments for and against this proposal. Viscount Saito, then Premier, expressed his determination to introduce suitable bills in a week or so for the solution of this question and the result was that three bills were introduced and passed the Diet. The laws so enacted were, (1) the law for the temporary adjustment of the importation of rice, (2) the law for the creation of special account for the adjustment of supply and demand of rice and (3) the law for special disposition of Government owned rice, and all these three went into force as from May 20, 1934. The manner in which these three laws operated was as follows: (1) The Government would purchase rice from Taiwan and Chosen so as to check its effect on the price of home rice. The law, however, would cease to be operative on and from March 31, 1935. (2) The outlays necessary for the purchase of rice imported from Taiwan and Chosen would be met by disbursements from the special account created for the purpose. The limit of borrowings to be made by the special account was ¥850,000,000. A further borrowing of ¥300,000,000 by means of an Imperial Ordinance was made available in case of necessity. (3) The Government's holdings of rice were made disposable experimentarily in order to find out its new use, provided that the selling were not lower than those ruling in the markets.

In the meantime, there was organized in Chosen a league named "Chosen Rice Protection League", which adopted slogans, "Abolish discrimination against Chosen rice", "Rice is the death-or-life problem of 20,000,000 Koreans", etc. The next thing for them to do was to make representations at the Government-General and send up their representatives to Tokyo to gain a hearing to

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their situation. In Taiwan too similar agitations took place. A whole Taiwan mass meeting was held to make their fight a victorious one. In Japan the Imperial Agricultural Association was firm in their stand. On March 6 an urgent national agriculturists convention was held under the auspices of that Association and passed a resolution and declaration to arouse public opinion for the interest of home rice producers.

Meanwhile the Rice Control Law evidently began to demonstrate its power. The quotation of medium grade rice at Fukagawa, Tokyo, was firm at ¥23.04 in February, ¥22.99 in March and ¥23.70 in April, the last-mentioned being above the maximum price fixed by the Law. At the same time the rice purchased by the Government by the end of March aggregated to 9,724,000 koku ; the rice withdrawn from public consumption as a result of storing reached 5,210,000 koku ; and the purchases of Chosen rice by the Government totalled 420,000 koku. All these combined took away from the market a larger portion of the rice which otherwise would have accumulated and the result was to make the price firm, as reflected by the May quotation of more than ¥24.56 and a fall in the amount of governmental purchases to 18,700 koku in the same month.

An Abortive Attempt In order to meet with the pressing situation the need of finding out a more thoroughgoing method was inevitable. The need was made more pressing due to the damages to the Kansai districts done by the typhoon and flood of September 21, 1934. The outcome was the appointment by Premier Admiral Okada of the Rice Question Investigation Commission in September, 1934, which, after painstaking investigations, recommended the Government in January, 1935, to amend the Rice Control Law so as to help building storehouses and to enact a law for the monopoly of rice. The Government in accordance with the recommendation drafted bills and presented them before the House of Representatives on February 26, but owing to want of time they all failed to be voted on. The central idea of the monopoly was that the Government, assisted by the efficient cooperation of farmers, should control more effectively than now the marketing of rice. In this the main question was how to control the excessive supply of rice. In order to provide for this, the bill proposed to establish a special commission, whose function was at the beginning of each rice year to calculate the total supply of rice (including that of Chosen and Taiwan,) for the coming year, giving due consideration to the stock, the prospective quantity to be consummed within the year and the proper quantity to be left over to the next year and thus decide the quantity to be designated as "surplus", if any. This surplus was later to be apportioned among Japan proper, Taiwan and Chosen at the rate of 35%, 22% and 43% and stored there.

VALUE OF CEREAL PRODUCTION IN JAPAN PROPER

		1924—1934				
		1925	1926	1927	1928	1929
Total						
Area	ha.	5,035,072.25	5,004,051.28	4,995,562.92	4,967,963.61	4,944,646.01
Production (Value)	yen	2,553,303,016	2,176,003,617	2,075,818,016	1,945,671,111	1,885,193,294
Rice						
Area	ha.	3,127,772.93	3,132,169.78	3,147,454.71	3,165,358.12	3,184,070.18
Production	yen	2,133,767,667	1,836,221,505	1,764,337,385	1,633,008,619	1,584,729,848

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		1925	1926	1927	1928	1929
Wheat						
Area	ha.	464,940.79	463,706.88	469,826.78	485,916.40	490,877.45
Production	yen	114,762,622	103,579,534	100,383,802	101,540,977	96,796,739
Oats						
Area	ha.	107,311.34	108,855.27	122,894.55	115,173.42	117,126.94
Production	yen	13,978,443	13,292,062	14,178,585	12,665,113	12,592,762
Barley						
Area	ha.	453,014.08	443,845.98	422,003.31	400,386.94	391,209.52
Production	yen	108,370,264	83,520,117	65,341,873	67,789,880	66,653,717
Naked barley						
Area	ha.	545,248.26	540,013.69	526,274.48	506,788.28	496,899.67
Production	yen	133,700,724	101,224,422	94,342,659	94,561,837	95,055,300
Other cereals						
Area	ha.	336,784.85	315,469.68	307,609.09	294,390.45	264,462.25
Production	yen	48,723,296	38,165,977	37,233,712	36,104,685	29,364,928

		1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Total						
Area	ha.	4,947,887.50	4,970,291.20	4,998,713.86	4,947,136.47	—
Production (Value)	yen	1,343,463,984	1,086,126,373	1,414,859,457	1,680,499,165	—
Rice						
Area	ha.	3,212,550.35	3,221,870.58	3,230,611.74	3,147,809.9	3,146,587.44
Production	yen	1,117,951,548	913,181,567	1,235,023,997	1,433,590,419	1,384,621,927
Wheat						
Area	ha.	487,394.68	496,999.93	504,512.53	611,381.55	643,138.02
Production	yen	75,286,228	53,60,653	66,649,413	114,032,716	121,743,980
Oats						
Area	ha.	120,148.76	118,086.74	127,042.02	127,154.88	119,406.55
Production	yen	12,724,999	7,144,137	5,582,912	8,141,403	12,893,484
Barley						
Area	ha.	377,195.50	377,250.05	376,931.11	344,424.50	329,003.40
Production	yen	50,407,111	42,476,675	36,976,527	44,127,198	51,164,562
Naked barley						
Area	ha.	478,800.20	471,457.88	475,724.88	434,042.38	420,877.69
Production	yen	64,840,530	51,837,992	48,932,510	55,518,156	71,293,670
Other cereals						
Area	ha.	271,798.01	284,626.02	283,891.63	282,323.31	—
Production	yen	22,253,568	17,879,349	21,694,098	25,089,273	—

Other Farm Production

Leguminous Plants Area of leguminous plants in 1933 was 633,191.41 ha., with decrease of 11,728.66 ha. (1.8%) and the production was valued at ¥73,275,676 which is higher than that of the previous year. During the past decade area has been pursuing a slow, downward movement, while a sharp reduction experienced by production was more than made good by the increase of 1933. Soy-beans and azuki (red) beans are predominant both in area and production.

Soy-beans	326,673.03 ha.	5,064,557 hl.	¥ 34,583,742
Azuki beans	114,036.00 „	1,710,722 „	13,554,644

Tuber and Root Crops Area cultivated with tuber and root crops in 1933 was 601,998.84 ha. and the value realised from their production was ¥182,903,453, the former advancing by 22,639.13 ha. (3.9%), while the latter increased by ¥14,338,971 (8.5%) than those of the previous year. The review of the past decade points to yearly lowering both in area and production. From the standpoint of area and production, sweet potatoes, radishes, satoimo and potatoes are predominant.

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Sweet potatoes	269,393.95 ha.	35,117.238 100 kg.	¥ 70,458,656
Radishes	101,463.37 „	23,282.804 „	33,368,982
Satoimo (taro)	52,715.50 „	6,189.324 „	23,082,779
Potatoes	128,164.26 „	13,744.545 „	29,476,494

Industrial Crops Area cultivated with industrial crops in 1933 amounted to 239,658.54 ha. and the production was valued at ¥92,301,088, the former being 7,145.35 ha. (3.1%) above, the latter ¥18,195,811 (24.6%) higher, both as compared with the corresponding figures of the previous year. The tendency of the past ten years till 1933 has been a gradual falling-off on the part of area and a sharp decline in the value of production.

Chief products are summarized below :

Tobacco	66,540,142 kg.	¥ 39,158,028
Sugar cane	1,082,964,466 „	8,185,541
Rapeseed	1,321,984 hl.	11,630,612

Vegetables Area under vegetables in 1933 was 194,476.17 ha. and the value amounting to ¥94,749,739 was estimated for the production. Increase of 7,422.55 ha. (4.0%) and ¥12,451,965 (15.1%) were witnessed in comparison with those of the previous year.

Chief products are given below :

Water-melons	520,987,879 kg.	¥ 18,058,249
Tsukena	672,754,613 „	14,733,478
Egg-plants	468,230,636 „	13,875,733
Cucumbers	278,752,924 „	9,680,867
Negi (onion)	242,201,190 „	9,358,657

Fruits The production of fruits in 1933 was valued at ¥74,281,717, having increased by 16% to ¥10,047,338 as against the figure of the previous year. In the first half of the ten preceding years the production has been gradually improving but after the record production of 1928 the tendency was reversed, tending to a sharp decline.

Predominant are the following :

Mandarins	341,144,618 kg.	¥ 21,533,415 (29%)
Persimmons	236,303,156 „	11,599,941 (16%)
Pears of native origin	167,189,340 „	10,477,820 (14%)

Tea Tea manufactured in 1933 was 43,487,161 kg. in quantity and ¥21,209,279 in value, the former increasing by 3,077,063 kg. (7.6%) and the latter by ¥2,703,267 (14.6%) as against the figures of the previous year. Review of the past decade indicates an unbroken rise in production as a whole, while fluctuations in values of production have been brought about by falling-off of prices.

Livestock and Poultry (1) Horses Horses at the end of 1933 numbered 1,501,177, consisting of 852,834 of female and 648,343 of male. Foalings and horses perished were 110,326 and 22,443 respectively. The movement of number during the past decade has been very slow, often tending towards decline.

(2) Cattle Cattle at the end of 1933 numbered 1,559,838 (female, 1,157,936 ; male, 401,902), being 30,529 (0.2%) above the corresponding figure of the previous year. Calvings and cattle perished numbered 238,177 and 13,954 respectively. The tendency of the past ten years was a steadily increasing one.

(3) Swine Number of swine at the end of 1933 totalled 913,502, showing decrease of 12,508 (1.4%) over against that of the previous year. The movement during the year resulted in litters amounting to 659,565 and swine perished of

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79,502. The raising of swine has been showing a sharp advance during the past decade, the number at the beginning of the decade being nearly doubled by the close of the same period.

(4) Sheep and Goats Sheep and goats at the end of 1933 numbered 30,516 and 236,021 respectively, both increasing as compared with those of the previous year, and the tendency during these past ten years has been towards increase.

Generally speaking, raising of sheep and goats cannot be said yet to be prevalent in spite of this marked progress.

(5) Fowls The total number of fowls at the end of June, 1933 was 50,910,994 (valued at ¥31,012,766), showing decrease of 3,395,125 (6.3%) as compared with the figure of the previous year. During the past ten years the number has increased nearly by 100 per cent.

Livestock Production (1) Milk The quantity of milk obtained in 1933 amounted to 2,135,414 hl. valued at ¥25,879,821, increasing by 189,522 hl. (9.7%) as compared with that obtained in the previous year. The number of cows milked during the same year was 86,948 at the year end.

(2) Meat and Animals Slaughtered The number of animals slaughtered and the quantity of meat obtained in 1933 were as follows:

Number of Animals Slaughtered

Total	1,468,360
Horses	92,447
Cattle	326,227
Calves	30,349
Swine	983,241
Sheep and goats	36,096

Quantity of Meat Obtained

Total	116,488,613 kg.	¥75,446,495
Horses	11,966,843 ,,	4,960,534
Cattle	50,501,699 ,,	44,251,591
Calves	1,443,555 ,,	871,874
Swine	42,232,465 ,,	25,197,688
Sheep and goats	344,051 ,,	164,808

As compared with those of the previous year number of animals slaughtered and quantity of meat obtained show the increase of 10,713 (0.7%) and the decrease of 2,127,045 kg. (1.8%) while the value increased by ¥7,867,377 (11.6%).

(3) Dairy and Meat Products Dairy production in 1933 amounted to 22,493,535 kg. valued at ¥16,531,722, both increasing (30% in the former and 3.8% in the latter) as compared with the corresponding figures of the previous year. Meat products in 1933 totalled 2,480,231 kg. valued at ¥2,205,328, both showing increase of 252,993 kg. (11.4%) and ¥675,510 (44.2%) as against those of the previous year.

(4) Eggs Number of eggs obtained during the year ending June 1933 was as follows:

	Number (in 1,000)	Value
Fowl's	3,408,888	¥70,591,038
Duck's	12,227	304,433

Both kinds of eggs advanced in value as compared with those of the previous year.

During the past decade the production of eggs has shown a substantial increase especially as regards fowl eggs whose production in 1931 more than doubled the figure of 1922.

Farm Village Life in Japan

The distressed condition of farm villages in Japan is well reflected in the yearly growing cost of living which outstrip the growth of their gross incomes. The whole situation is given in the following figures:

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GROSS YEARLY INCOME AND COST OF LIVING IN FARM VILLAGES

Year	Landed Farmers			Semi-Landed Farmers		
	Cost of Living	Gross Income	Balance	Cost of Living	Gross Income	Balance
	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen
1922	1,256.589	1,381.040	124.451	980.956	1,803.872	102.916
1923	1,179.229	1,383.303	204.074	1,088.667	1,295.445	206.778
1924	1,392.107	1,748.290	356.093	1,295.721	1,462.303	166.582
1925	1,530.924	1,888.181	357.257	1,270.017	1,521.194	251.177
1926	1,383.065	1,597.786	214.721	1,133.839	1,387.444	253.605
1927	1,320.399	1,421.126	100.727	1,091.937	1,195.403	103.466
1928	1,297.235	1,394.423	97.188	1,036.474	1,180.482	144.008
1929	1,270.578	1,365.790	95.212	995.750	1,109.993	(−) 14.243
1930	919.479	837.301	(−) 82.178	767.954	698.817	(−) 69.137
1931	630.800	641.140	10.340	546.120	535.110	(−) 11.010

Year	Tenant Farmers			Average		
	Cost of Living	Gross Income	Balance	Cost of Living	Gross Income	Balance
	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen	Yen
1922	730.678	765.771	35.093	981.562	1,067.631	86.069
1923	776.557	941.937	165.380	1,007.487	1,198.743	191.256
1924	821.617	970.867	149.250	1,169.815	1,393.790	223.975
1925	890.033	1,212.351	322.318	1,254.881	1,563.325	308.444
1926	928.791	987.467	58.676	1,184.636	1,573.921	189.285
1927	885.663	986.555	101.492	1,117.420	1,219.237	101.807
1928	854.163	922.555	68.392	1,090.194	1,197.338	107.144
1929	875.945	874.284	(−) 1.661	1,074.454	1,150.354	75.900
1930	662.175	579.397	(−) 82.778	900.469	722.641	(−) 77.828
1931	470.200	448.970	(−) 21.230	549.050	541.740	(−) 7.310

The following are principal items that constitute the cost of living in the farm households as investigated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry:

AVERAGE YEARLY COST OF LIVING IN THE FARM HOUSEHOLDS, 1931

	Landed Farmers	Semi-landed Farmers	Tenant Farmers	Average
Number of households investigated	98	94	85	(total) 276
Average number of family members	5.61	4.86	5.48	5.41
Average farm area per household	(tan) 19.5	(tan) 15.9	(tan) 15.4	(tan) 16.9

EXPENSES

	Landed Farmers		Semi-landed Farmers	
	Amount	% to the Total Household Expenses	Amount	% to the Total Household Expenses
Housing	¥ 24.73	3.92	¥ 19.57	3.59
Food	249.85	39.61	228.00	41.70
Clothing	53.78	8.53	45.08	8.26
Light and fuel	38.66	6.12	32.62	5.98
Utensil	17.20	2.73	12.73	2.33
Cultural	9.00	1.43	5.91	1.08
Education	11.38	1.80	10.04	1.84
Entertainment	58.95	9.35	44.94	8.24
Liking	32.43	5.14	27 90	5.11
Enjoyment	5.89	0.93	3.06	0.56
Health and sanitation	40 02	6.34	27.65	5.07
Marriage and funeral	36.52	5.79	41.45	7.60
Various burdens	15.25	2.42	9 93	1.82
Others	37.14	5.89	37.24	6.82
Total	630.80	100.00	546.12	100.00

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	Tenant Farmers		Average	
	Amount	% to the Total Household Expenses	Amount	% to the Total Household Expenses
Housing	¥ 16.75	3.56	¥ 20.35	3.71
Food	220.63	46.92	232.83	42.39
Clothing	30.04	6.39	42.97	7.83
Light and fuel	28.31	6.02	33.20	6.05
Utensil	13.24	2.82	14.39	2.62
Cultural	4.73	1.01	6.54	1.60
Education	4.87	1.04	8.76	1.19
Entertainment	36.68	7.80	46.86	8.54
Liking	21.35	4.54	27.23	4.96
Enjoyment	2 39	0.51	3.78	0.68
Health and sanitation	26.10	5.55	31.26	5.69
Marriage and funeral	28.49	6.06	35.49	6.47
Various burdens	6.33	1.35	10.50	1.91
Others	30.29	6.43	34.89	6.36
Total	470.20	100.00	549.05	100.00

As shown in the above, in all the three classes of farm-households, landed, semi-landed and tenant farming, what constitute the largest portion in the cost of living is for food stuff. They spend for it 42.39% of their total household expenditure. A noteworthy thing is the gradual increase in the amount spent for that purpose from the landed farmers down to the tenant farmers. Next to food stuff they spend more than anything else for entertainment, clothing and marriage and funeral purposes, 8.54%, 7.83% and 6.47% being the order of the amount spent for these three items. Following them are the expenses for fuel and light of 6.05% and health and sanitation of 5.69%. In 1931 the farmers used their crops for payment of their household expenses to the extent of 40.88%, tenant farmers making payment for their purchases by this means up to 43.12%, semi-landed farmers up to 40.89% and landed farmers up to 39.22%.

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CHAPTER XIV

SERICULTURE AND RAW SILK

Sericulture

History

Historical records show that the raising of silkworms was practised in Japan more than two thousand years ago. It is surmised that the industry was first introduced into the country from Chosen or China, but for sometime it made but slow development, as the work was almost exclusively in the hands of the naturalized Koreans and Chinese. Following the introduction of Buddhism, and with the advance of civilization, the demand for silk gradually increased and the industry spread among Japanese farm households. After that, sericulture made steady growth until about 1,100 years ago, when, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, it made a sudden spurt and spread over half the Japan proper of those days, and in less than another century most of the remaining half of the country was engaged in silk production. Recent development made in the industry is outlined in the following table, showing the cocoon output for the past half a century.

	(in 1,000 kwan)	Index number
1880–1884	12,223	100
1885–1889	11,147	91
1890–1894	15,436	123
1895–1899	24,608	201
1900–1904	26,484	217
1905–1909	32,622	267
1910–1914	43,184	353
1915–1919	61,561	504
1920–1924	64,877	530
1925–1929	91,668	749
1930	106,469	871
1931	94,072	709
1932	89,550	732
1933	101,247	828
1934	87,199	713

The recent condition in the sericultural industry can roughly be explained as follows : (1933, as compared with 1931 and 1932)

	1931	1932	1933
Number of agrarian families	5,623,800	5,642,509	5,621,536
Number of silkworm raising families	2,119,817	2,064,639	2,092,187
Percentage of silkworm raising families	37.6	36.7	37.2
Mulberry plantation area	chobu 682,774	chobu 652,514	chobu 640,178
Number of egg-cards brushed	gramme 170,006,525	gramme 166,811,582	gramme 181,200,931
Quantity of cocoon yield	(1,000 kwan) 97,072	(1,000 kwan) 89,550	(1,000 kwan) 101,163,566
Value of cocoon yield	(1,000 yen) 275,557	(1,000 yen) 296,791	(1,000 yen) 500,129

The Silkworm-raising Industry

Its Position in Agriculture According to the statistics taken by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1933 the silkworm-raising families in Japan numbered 2,092,187 which is 37.2 per cent. of the entire agrarian families of 5,621,536 ; the mulberry plantation area was 640,178 chobu

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occupying 10.6 per cent. of the total cultivated area of 6,028,764.4 chobu, or 22.8 per cent. of the aggregate area under cultivation except paddy fields. On average, each cocoon-raising family had mulberry plantations of 3.01 tan.

Next to rice, cocoons are the most important agricultural product in Japan. The yearly output of cocoons for the five years 1928-1932 varies from 93,849,000 kwan to 106,469,000 kwan, valued at from ¥275,557,000 to ¥655,000,000, and amounting to from 15 to 20 per cent. of the total value of agricultural produce.

The table below shows the importance of different principal agricultural products. Cocoons, it will be noticed, occupy the second place till 1933.

POSITION OF COCOONS IN PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS

(Unit: ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931
Rice	1,584,729	1,117,951	913,181
Cocoon	655,000	304,212	275,580
Wheat and its kinds	271,099	203,258	155,571
Agricultural produce as food	198,951	141,096	127,641
Vegetables and flowers	255,472	139,489	170,000
Fruits	81,798	51,533	62,000
Artcraft agricultural product	109,961	83,131	75,500
Tea	30,472	24,198	18,871

	1932	1933	1934
Rice	1,235,024	1,433,590	1,384,622
Cocoon	296,791	500,129	203,849
Wheat and its kinds	158,141	221,819	256,595
Agricultural produce as food	158,1457	265,190	—
Vegetables and flowers	83,723	96,075	—
Fruits	064,244	74,291	—
Artcraft agricultural product	265,199	92,301	—
Tea	74,105	21,209	—

Egg-Cards

Control of Egg-cards Production In view of the severe competition with rayon silk in recent years there is a sheer necessity of improvement in silk industry so as to produce silk of a more superior quality with a lower cost of production, and the question of a better egg-cards comes first of all. There was no control of the preparation of egg-cards hitherto all the matter being altogether left to the hands of merchants and it is said that there are over 600 kinds of egg-cards to-day distributed among the farmers who are rather confounded in the choice of the best kind. For long the request for an effective control on the egg-cards production by the authorities has been raised among the farmers and silk producers. Consequently, the National Original Silkworm Egg-card Control Law was promulgated in 1934. The purpose of the Law is to realize a thorough control of egg-card production by 1938 and cut down the excessive number of different kinds and squeeze out the best ten by a special committee which is to be organized by the Imperial ordinance. The original egg-cards of the best kinds thus selected and sanctioned

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by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry shall be sent to local governments where they are multiplied and distributed among sericulturists. Private establishments may reproduce egg-cards out of the original ones, but the percentage is limited to 30% against the 70% of local governments' production. The price shall be fixed by the Imperial ordinance. The local governments are granted a delay of 10 years for the completion of facilities, but, as a matter of fact the control will be completed without delay because most of local governments can immediately respond while the vacancy left by backward prefectures will be filled up by private concerns for the time being. Encouragement shall be given to an invention of better egg-cards by individuals so as to prevent the abuse of a too-strict governmental control. An annual profit of at least ¥100,000,000 is estimated at as the result of the control.

EGG-CARDS AND COCOON PRODUCTION

	Egg-cards (1,000 cards)			Cocoon Production (1,000 kwan)				
Year	Spring	Summer-autumn	Totals	Spring	Summer-autumn	Totals	Crop value (¥1,000)	Value per Kwan
1923	7,843	9,177	17,020	39,936	29,603	69,539	660,403	¥9.50
1924	7,550	9,311	16,861	39,477	34,340	73,818	551,680	7.47
1925	7,610	10,120	17,730	42,927	41,872	84,799	824,256	9.72
1926	7,612	10,349	17,961	44,155	42,569	86,725	661,454	7.63
1927	7,470	10,959	18,429	46,228	44,633	90,862	496,933	5.47
1928	7,925	10,964	18,890	49,562	44,287	93,849	551,679	5.88
1929	8,097	11,072	19,169	50,595	51,498	102,093	655,001	6.42
1930	8,466	9,886	18,353	56,103	50,360	106,463	304,213	2.99
1931	8,483	9,533	18,015	52,667	44,405	97,072	275,580	2.84
1932	8,726	9,473	19,205	46,391	43,159	89,549	299,777	3.31
1933	81,198	100,002	181,200	50,019	51,144	101,163	500,129	4.94

Note: Each egg-card counted at a weight of 9.375 grammes.

Mulberry Plantations

The success of the silk-worm raising industry depends upon an adequate supply of suitable leaves on which to feed the worms.

In Japan there are as many as 276 varieties of mulberry trees, and from these, 71 are selected by local government authorities as model kinds, each having its own special characteristics.

The total mulberry plantation area in 1933, was 640,178 chobu against 652,514 chobu for 1932; and 682,902 chobu for 1932; the total area covered with mulberries in 1933 being 10.6% of the total arable land and 22.8% of the total upland farms in the country. The number of mulberry saplings that were raised in the same year counted 227,798,871 pieces.

Cost

According to the investigation made by the Imperial Farmers' Association, cost of production against the price of cocoons in 1933 was as follows:

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COST OF COCOON PRODUCTION

(For 1 kwan Cocoon; in yen)

Details	Spring Crop	Summer-Autumn
Egg-card	0.20	0.27
Mulberry leaves	1.82	1.73
Labour	1.46	1.84
Animal power	0.00	0.00
Cocoonery room	0.09	0 13
Instruments	0.15	0.22
Duties	0.09	0.13
Miscellaneous	0.30	0.26
Total	4.25	4.61
Price of 1 kwan best Cocoon	6.25	4.27
Income from by-products of the same	0.56	0.56

Educational Facilities There are in Japan three special colleges for the silk industry, namely, the Ueda Sanshi Semmon Gakko, Nagano prefecture; Tokyo Koto Sanshi Gakko, Tokyo; and Kyoto Koto Sanshi Gakko, Kyoto; besides which, there are, in different parts of the country, 16 public schools of middle school grade. Some of the agricultural colleges and middle grade schools also have classes dealing with silk industrial enterprises. In addition to these regular seats of learning there is a class for the practical training of silk-raisers at every sericultural experimental station established by the Government in each silk producing district, and a similar training is also given at a score of private institutes created for the purpose of diffusing knowledge on all phases of the silk industry.

Cocoon Markets Matsuzaki, on the western coast of Izu Peninsula, Shizuoka prefecture, was for many years the place where Japan's first market of the season for cocoon transactions took place and, naturally, cocoon prices quoted there were watched with keen interest by sericulturists and reelers, but because of a geographical disadvantage and other reasons, Matsuzaki has, since 1928, been superseded by Numazu. Usually, the first spring cocoon dealings begin in Numazu between May 20 and 25, according to the condition of the cocoon crop. Hamamatsu opens its market shortly after Numazu, but usually the spring cocoon market at Ohito follows the Numazu market and then dealings begin at Nirayama, Gotemba, Susono, Mishima and Omiyaguchi, all in Shizuoka prefecture. After, the market opens in turn at various parts of Mié prefecture, Chugoku, Shikoku and Kyushu, then in the Kwanto, Koshu, Shinshu and Tohoku districts. The reasons why spring cocoon transactions take place on the western side of the Izu Peninsula first are that the locality is climatically suited to a favourable growth of mulberry trees and there is a narrow difference of temperature only between day and night.

The Statistics Sericultural statistics in Japan for 1933 are summarized as follows:

Number of sericultural houses	2,092,187
Egg-cards (grammes):	181,200,931
for spring cocoons	81,198,451
for summer-autumn cocoons	100,002,480
Production of cocoons (kwan)	101,163,566
Value of cocoons	¥500,129,171
Spring cocoon output (kwan)	50,019,027
Value of spring cocoon output	¥298,404,044
Summer-autumn cocoon output (kwan)	51,144,539
Value of summer-autumn cocoons	¥201,725,127

Compared with 1932, the number of sericultural houses increased by 27,547, or 6 per cent.; cards gained by 14,389,349 grammes and the production value of cocoons increased from ¥296,791,026 to ¥500,129,171, this was due chiefly to the enhanced price level which was maintained throughout the year, although a considerable drop was experienced by the raw silk price during the latter half of 1933

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Sericulture in 1934

Producers of silkworm cocoons engaged in 1934 numbered 1,995,492, consisting of those engaged in spring cocoon production numbering 1,866,552 and those engaged in summer and autumn cocoon production 1,810,787 inclusive of those engaged in spring cocoon production subsidiarily.

Quantity and value of cocoons produced in the same year totalled 326,742,555 kg. and the value estimated for the same was ¥203,849,178, 181,464,244 kg. of spring cocoon valued at ¥117,340,378 and summer and autumn cocoon of 145,278,311 kg., valued at ¥86,508,800, make up the above figures. Decrease of 52,933,811 kg. (13.9%) and ¥296,279,993 (58.1%) were revealed by comparison with the corresponding figures of the previous year. During the past ten years cocoon production has shown a sharp upward trend, however, since 1931 a slump in raw silk price deterred the extension of the production activity.

COCOON PRODUCTION IN 1930-1934

		1930	1921	1932	1933	1934
Number of producers		2,216,072	2,119,908	2,064,639	2,092,187	1,995,492
Number of egg-cards incubated	gr.	18,353,061	170,006,525	166,811,582	181,200,931	160,914,816
Total production						
Quantity	kg.	399,238,185	364,021,706	335,771,254	379,676,366	326,742,555
Value	yen	304,212,774	275,557,296	296,791,026	500,129,171	203,849,178
Cocoons						
Quantity	kg.	350,626,973	322,354,080	297,237,229	339,646,136	292,851,645
Value	yen	290,119,559	260,229,804	280,910,829	477,690,472	192,143,243
Doupions						
Quantity	kg.	31,579,500	26,558,917	23,317,849	23,602,789	19,016,008
Value	yen	9,027,896	10,338,730	10,117,560	13,165,266	7,056,560
Waste cocoons						
Quantity	kg.	17,031,712	15,108,709	15,216,176	16,427,441	14,874,907
Value	yen	5,065,319	4,988,762	5,702,637	9,273,433	4,649,375

N. B. * Those actually engaged for the year.

Price of Cocoon

Farmers who are engaged in cocoon raising are not well informed of the international trade conditions and often fall into a short sighted speculations on the basis of the preceding year market prices. There is no systematic plan for adjusting cocoon production to the need so as to regulate the price. The future of the cocoon and silk markets, therefore, is hard to tell and the industry remains unsettled as long as it depends on the change of market prices of cocoon and raw silk.

Opinions of silk producers are divided into two; one is to regulate the price of raw silk by the governmental control like that for the price of rice, while the other is to compete with rayon with such a large production as to shut it out. The practicability of the former is doubtful as the nature of silk as a commodity is radically different from that of rice. The second idea may, in the last analysis, profit silk producers and brokers, but there is a danger of exposing farmers to the brink of bankruptcy before the prospect brightens in any extent, for

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rayon will not give way so easily with its machines and capital. Farmers have to make a subtler and scientific study of cocoon raising industry to make it a more stable side work and at the same time to control cocoon production by selection and restriction of silkworms according to the amount of the balance stock of cocoon and raw silk.

AVERAGE COCOON PRICE IN JAPAN PROPER PER KWAN

(In yen)

	Spring Cocoon	Summer-Autumn Cocoon	Average
1924	7.87	9.22	8.21
1925	11.25	10.07	10.68
1926	9.28	7.33	8.35
1927	7.18	4.77	6.03
1928	6.88	6.02	6.48
1929	7.57	6.53	7.06
1930	4.00	2.04	3.10
1931	3.08	2.96	3.03
1932	2.54	4.70	3.53
1933	6.25	4.27	5.28

Raw Silk

Soon after the country's entry into foreign trade, the Tokugawa Shogunate put a restraint on the exportation of silk on the ground of its scarcity and of its being a prized national production. Notwithstanding such a restrictive policy raw silk exports from Yokohama increased by leaps and bounds, as enormous profits could be made by the exporters.

With the Restoration came the encouragement of home industries, the first of which to arrest the attention of the Government authorities was the silk industry, and ever since special efforts have been made toward developing this national industry. Unfettered financial help was extended to filatures in 1915, 1920, and again in 1930, and the Government has established facilities for the promotion of all phases of silk activities, schools, silk conditioning houses and various experimental stations.

The silk reeling and sericultural industry is represented by Nagano prefecture. Suwa is located in the central part of the prefecture and Okaya (Hirano Village) in Suwa district is the most thriving and largest silk reeling centre. No other silk reeling district in the world can rival it, since Japan produces two-thirds of the world's entire silk production, and silk production in Nagano takes the foremost rank in Japan. Gumma prefecture is the next largest reeling centre with Fukushima, Aichi, Saitama, Gifu and Kyoto following.

Raw Silk Production in 1933

Number of establishment worked during 1933 was 54,397, decreasing by 6,064 (10%) as compared with that of the previous year. Division of this number according to the number of basins used were as follows.

Those using	less than 10 basins		51,221	(94.2 %)
,, ,,	10 - 50	,,	1,512	(2.8 %)
,, ,,	50 - 100	,,	826	(1.5 %)
,, ,,	100 - 300	,,	171	(1.2 %)
,, ,,	300 and more	,,	171	(0.3 %)

The tendency shown by the number of establishments during the ten preceding years has been towards a severe reduction occasioned by the significant decrease in the number of those using less than 10 basins, while those using more than 50 basins has shown rather an advancing trend. Quantity and value of raw silk produced in 1933 were 42,160,560 kg. and ¥497,740,808, the former indicating increase of 570,394 kg. (1.3%), the latter that of ¥43,282,970 (10%) against those of the previous year. During the preceding ten years uninterrupted progressive trend has been witnessed in the production.

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NUMBER OF FILATURES, BASINS AND OPERATIVES

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Establishments	Filature worked by Machinery	Basins	Operatives
1919	234,992	4,311	610,032	—
1924	196,929	3,674	523,582	546,813
1926	91,751	3,768	428,174	488,342
1927	83,469	3,787	425,595	496,230
1928	76,090	3,509	435,735	515,504
1929	69,417	3,719	437,738	525,307
1930	70,728	3,759	433,637	509,124
1931	66,400	3,687	418,402	495,449
1932	60,461	3,356	365,417	428,763
1933	54,397	3,218	343,579	395,027

SILK PRODUCTION

(Silk Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry)

Year	Total output		White silk		Yellow silk	
	volume (kwan)	value (yen)	volume (kwan)	value (yen)	volume (kwan)	value (yen)
1924	7,577,170	837,230,677	6,158,148	673,368,557	1,419,022	163,862,124
1925	8,284,317	95,6052,187	6,822,065	784,720,379	1,462,252	171,331,808
1926	9,101,310	850,751,982	7,151,726	667,505,253	1,949,584	183,246,729
1927	9,880,306	798,798,455	7,800,821	629,005,493	2,079,485	169,782,962
1928	10,584,232	835,467,904	7,760,865	615,721,117	2,823,367	219,746,787
1929	11,292,399	857,577,692	8,246,583	624,955,155	3,045,816	232,622,537
1930	11,365,026	536,663,848	8,097,133	384,978,584	3,267,893	151,685,264
1931	11,682,814	427,690,988	8,036,360	295,289,433	3,646,454	132,401,555
1932	11,090,711	454,457,838	7,805,617	320,777,178	3,285,094	133,680,660
1933	11,242,816	497,740,808	8,429,370	370,840,466	2,813,446	126,900,342

Note: The figures for 1932 are revised according to the correction of the Bureau.

Japan's Place in World's Silk Industry

According to the investigation made by the Silk Bureau of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry the total world production in 1933 was 57,001,000 kilogrammes of which Japan (Korea and Formosa included) produced 43,757,000 kg., 76% of the total. China with 8,876,000 kilogrammes produced the largest quantity next to Japan. Then came Italy with 3,400,000 kilogrammes. A noticeable feature is a greatly decreased production in all countries except Japan, where the output, though diminished slightly compared with the 1931 basis, is still on the increase. Compared with 1923, the gain made during the 10 years was 18,189,000 kilogrammes. Detailed figures of the statistics prepared at the Silk Bureau of the Agriculture and Forestry Ministry follow:

RAW SILK PRODUCTION IN THE WORLD

(In 1,000 kilogrammes)

Year	Total	Japan	India & Indo-China	China	Eastern Europe, Near East and Central Asia	Spain	Italy	France
1924	52,670	28,666	80	17,144	1,095	95	5,255	335
1925	57,138	31,485	90	19,678	1,145	100	4,380	260
1926	59,485	34,677	120	19,433	1,070	90	3,855	240

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Year	Total	Japan	India & Indo-China	China	Eastern Europe, Near East and Central Asia	Spain	Italy	France
1927	63,211	37,782	140	19,244	1,040	83	4,627	295
1928	67,430	40,582	110	20,478	1,140	79	4,836	205
1929	70,630	43,403	60	20,722	1,350	74	4,826	195
1930	68,330	43,043	20	18,067	1,220	58	4,882	140
1931	57,718	45,244	10	8,244	810	44	3,286	80
1932	56,984	42,114	—	9,524	706	42	3,520	78
1933	57,001	43,757	—	8,876	854	38	3,400	76

Silk in Japan's Foreign Trade

While importance of raw silk in Japan's foreign trade is on the decline in recent years, it still occupies more than 20% of the total value of her exports, ¥390,901,000 being its exports for 1933 out of the total exports of ¥1,861,045,000 for the same year. This forms a sharp contrast to the situation in 1922 and 1923, during which period silk occupied about 40% of her total exports. In 1934 the declining tendency was further emphasized and it dropped to ¥286,793,000, of which the United States took ¥244,379,000. It should be remembered that this 1934 export value of silk represented only 13.2% of the export value of all commodities. An interseting thing to be noted is that, while the silk export to the United States is steadily on the decline, it is on the increase to France, Britain and other countries. In 1932 France took Japanese raw silk to the extent of ¥7,107,000. In 1933 it increased to ¥15,378,000 and in 1934 to ¥20,333,000. In Britain it increased from ¥9,257,000 in 1932 to ¥14,237,000 in 1934. To other foreign markets it increased from ¥5,852,000 in 1932 to ¥7,843,000 in 1934.

SILK AND TOTAL EXPORTS COMPARED

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	Value of all exports	Value of silk exports	Percentage of silk
1912	526,982	150,321	28.5
1913	632,460	188,917	29.9
1914	591,101	161,797	16.3
1915	708,307	152,031	21.5
1916	1,127,468	267,037	23.7
1917	1,603,005	355,155	22.2
1918	1,962,101	370,337	18.9
1919	2,098,872	623,619	29.7
1920	1,948,395	382,717	19.3
1921	1,252,528	417,124	33.3
1922	1,637,452	670,048	40.9
1923	1,447,751	556,169	39.1
1924	1,807,035	685,366	37.9
1925	2,305,590	879,657	28.2
1926	2,044,728	734,052	35.9
1927	1,992,317	742,266	37.3
1928	1,971,955	733,436	37.2
1929	2,148,619	784,150	36.5
1930	1,469,852	419,107	28.5
1931	1,146,981	355,394	31.0
1932	1,409,992	382,265	27.8
1933	1,861,045	390,901	21.0
1934	2,171,924	286,793	13.2

As regards the quantity, it is rather on the increase compared with 10 years or so ago. In 1923 the exports were figured at 263,280 piculs and for the following 3 years the quantity of the annual shipment never exceeded 450,000 piculs in contrast to 497,485 piculs for 1933. But this quantity for 1933 was smaller than that for any single year between 1928 and 1932. In 1934 it regained the former level, realizing a quantity next to none other than 1931 figure. Below are given the yearly quantity of silk exported for the 10 years ending 1933:

	Quantity of Silk Exported (picul)
1923	263,280
1924	372,564
1925	438,449
1926	442,978

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	Quantity of Silk Exported (picul)
1927	521,778
1928	549,256
1929	680,950
1930	477,822
1931	560,577
1932	548,541
1933	497,485
1934	551,808

WORLD MARKETS FOR JAPANESE SILK

(Unit: ¥1,000)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
United States	637,464	755,377	398,715	342,479	360,143	355,805	244,879
Britain	3,717	4,121	2,914	6,161	9,257	14,654	14,237
France	34,985	13,253	8,040	1,879	7,107	15,378	20,333
Australia	2,035	2,352	2,783	1,928	3,165	3,297	4,017
Canada	3,112	5,692	3,558	2,595	1,164	208	411
Others	795	71	636	351	1,523	1,556	3,415
Total	732,108	780,866	416,646	355,393	382,366	390,901	286,793

SILK EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES

(Unit: picul 133 lbs.)

Year	Export volume	Index number	Rate of increase or decrease against previous year (%)
1921	247,672	100.0	
1922	312,419	126.1	(+) 26.1
1923	201,938	81.5	(−) 35.4
1924	335,596	135.5	(+) 66.2
1925	422,984	170.8	(+) 26.0
1926	427,621	172.7	(+) 1.1
1927	491,078	198.3	(+) 19.8
1928	514,772	207.8	(+) 9.8
1929	560,976	226.5	(+) 9.0
1930	453,517	183.1	(−) 19.2
1931	540,158	218.3	(+) 19.2
1932	513,402	207.1	(−) 5.1
1933	437,624	176.7	(−) 14.7
1934	433,537	175.0	(−) 0.9

Price of Raw Silk

In January, 1920, raw silk was quoted at ¥4,360 per bale of 16 kan, the highest price in the history of the country's silk business. At that time the volume of production was 360,000 bales, but during the next 10 years production increased to 730,000 bales, unfortunately prices did not fall in inverse ratio, had they done so Japanese producers would have been happy, for in June, 1932, they reached a low of less than one-tenth that of 1920, whereas output had only doubled. In 1933 it regained a little, but 1934 price has fallen to the lowest.

RAW SILK PRICE AT YOKOHAMA SPOT MARKET

(In yen)

(Standard quality; per 100 kin, 133 lbs.)

Year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Average
1925	2,053	2,098	1,889	1,814	1,813	1,888	1,913	1,956	2,069	2,078	1,992	1,955	1,957
1926	1,942	1,860	1,711	1,503	1,519	1,576	1,602	1,557	1,601	1,532	1,466	1,441	1,585
1927	1,413	1,418	1,414	1,416	1,451	1,427	1,374	1,317	1,341	1,301	1,289	1,293	1,375
1928	1,311	1,357	1,356	1,348	1,326	1,251	1,247	1,282	1,312	1,375	1,362	1,370	1,321
1929	1,356	1,378	1,396	1,401	1,341	1,314	1,282	1,302	1,220	1,288	1,221	1,169	1,310
1930	1,174	1,169	1,165	1,139	1,100	795	705	708	648	574	581	562	775
1931	708	684	666	597	531	527	585	577	584	548	556	567	583
1932	672	653	618	534	473	469	536	803	938	891	914	928	702
1933	770	694	655	728	786	970	954	857	851	713	586	555	766
1934	583	643	570	538	523	494	474	463	465	510	550	598	537

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Accumulation and Distribution in Yokohama and Kobé Below is shown the statistics anent the accumulation and distribution of silk in Yokohama and Kobé:

	YOKOHAMA			
	Stocks at beginning	Receipts (In bales)	Sales for export	Sales for domestic consumption
1914	18,633	181,629	166,008	10,767
1919	32,183	298,792	277,536	38,995
1921	41,012	297,552	269,249	48,234
1922	21,080	311,863	277,613	27,857
1923	27,473	267,172	228,146	22,489
1924	35,256	317,788	308,020	18,595
1925	26,429	357,190	340,901	12,891
1926	29,827	382,188	354,769	17,996
1927	39,249	415,639	398,921	15,918
1928	40,054	403,044	399,133	16,176
1929	28,690	432,728	405,400	12,288
1930	43,729	413,806	332,207	23,001
1931	19,850	412,164	379,558	24,469
1932	30,452	361,155	343,980	28,793
1933	18,834	367,900	337,764	27,983

	KOBÉ			
	Stocks at beginning	Receipts (In bales)	Sales for export	Sales for domestic consumption
1914-1922			—Nil—	
1923	—	26,426	21,489	1,453
1924	3,483	51,248	40,333	11,441
1925	2,958	66,104	62,800	2,627
1926	3,635	75,842	72,898	1,977
1927	4,603	107,311	102,727	2,451
1928	6,736	132,309	128,527	2,780
1929	7,739	168,109	160,393	3,443
1930	12,012	179,794	149,359	6,337
1931	7,811	198,879	186,103	7,890
1932	12,197	179,364	169,202	13,576
1933	8,983	171,957	157,203	9,922

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CHAPTER XV

FISHERIES

General

Japan Leads From her natural position, the fishing industry has naturally developed from of old until today and Japan occupies the first position in the world in the production of aquatic animals and plants amounting to ¥468,151,078, in 1933, as the following tables show. These products consist mainly of fishes, shell-fishes, and seaweeds, which are used as food. But in addition pearls and corals are produced, while some fishes are used as raw materials for fish oils or animal fertilizers.

Fishes and shell-fishes of which the Japanese are very fond are abundantly found in the coastal waters as well as in rivers, ponds, marshes, etc. For centuries the Japanese have been familiar with aquiculture, though crude in form, carp and gold fish were raised in ponds, while oysters and edible seaweeds were cultivated in the sea. Until recently fishing was mainly carried on in the coastal waters where herring, sardine, bonito, mackerel, tunny, shad, sea-bream, eel, flat-fish, etc. and shell-fishes such as awabi (sea-ear), oyster, asari (Tapes philippinarum), clams, etc. are found. More recently, pelagic fishing has developed with great rapidity, and not only are trawl fishing and whaling carried on with unusual vigour but new methods of fishing as the use of floating canneries, or crab-canning vessels, and the use of mother vessels for the collection of salmon and trout have been increasingly used. With the development of deep-sea fishing the canning of crab and salmon is being carried out on a large scale, the products being exported to different parts of the world. Today Japanese canned crab is dominating the American market, while canned salmon is finding a ready sale in Great Britain.

Administration and "Kumiai" The power of administration of fisheries is delegated to the prefectural governors who are authorized under the Fishery Law to give orders regarding the modes of catching, transportation and sales of manufactured products, fishing implements, vessels, etc. In order to secure a more effective control of the industry and promote its development by the cooperation of aquatic products associations, or "Suisankai", legislation was enacted in 1921. "Suisankai" are associations organized by the people engaged in fishing, manufacturing, selling, or storing aquatic products and have as their purpose the improvement of the fishing industry. The Imperial Government subsidizes these associations to some extent. In addition to "Suisankai" there are numerous local fishing guilds covering practically all the important fishing villages, and also many "Suisan Kumiai" which represent some particular branch of fishery. All these organizations are established to promote mutual interest by providing means to develop and improve the fishery industry and to protect and propagate aquatic animals and plants. "Suisan Dogyo Kumiai" are organized under the Guild Law for Important Products, their functions being the standardization of aquatic products and the

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improvement of their methods of trade, etc.

History of the Industry

Many historical records show that the people in Japan engaged in fishing and served fishes as delicacies at table from very early times. During the time the Ashikaga family ruled the country, fishermen in the western provinces were so bold as to sail not only to the Chinese coast but even as far as Annam and Siam. Fishermen during the time of Toyotomi were equally active and engaged in fishing in the seas round Korea. When, however, the Tokugawa Shogunate came to govern the country, it adopted the seclusion policy and dealt a severe blow to the fishing industry. Fishermen were prohibited from sailing to distant seas and pelagic fishery, which would otherwise have developed, gradually declined.

The international exhibitions held in Vienna and Philadelphia in 1872 and 1876, and the International Exhibitions of Aquatic Products held in Berlin and London in 1880 and 1883, had a great deal to do with the awakening of Japan's fishery industry. Somewhere about that time incubation was first introduced into Japan. In 1885, the Bureau of Aquatic Products was established in the Department of Agriculture and Commerce and at the same time Regulations for Fishermen's Associations were issued; investigations regarding aquatic products were started; indiscriminate catching of fishes, shellfishes, and seaweeds were prohibited; and various other measures for the protection, cultivation and improvement of the industry were adopted. In 1897, an Act for the Encouragement of Pelagic Fishery was enacted, and from 1902 on the Fishery Act, which was revised in 1910, was enforced.

As regards international relations, the Act for Fishery Associations in Foreign Seas was enacted in 1902. Under this Act the present "Suisankai" in Russian waters was established in December of 1908. In 1907, the most important treaty on fishery, the Russo-Japanese Treaty was signed between the two countries. In 1924, a further treaty on fishery was concluded between Japan and Soviet Russia.

Another important treaty, important from the standpoint of international relations on fishery, was signed between Japan, Great Britain, the United States of America and Russia in 1911 with regard to the protection of the fur-seal. In 1924, a treaty was concluded in Paris with the purpose of establishing an International Storage Association.

Survey of Recent Years

The Value of Catches In 1933 the value of marine products including catches in the Russian waters amounted to ¥260,267,064. That of marine products along the costs of Japan amounted to ¥170,613,874, showing an increase of ¥24,828,199, from ¥145,735,675 for the year before. Of the catches in the coastwise fishery fishes totalled ¥36,158,167, shells ¥7,972,010, other marine live products ¥26,288,328 and sea weeds ¥8,201,824. In the deep sea fishery the bonito surpassed all the rest, its value reaching ¥11,661,810. Next was the tunny which amounted to ¥9,788,857. The third was the seabream which brought ¥5,449,488. Coral catching is also included in the deep sea ocean going fishery and its production for 1933 reached 628 kwan and ¥187,472. Catches in the Soviet waters were valued at ¥23,666,332 in 1933 against ¥31,909,072 in 1932. But the 1934 production increased to ¥42,234,068. The number of leased fishing grounds

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for 1934 was 386 against 357 in 1933 and 392 in 1932. Productive value of canned marine products there for 1934 totalled ¥29,709,884 against ¥14,588,106 for 1933.

The activity of Japan Industry Company in fishery business during 1933 deserves noting. The concern placed under its control the Kyodo Fishery Company, Japan Godo Floating Cannery Company, Japan Fish Net and Implement Company and Toyo Can Manufacturing Company to rival the Nichiro Fishery Company, the largest fishery company in Japan. These companies of Japan Industry affiliation concentrated their energy on deepsea fishery, which had made a remarkable growth as the result. Fish catches in the deepsea fishery for 1933 by five fishery companies other than Nichiro Fishery realized satisfactory results, as is seen below:

Companies	Red Salmon	Salmon Pink
	(In cases)	
Hirade Okidori	20,364	unknown
Daido Okidori	17,995	16,950
Taiheiyo Fishery	50,086	29,725
Miyagi Fishery	10,000	4,255
Okidori Godo	32,710	24,605
Total	131,155	75,535
Nichiro Fishery	281,299	459,625
Grand total	412,454	435,160

Nichiro Fishery's business interest was very much affected by the activity of these five companies. Alive to the promising future of deepsea fishery, Kyodo Fishery has turned its attention to this field and applied to the Hokkaido Government for operation in the North Kuriles. This company placed under its management the Godo Fishery Company, which specializes in deepsea fishery. Thus the deepsea fishery for 1934 is to be competed between Nichiro Fishery and Kyodo Fishery. However, Taiheiyo Fishery is affiliated with Nichiro Fishery and does not take too much heed to the activity of Kyodo Fishery.

Kamchatka Fishery Auction Disputes pending between Japan and the Soviet Union on Kamchatka fishery grounds out of the yen-rouble conversion rate have not yet been solved. Prior to the annual fishery auction for 1934 to be held on February 20, 1934, the Soviet Union suddenly notified the Japanese side of the increase of conversion rate to 75 sen. The Japanese Government and fishery companies rejected to the proposal and the matter was left to diplomatic negotiations. When the date of auction neared, Japanese fishery companies deposited guarantee money at the rate of 32.5 sen with the Soviet Fishery Board in Vladivostok to participate in the auction. On reason that the guarantee money is a half the required amount, the Soviet side declared the auction for Japanese null and void. The conversion rate was agreed upon as the result of negotiations between Baron Kijuro Shidehara, Foreign Minister, and Mr. Alexander Trayanovsky, Soviet Ambassador in Tokyo, in May, 1931. The sudden proposal for changing the rate had a very delicate situation connected with it. The Soviet side announced the new auction to be held on March 5, but the Japanese side still insisted on the validity of the first auction. If the Japanese side ever participated in the new auction, this means it recognized the invalidity of the first auction and Soviet proposal for having doubly raised the conversion rate. Eventually, the Japanese side persisted in its due claim for the first auction and did not participate in the second auction, thus disclaiming their right to participate in the auction this year. The year's new grounds acquired by Japanese in the first auction were 34, which the Japanese side does not give much importance and this does not affect the

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whole fishery situation in Kamchatka very badly against Japan. Japanese fishery companies forsook their right to participate in the second auction and sent their ships to Kamchatka during April. The Japan-Soviet Fishery Treaty was concluded on March 1, 1928, but, due to its defects, a provisional treaty was concluded between the two Governments in August, 1932. This treaty holds good till 1936. The treaty aims at reassurance of Japanese right and interest, the expansion of Soviet fishery interest and the solution of pending issues. According to the revised treaty, except for 60 grounds out of 392 grounds (371 for salmon, trout and herring grounds and 21 for crab) operated by Japanese all the remaining grounds can be secured as they are till 1936 without being subjected to auction. Japan recognizes the increased catch of the Soviet side by 37 per cent. or 5,000,000 poods till 1936.

Persons Engaged in Fisheries

The fishery industry in Japan is now run on a modern industrial basis and especially pelagic fishing, is developing rapidly. But by far the larger number of fishermen are still engaged in working in the old-fashioned way, generally on a small scale. In 1933, as many as 1,499,175 men and women were engaged in fishery, and of this number about 1,216,434 were males and 282,741 females. Classified as employers and employees, the former numbered 635,849, and the latter 863,326. Of the total number, 1,097,254 were fishermen, 144,655 were engaged in cultivation and 257,266 in the manufacture of aquatic products. Of all the prefectures Hokkaido accounted for the largest number, 186,000 persons. Next came Nagasaki with 80,000, Chiba 68,000, and Miyé and Shizuoka above 52,000 each following.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS BRANCHES OF THE FISHERY INDUSTRY

Year	Total number	Fishermen	Those engaged in cultivation	Those engaged in manufactures
1928	1,498,258	1,130,430	119,986	247,842
1929	1,490,726	1,112,002	120,933	257,791
1930	1,482,355	1,109,700	122,116	252,119
1931	1,482,520	1,110,506	124,784	247,118
1932	1,499,040	1,106,850	141,394	250,796
1933	1,499,175	1,097,254	144,655	257,266

NUMBER OF PERSONS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO EMPLOYERS, EMPLOYEES AND SEX

Year	Total number		
	Total	Men	Women
1928	1,498,258	1,208,583	289,675
1929	1,490,726	1,209,969	280,757
1930	1,482,355	1,205,654	276,701
1931	1,482,520	1,202,515	280,005
1932	1,499,040	1,217,694	281,346
1933	1,499,175	1,216,434	282,741

Year	Employers			Employees		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1928	633,487	601,985	31,502	864,771	606,598	258,173
1929	633,080	604,215	28,865	857,646	605,754	251,892
1930	635,241	605,457	29,784	847,114	600,197	246,917
1931	634,699	604,294	30,405	847,821	598,221	249,600
1932	640,318	609,543	30,775	858,722	608,151	250,571
1933	635,849	604,080	31,769	863,326	612,354	250,972

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Fishing Boats and Vessels

The total number of boats and vessels engaged in fishing at the end of 1933 was over 363,473, of which 314,434 were without engines, while over 49,039 were with engines. Owing to the fact that the number of smaller boats, having capacity of less than 5 tons, decreased, the total number of vessels is showing a decreasing tendency. However, the number of vessels having engines has steadily increased. This shows an improvement in vessels and in the method of fishing.

Year	Total number of boats	Boats without engines	Boats with engines	
			Steam	Motor
1919	384,609	380,577	99	3,933
1927	354,554	333,757	91	20,706
1928	360,126	334,681	109	25,336
1929	359,961	328,858	168	30,935
1930	359,295	323,228	159	35,908
1931	360,690	318,443	185	42,062
1932	360,686	315,217	244	45,225
1933	363,473	314,434	250	49,039

FISHING BOATS AND VESSELS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS AND CAPACITIES

Kinds and tonnage of steamers	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Without engines	328,858	323,228	318,443	315,217	314,434
Under 5 tons	319,584	314,400	309,985	306,137	306,381
5–10 ,,	8,709	8,269	7,925	8,650	7,582
10–20 ,,	505	520	482	385	417
20 ,, and over	60	39	49	45	54
With engines	31,103	36,067	42,247	45,469	49,039
Steam engines	168	159	185	244	250
Under 50 tons	69	55	70	143	157
50–100 ,,	20	19	19	16	13
100 ,, and over	79	85	96	85	80
Oil engines	30,935	35,908	42,062	45,225	48,789
Under 5 tons	17,348	21,520	27,301	30,402	33,714
5–10 ,,	5,371	5,996	6,136	6,388	6,516
10–20 ,,	6,521	6,446	6,584	6,458	6,498
20–50 ,,	1,419	1,729	1,755	1,638	1,688
50 tons and over	176	217	286	339	373

Coastal Fishery

About 363,473 small fishing boats including about 49,039 small motor boats, with drag or stationary nets were engaged in coastal fishing in 1933. Fish, shell-fish, etc. caught by this method in 1933 amounted to ¥170,613,874 in value, the details of which were as follows :

	Quantity	Value
Fish	2,860,585,500 kg.	¥128,151,712
Shell-fish	135,593,126	7,972,010
Other aquatic products	204,347,385	26,288,328
Seaweeds	659,467,837	8,201,824

and principal items, the values of which reached over ¥5,000,000 each were as follows :

Herring	1,007,557,219 kg.	¥13,378,292
Sardine	1,314,770,636	26,035,079
Mackerel	69,642,949	5,746,877
Yellow-tail	36,923,089	10,934,744
Sea-bream, red	12,529,170 kg.	¥10,434,290
Cuttle-fish	114,733,308	11,781,091
Prawn and shrimp	23,727,446	6,179,560

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Of the prefectures, Hokkaido made catches amounting to ¥39,356,953, Nagasaki and Yamaguchi over ¥7,000,000 each, and Kanagawa, Aichi, Miyé and Shizuoka over ¥5,000,000. The amount of catches in coastal fishery since 1921 is shown in the following table. It must be noted that while the value of catches shows a gradual decrease, catches themselves are steadily increasing, showing thereby that the decrease in value is due to decline in price caused by the depression of the last few years.

(Quantities in Metric Tons, Values in ¥1,000)

Year	Total		Fresh fishes	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1927	2,971,779	229,138	1,717,739	166,006
1928	2,123,777	209,264	1,469,120	156,560
1929	2,136,252	204,498	1,489,973	153,424
1930	2,302,086	162,928	1,588,580	121,734
1931	2,526,837	147,806	1,833,826	110,772
1932	2,667,255	145,736	1,886,086	107,818
1933	3,859,993	170,613	2,860,585	128,151

Year	Shell-fishes		Crustaceans and mollusca		Seaweeds	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1927	130,218	11,001	173,023	30,232	950,799	21,899
1928	143,984	12,113	134,763	28,931	375,910	11,661
1929	138,828	10,492	149,308	29,311	358,143	11,270
1930	123,100	8,465	136,757	23,169	503,599	9,561
1931	118,752	7,186	148,663	21,892	425,596	8,005
1932	125,328	6,975	179,009	22,951	476,832	7,992
1933	135,593	7,972	204,347	26,288	659,467	8,201

Catches of the more important fishes in coastwise fishery since 1929 are shown in the following tables:

PRODUCTION AND KINDS OF FRESH FISHES

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of fresh fish	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Herring	10,611	7,542	7,218	7,253	13,378
Sardine	26,234	19,006	17,972	20,756	26,035
Bonito	3,492	2,589	2,257	2,081	2,325
Mackerel	7,815	5,631	5,184	4,555	5,746
Tunny	7,814	5,630	5,184	4,601	4,715
Yellow-tail	10,058	7,865	7,191	9,075	10,934
Cod	4,556	3,252	2,968	2,997	3,287
Shark	1,288	986	767	667	857
Sea-bream, red	12,720	10,232	9,144	8,602	10,434
Sea-bream, black	2,274	2,024	1,859	1,780	1,904
Flat-fish	5,029	4,192	3,458	3,532	3,694
Cybium	2,721	5,513	2,207	1,976	2,072
Horse-mackerel	4,787	4,099	3,988	3,677	4,390
Flying fish	1,225	1,071	798	711	902
Grey mullet	3,452	2,962	2,426	2,367	2,779
Konosirus	1,439	948	827	720	863
Dog-salmon	4,299	3,830	3,345	2,558	3,636
Trout	5,666	2,225	2,599	1,715	1,956
Japanese smelt	3,848	3,411	2,989	2,789	2,473
Eel	3,361	2,974	2,688	2,453	2,425
Others	32,460	27,865	25,616	22,952	21,219
Total	153,424	121,733	110,772	107,817	128,151

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PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SHELL-FISHES

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of shell-fish	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Awabi [1]	2,957	2,652	1,683	1,656	1,813
Oyster	475	363	400	720	423
Clam	445	402	373	468	492
Sazaé [2]	714	502	483	416	456
Arca	606	651	536	555	463
Asari [3]	625	576	507	497	505
Others	4,666	3,315	3,151	2,959	3,818

1 Sea-ear, abalone. 2 Turbo cornutus. 3 Tapes philippinarum.

PRODUCTION OF CRUSTACEANS AND MOLLUSCS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Cuttle-fish	12,311	8,315	8,822	10,169	11,781
Octopus	4,142	3,431	2,930	2,898	3,069
Prawn and shrimp	7,336	6,616	5,425	5,258	6,179
Spiny lobster	1,208	1,094	1,062	1,051	1,056
Crab	798	781	790	712	1,411
Bêche-de-mer	1,070	752	623	502	584
Others	2,443	2,175	2,236	2,359	2,206

PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SEAWEEDS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Kombu [1]	4,157	3,909	2,381	3,945	2,345
Amanori [2]	542	552	412	315	515
Wakamé [3]	1,279	921	813	722	938
Tengusa [4]	2,322	1,821	2,094	1,616	1,783
Funori [5]	843	680	681	644	698
Others	2,125	1,675	1,622	1,748	1,920

1 Laminaria. 2 Porphyra. 3 Undaria pinnatifida. 4 Gelidium corneum.
5 Gloiopeltis furcata.

Pelagic Fishery

Large-sized vessels with motors have increased greatly in number lately. There are over 10,000 vessels of over 10 tons, many of which are actively engaged in fishing at distances of up to 700 miles from Formosa and Japan proper. The northern seas have been opened up by floating crab canneries, and mother vessels for the salmon and salmon trout fisheries. But there are still vast undeveloped areas in the Behring Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Maritime Province waters, the South Seas, the South China Sea, the Gulf of Siam, etc., so that the future for pelagic fishery for Japan is bright and of great importance to her. The following sections deal with different branches of deep-sea fishing.

In Home Waters In 1933, the number of vessels engaged was 8,225, the number of men 112,919 and the amount of catches 737,095,405 kg. of a value of ¥65,986,858. The vessels with engines numbered 7,943, while those without numbered only 282.

Catches of principal fishes are as follows :

Bonito	65,153,468 kg.	¥11,661,810
Tunny	41,683,286	9,788,857
Sea-bream	10,265,790	5,449,488
Flat-fish	50,449,706	5,287,694

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The number and descriptions of vessels engaged in this fishing with their catches, since 1923, are given below:

NUMBER AND CREWS OF VESSELS ENGAGED IN DEEP-SEA FISHING IN HOME WATERS

Year	Total number of vessels			Vessels without engines			Vessels with engines		
	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew	No.	Tonnage	No. of crew
1924	6,829	103,842	100,123	799	4,955	4,982	6,030	98,887	95,141
1925	7,215	113,233	104,844	562	3,934	3,684	6,653	109,299	101,160
1926	7,778	127,131	110,196	754	5,196	6,219	7,024	121,935	103,977
1927	7,729	131,076	106,269	769	4,889	5,972	6,960	126,187	100,291
1928	8,090	142,741	106,203	506	3,526	3,428	7,584	139,215	102,775
1929	9,081	182,967	115,863	716	5,309	3,951	8,365	177,658	111,912
1930	9,258	175,617	111,778	590	4,484	3,757	8,660	170,955	111,913
1931	9,048	170,524	111,778	590	4,484	3,757	8,458	166,040	108,021
1932	8,690	172,621	111,763	408	3,013	2,914	8,282	169,608	108,849
1933	8,225	181,957	112,919	282	1,916	1,482	7,943	180,041	111,437

VALUE OF DEEP-SEA FISHES CAUGHT IN HOME WATERS

(a) In Japan Proper

(Unit ¥1,000)

Kind of fish	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Sardine	2,940	3,216	2,047	2,183	2,506	3,412
Bonito	19,852	16,258	11,063	10,886	8,404	11,661
Mackerel	4,147	3,665	2,612	2,450	2,183	2,873
Tunny	13,877	15,770	13,703	11,806	9,040	9,788
Cod	1,557	2,280	1,699	1,647	1,507	2,102
Shark	3,134	4,329	3,695	2,588	2,606	2,848
Sea-bream	9,571	9,229	7,218	5,546	4,925	5,449
Flat fish	5,314	6,802	5,650	4,387	4,051	5,287
Cybium	11	62	253	82	87	31
Skipper	2,160	1,867	1,295	814	950	1,299
Others	18,030	26,050	17,307	15,633	17,811	21,230

(b) In Corean Waters

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Number of boats	3,174	2,274	2,102	1,712	1,343
Total value of catches	¥7,590,167	¥5,610,728	¥3,763,452	¥3,171,906	¥3,339,410

(c) In Formosan Waters

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Number of boats	23	—	7	15	50
Total value of catches	¥161,891	—	¥104,571	¥198,583	¥191,559

(d) In Kwantung Waters

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Number of boats	139	102	92	244	288
Total Valte of catches	¥592,400	¥318,452	¥289,264	¥599,522	¥641,071

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In Northern Waters By northern waters is meant seas lying north of 42° North Latitude and includes the Behring Sea, Okhotsk Sea, and the northern portion of the Japan Sea. Its total area is roughly 3,367,000 sq. km., of which the Behring Sea covers 1,968,000 sq. km., Okhotsk Sea about 1,295,000 sq. km., and the northern portion of the Japan Sea about 207,000 sq. km. The kinds of fishes caught are salmon, trout, herring, and cod, etc. including crabs and whales. It is in these waters that trawler fishing, Norwegian whaling, crab canning on floating canneries, and salmon and trout fishing by the use of mother vessels are carried on.

Norwegian Whaling Whaling is being carried out according to the Norwegian method. As this method requires quick movements the vessels used are small sized ones of a capacity of below 120 tons. In order to allow whales to breed and also to maintain order in the work the Government has made it a rule that whaling can only be carried on under permit. The Government furthermore restricts the number of vessels engaging in this work to 30 in seas other than the Southern or Northern Pacific Ocean. It also orders vessels to operate from headquarters placed in 18 suitable places along the coast of Hokkaido, the North-Eastern Sea, South-Western Sea and the Japan Sea.

WHALES CAUGHT (Value in yen)

		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Whales caught In home waters Total	No.	1,220	1,368	1,004	1,124	1,156
	Value	1,473,835	1,246,671	766,208	850,300	1,142,183
Finback whale	No.	203	142	171	122	124
	Value	338,024	224,530	181,206	133,592	148,402
Blue whale	No.	13	48	17	17	6
	Value	46,927	129,550	34,649	38,083	11,889
Sperm whale	No.	606	751	359	561	617
	Value	690,537	556,062	222,257	360,389	532,262
Humpback whale	No.	12	12	30	41	58
	Value	25,097	41,827	42,036	50,984	98,736
Sye whale	No.	381	410	419	369	348
	Value	356,279	285,258	267,243	245,793	343,908
Grey whale	No.	—	—	—	—	—
	Value	—	—	—	—	—
Right whale	No.	5	5	8	14	8
	Value	15,971	9,944	18,817	21,459	6,986
Whales caught In colonial waters Total	No.	255	349	221	206	202
	Value	558,340	612,132	375,423	346,616	433,849
Finback whale	No.	178	258	166	148	164
	Value	389,605	433,662	295,190	279,084	284,500
Blue whale	No.	3	8	3	—	1
	Value	11,725	29,255	8,775	—	1,156
Sperm whale	No.	—	2	—	—	1
	Value	—	3,886	—	—	1,085
Humback whale	No.	62	50	40	49	34
	Value	133,278	91,693	50,129	57,116	45,272
Sei whale	No.	—	1	2	2	1
	Value	—	374	1,487	1,192	540
Grey whale	No.	12	30	10	7	1
	Value	23,732	53,812	19,842	9,224	1,296
Right whale	No.	—	—	—	—	—
	Value	—	—	—	—	—

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Trawling Trawling in Japan is modelled after that now being carried on in the North Sea. The steam vessels engaged are from 200-300 tons in size, some being fitted with Diesel engines. A permit must be obtained from the Government before commencing trawl fishing. At present the Government is restricting trawlers in the Inland Sea, the East China Sea, and the Yellow Sea to 70 vessels. 56 vessels make Shimonoséki their headquarters, while 8 work from Nagasaki, and 6 from Hakata. It also prohibits trawlers, by special regulations, from operating in the nearby seas in order to keep the coastal water free from the devastation caused by the destruction of immature fish, etc. During the World War there was a fall in the catches by trawlers owing to the decrease in number of trawlers, but since 1921, the trawling business has again become active though, as mentioned above, the number of trawlers is restricted to 70. Catches by trawling in 1933 amounted to 50,351,753 kg., value ¥6,254,456.

FISHES CAUGHT BY TRAWLING

(Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Kind of fishes	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total quantity	62,348	62,356	58,951	56,799	50,351
Value	9,761	7,625	6,284	5,607	6,254
Pagrus major					
Quantity	1,909	512	343	258	129
Value	626	282	155	78	68
Sciæna japonica					
Quantity	4,264	4,416	5,032	3,170	2,840
Value	1,199	1,035	911	564	577
Sciæna schlegelii					
Quantity	19,638	18,687	18,802	21,003	14,968
Value	2,892	2,189	1,718	1,512	1,361
Flat fish					
Quantity	6,588	6,576	6,209	5,678	5,507
Value	1,111	847	721	644	655
Shark					
Quantity	5,706	5,047	4,451	3,163	2,597
Value	630	453	309	179	171
Others					
Quantity	24,245	27,116	24,111	23,536	24,309
Value	3,327	2,866	2,473	2,630	3,419

Fishery in Russian Waters

Fishery in Russian waters is an important right conceded to Japan in the Treaty of Portsmouth, signed at the conclusion of the Russo-Japanse War of 1904-05. In 1928, a new convention (Appendix), under the conditions of the above Treaty was concluded for a period of eight years, after the expiration of which time the pact is to be renewed. The districts to be worked, extending from the Maritime Provinces to Kamchatka, are leased from the Soviet at annual auctions held at Vladivostok.

In 1933 the number of fishing lots actually worked was 350, the number of steamers 174, sailing vessels 1, and number of fishermen and others engaged in the fishing 17,506. The amount of salmon, trout, and herrings caught in 1933, was 47,664,800 kg. in total, the catches of crab amounted to 2,546,331 pieces and

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that, in 1934, 1,081,646 kg. and 3,583,413 respectively. Good catches of salmon and trout are made every other year, while the quantity of crabs has a tendency to become smaller. The amount of salmon, crab, etc. canned was 698,126 cases, valued at ¥14,588,106 in 1933. In the same year the amount of salmon and trout salted reached 31,241,800 kg. The following table shows the number of fishing districts leased, amount of fish caught, etc.

STATISTICS SHOWING NUMBER OF FISHERIES, FISHING VESSELS, FISHERMEN, AND PRODUCTS IN RUSSIAN WATERS

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Number of fisheries:					
Fisheries leased from U.S.S.R.	318	309	392	357	386
Fisheries worked for the year	292	287	323	350	371
Fishing vessels:					
Steamships No.	252	198	212	174	164
Tonnage	442,062	300,311	366,634	330,062	347,997
Sailing-ships:					
Number	6	10	2	1	—
Tonnage	1,583	2,179	623	525	—
Fishermen	22,227	17,240	18,185	17,506	20,369
Total fish caught 100 kg.	889,690	457,700	768,324	476,652	1,081,646
Dog salmon 100 kg.	357,608	231,475	253,428	231,471	347,482
Trout „	374,058	106,731	395,468	163,185	573,281
Red salmon „	151,037	114,692	115,438	80,016	157,800
King salmon „	4,184	2,808	2,807	1,332	2,577
Herring guano „	2,803	1,994	1,183	648	482
Crab pieces	4,846,962	4,291,600	3,100,855	2,546,331	3,583,413
Fishery products prepared, yen	31,829,383	22,355,899	31,909,037	23,666,332	42,234,068
Salt cured (total) Qt'y 100 kg.	593,350	288,891	472,047	312,267	503,720
Value yen	9,511,527	5,040,798	8,301,448	7,567,889	9,864,818
Salmon Quantity 100 kg.	351,770	209,071	281,965	212,957	287,798
Value yen	6,424,376	4,019,101	5,173,966	5,647,006	6,290,865
Trout „	241,580	79,820	240,082	99,310	224,186
„	3,087,151	1,021,697	3,127,482	1,920,883	3,473,953
Canned food (Total)					
Quantity cases	1,347,503	814,391	1,216,921	698,126	1,374,241
Value yen	20,847,275	16,292,679	21,571,336	14,588,106	29,709,884
Red salmon „	601,933	511,121	416,164	287,666	460,062
„	12,504,247	12,602,559	13,771,888	9,272,017	18,530,401
Salmon „	102,905	55,070	40,186	27,839	45,687
„	912,064	517,433	659,716	543,168	802,903
Trout „	569,630	184,253	713,091	357,492	837,306
„	5,035,112	1,266,844	5,469,149	3,603,966	8,929,175
Crab „	73,035	63,947	47,480	25,129	29,155
„	2,395,852	1,905,343	1,670,583	1,168,955	1,899,440
Others Value	1,470,581	1,022,422	2,036,253	1,510,337	47,965

FISHING DISTRICTS FOR SALMON AND TROUT, AND AMOUNT OF FISH CAUGHT IN RUSSIAN WATERS

Year	Fishing districts Japanese No.	%	Russian No.	%	Standard amount of fishing and fishery products Japanese Quantity pood	%	Russian Quantity pood	%
1928	239	85.7	40	14.3	8,467,583	87.3	1,235,040	12.7
1929	274	65.2	146	34.8	7,653,395	69.4	3,369,348	30.6
1930	296	55.2	240	44.8	7,677,908	60.7	4,975,733	39.3
1931	288	51.7	269	48.3	7,483,410	57.7	5,496,765	42.3
1932	371	58.3	267	41.7	8,379,652	60.7	5,077,471	39.3
1933	340	51.5	320	47.3	8,022,711	58.0	5,631,046	42.0
1934	369	52.6	333	47.4	8,337,526	58.9	5,809,165	41.1

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CRAB FISHING DISTRICTS IN RUSSIAN WATERS
WITH AMOUNT OF CRABS CAUGHT

Year	Fishing districts				Standard amount of crab fishing			
	Japanese		Russian		Japanese		Russian	
	No.	%	No.	%	Quantity cases	%	Quantity cases	%
1928	16	88.9	2	11.1	156,000	94.0	10,000	6.0
1929	29	64.4	16	35.6	168,500	75.2	55,500	24.8
1930	22	40.7	32	59.3	128,500	49.2	126,500	49.6
1931	21	39.6	32	60.4	125,500	49.2	129,500	50.8
1932	21	40.4	31	59.6	125,500	47.0	139,500	53 0
1933	17	37.0	29	63.0	104,500	44.6	129,500	55.4
1934	17	34.7	32	65.3	104,500	44.6	129,500	55.4

Floating Crab Canneries Fishing is carried on by vessels equipped with machinery for the purpose of canning the crabs on the vessels themselves. The first enterprise was made in 1921, and, in 1923, rules regulating the work of crab-manufactory vessels were issued by the Government, which also established districts where fishing was forbidden and made permits necessary before a vessel could set out to the fishery. Recently the rule has been revised, the number of vessels on the western sid of Kamchatka restricted to 18 and the amount of canned crab to 320,000 cases.

Up to 1927, Japanese only were engaged in this fishing, but in 1928 two Russian vessels came in, in 1929 another two entered and 1930 saw a further increase.

Canned crabs manufactured by this method since 1924 are as follows :

OPERATION OF CRAB MANUFACTORY VESSELS

No. of vessels, crabs caught, etc.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Vessels in operation				9	7	9
Number	14	15	19	29,413	24,275	40,724
Tonnage	35,049	37,443	63,924	877	801	414
Crew	512	570	801	2,816	2,144	2,541
Fishermen engaged	4,204	4,457	6,434	15,185,800	60,855,729	9,461,587
Crabs caught, pieces	20,113,606	23,718,542	24,055,810			
Canned foods						
Quantity cases	303,679	346,813	405,377	240,207	173,526	158,712
Value in yen	12,492,946	14,487,322	13,148,175	7,302,961	5,467,542	7,476,267

Coral Fishery

Coral fishery has declined so much that it is hardly worth mentioning. In 1926, the total collected amounted to 24,356 kg. valued at ¥1,038,700, but since then it has kept decreasing until in 1932 the production was as small as 604 kwan valued at ¥82,454, all of the amount for 1932 having been obtained in Nagasaki prefecture, though in 1933 the quantity was increased to 628 kwan and the value to ¥187,472.

Pearl Fishery

Pearls produced in Japan are of two kinds, namely, natural pearls and cultured pearls, the latter being manufactured according to the Mikimoto patented system. The principle of pearl culture in brief is to put a foreign substance in the oyster shell when it is 3 years old. The foreign body is incapsulated with layer upon layer of beautiful nacre and forms a pearl which is taken out at the end of four years. Formerly, objections were raised to

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the pearls so produced, but it is now recognized that these cultured pearls are as good as real pearls in every respect, since exhaustive investigations by many noted scientists have proved that culture by the scientific stimulation of oysters and the natural formation are essentially the same. Mr. Mikimoto's culture grounds, located near Toba in Miyé prefecture, are the most important in the world. Miyé produced 68% of all the pearls produced in Japan for 1932. Other important pearl producing prefectures are Nagasaki and Wakayama. The production of pearls and pearl oysters in recent years is tabulated below.

(In 1,000 pcs. and in ¥1,000)

Year	Pearls		Pearl Oysters	
	Pcs.	Value	Pcs.	Value
1930	819	712	6,160	173
1931	1,079	564	10,289	117
1932	3,655	989	23,902	107
1933	2,492	909	18,932	286

Aquiculture

The conservation and cultivation of aquatic resources is very important to Japan as fish and other marine products constitute a great part of the staple diet of her people. Great care and study are being given to aquiculture in the country, the incubation and letting loose of salmon and trout and the cultivation of fishes in shallow waters are being well looked after by the Government. From 1926 on, not only the incubation of salmon and trout, but also the transfer of crawfish, shad, etc., was tried several times with assistance obtained from the U. S. A. In order to encourage the incubation of salmon and trout in public waters the Government issued in 1926, Rules for Encouraging Aquiculture, and decided to bear 70% of the expense required for the selection of spawn, etc., when the incubation work was undertaken by various prefectures, or by any fishery associations. From 1926 to 1929, the Government spent ¥793,560 for these purposes, and let loose 601,940,000 incubated fishes. In addition, aquiculture for both fresh and sea-water fishes is carried out on a business basis by private interests in various ways. Business of this kind is increasing, but there is still room for large development as the area over which aquiculture is being carried on is only 524,102,737 sq. m. in 1932, which is only about 6% of the total available area. The principal fishes, shell-fishes and seaweeds which are now being cultivated are carp, eel and tortoise in fresh water, and the seaweed laver in seawater. The breeding is done in rice-fields, breeding ponds, reservoirs, marshes, etc.

The number of aquicultural establishments in 1933 was 159,091, the area covered 537,908,403 sq. m. and the amount of products was valued at ¥19,283,371 increasing by 4.4% to ¥813,228 as compared with that of the previous year. Carps, ¥3,922,992 ; eels, ¥3,586,338 ; oysters, ¥1,193,086 ; amanori, ¥6,481,262 were important in this group. During these ten years, increasing importance has been attached to aquiculture as an important fishery activity. Condition and results of the industry in recent years are given in full in the following tables :

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NO. OF ESTABLISHMENTS ENGAGED IN AQUICULTURE, AREA AND PRODUCTS

Year	No. of establishments	Area sq. metres	Value of products yen
1927	138,918	547,574,393	22,920,680
1928	141,114	563,968,076	23,566,391
1929	143,011	496,813,491	22,315,539
1930	144,498	485,235,151	18,509,406
1931	151,565	499,770,658	19,128,963
1932	157,414	524,102,737	18,470,143
1933	159,091	537,908,403	19,283,871

FISHES, SHELL-FISHES, ETC., RAISED THROUGH AQUICULTURE

Fishes, shell-fishes, etc., produced		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Carp:						
Ricefields						
Quantity	kg.	1,643,618	1,927,140	1,835,490	1,805,708	1,923,199
Value	yen	872,284	740,960	622,072	627,697	659,960
Breeding-ponds						
Quantity	kg.	3,994,373	4,201,796	4,585,643	4,828,178	5,571,454
Value	yen	2,010,474	1,674,865	1,685,808	1,746,661	1,990,842
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.						
Quantity	kg.	2,410,875	2,754,870	2,986,103	3,259,601	3,394,560
Value	yen	1,369,561	1,182,306	1,101,170	1,186,599	1,272,190
Eel:						
Breeding-ponds						
Quantity	kg.	3,181,783	3,317,213	3,887,025	4,585,448	5,511,315
Value	yen	3,456,797	2,682,720	2,785,600	2,830,072	3,475,012
Reservoirs, marshes, etc.						
Quantity	kg.	107,228	281,786	141,503	117,015	146,880
Value	yen	114,861	231,178	116,067	82,544	111,326
Goldfish:						
	,,	328,728	488,965	446,026	549,176	513,958
	,,	519,713	569,849	564,098	567,293	648,101
Oyster:						
	,,	25,495,151	1,937,209	25,861,714	25,123,556	35,275,125
	,,	1,340,786	988,615	1,102,889	1,126,636	1,193,086
Asari:						
	,,	31,164,682	24,596,753	28,482,526	29,530,433	29,530,433
	,,	1,097,074	734,342	715,337	653,252	633,913
Pearl oyster:						
Pearl						
No. of shells		641,484	819,496	1,079,163	3,655,185	2,492,727
Value		600,932	712,460	564,538	988,831	909,355
Pearl shells:						
No.		5,439,888	6,160,522	10,289,214	23,902,593	13,932,890
Value	yen	142,144	173,457	117,721	107,201	286,653
Amanori:						
Quantity	kg.	23,576,348	18,545,048	26,200,676	24,117,068	22,409,048
Value	yen	9,226,659	7,435,263	8,425,967	7,199,250	6,481,262
Others:						
Value	yen	1,564,254	1,383,391	1,326,796	1,354,107	1,621,671

Manufacture of Fishery Products

The supply of fish depends to a considerable extent on seasonal changes but demand is controlled by the tastes and customs of consumers, so that supply and demand are too often not well balanced. In order to adjust these difficulties satisfactorily, careful studies have been made regarding the storing and preserving of these products. Es-

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pecially, as the problem of food has become a serious one lately, it is often argued that a portion of the fishes which are now being turned into fertilizers and which amount to 40% of the total yields, should be converted into food. Under these conditions Japan is paying very careful consideration to the manufacture of fishery products.

The total manufactured fishery products in 1933 was valued at ¥176,598,115, of which ¥28,843,857 was in fertilizers, ¥6,947,198 in fish oils, ¥576,457 in Gloiopeltis dried, and the balance of ¥140,230,603 was the value of food products.

MANUFACTURED FISHERY PRODUCTS

(Units: Quantity metric ton, value ¥1,000)

Year	Total	Food products		Fertilizers	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1927	190,242	345,227	156,228	245,196	29,448
1928	191,519	363,012	161,958	216,676	24,171
1929	199,519	417,008	169,959	220,871	23,187
1930	155,879	404,351	134,761	233,339	16,572
1931	137,378	400,717	119,036	279,085	15,129
1932	138,936	381,240	114,027	344,888	20,207
1933	176,598	450,267	140,230	488,117	28,843

Year	Fish oils		Sukifunori*	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1927	30,657	3,697	1,011	1,051
1928	27,874	4,407	816	868
1929	35,798	5,180	772	980
1930	40,204	3,404	993	1,047
1931	45,235	2,480	793	781
1932	57,089	4,120	733	583
1933	70,633	6,947	679	576

Note: Production of isinglass is not included in the table.
* Dried seaweed, Gloiopeltis furcata.

Fish as Food

To the present the Japanese people have not paid much attention to the manufacture of fishery products as articles of food, because fresh fish is available at almost any time and any place. But since there is a large consumption of such products among people of Western nations attention has been turned to the preservation of fish with a view to export. The principal items preserved are "fushi" (fishmeat steamed and dried), fishes dried, salted and dried, boiled and dried, smoked, salt-cured, canned, and isinglass. Production of each for the last few years is:

FOOD PRODUCTS

(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fushi	Dried	Salted and dried	Boiled and dried	Smoked	Salt-cured	Canned foods	Miscellaneous
1929	25,036	28,886	10,701	23,784	453	13,151	11,826	56,618
1930	18,707	21,000	7,878	18,914	424	8,484	8,409	50,942
1931	17,506	16,933	7,215	14,940	322	7,690	6,670	47,757
1932	13,711	20,288	6,173	14,090	349	6,140	7,274	45,996
1933	15,628	21,221	8,300	16,794	360	9,773	20,304	47,848

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(a) The total amount of "fushi" produced in 1933 was 24,800,666 kg. valued at ¥15,628,135, of which "Katsuo fushi" (Bonito) accounted for 8,120,775 kg. valued at ¥10,500,143, sardines 8,500,136 kg. valued at ¥2,093,711. Tunny and mackerels are the next most important. "Fushi" is produced largely in Kagoshima and Shizuoka prefectures.

(b) Dried fishes and seaweeds consist of cuttle-fish, sharks' fins, herrings, herring roes, cod, "kombu" (Laminaria), "wakamé" (Undaria pinnatifida), etc. Of the total production of 98,396,895 kg. valued at ¥21,221,928, cuttle-fish accounted for 16,144,931 kg. value ¥8,313,203, and "kombu" 31,957,646 kg. value ¥2,990,351. Hokkaido is the largest producer.

(c) Sardines, horse-mackerel, mackerel, cod, etc., are the chief among the salted and dried fishes. The total production was 56,021,239 kg. valued at ¥8,300,189; sardines 32,639,498 kg. value ¥3,498,722; cod 9,213,630 kg. value ¥1,679,909 were the two largest products.

(d) Boiled and dried fishes and shellfisehs produced in 1933 amounted to 66,580,200 kg. value ¥16,794,512. To this class belong sardines, sand eels, abalone, prawns and shrimp. The amount of boiled and dried sardines produced was 51,964,789 kg. in weight and ¥9,805,281 in value.

(e) Among smoked fishes herrings take first place. Total production in 1933 amounted to 1,149,506 kg. valued at ¥360,577.

(f) Salt cured fishes are mostly sardines, mackerel, dog-salmon, trout, whales, etc. Total products of these fishes amounted to 61,842,161 kg. value ¥9,773,231, of which the dog-salmon amounted to 7,095,379 kg. valued at ¥2,499,339, and trout 7,461,060 kg. valued at ¥1,286,985.

(g) In miscellaneous manufactured fish products the total amount of which reached 103,270,605 kg., and ¥47,848,025, fish-paste amounted to 74,789,940 kg. valued at ¥27,500,250, "hoshinori" (laver dried), amounted to 2,256,934 kg. ¥10,149,221, and "Mirinboshi" (fishes flavoured with sweet saké) amounted to 9,008,933 kg. valued at ¥2,781,858.

(h) Canned fishes amounted in 1933 to 38,206,297 kg. valued at ¥20,304,006. Salmon-trout, crab, sardines, "awabi", and "sazaé (wreath-shell) come into this class. Of these, canned salmon-trout, the production of which was 11,614,976 kg. valued at ¥4,828,354, was the largest.

(i) The production of isinglass is shown in the following table:

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
No. of establishments	405	411	431	435	429
Total production quantity kg.	51,482	1,387,620	1,529,310	1,573,230	2,081,404
Value yen	4,342,613	3,951,402	4,123,893	3,883,464	4,718,521

Total food products prepared in 1933 were ¥140,230,603 in value and were about 70% of the total of ¥176,598,115, value of all fish products prepared.

Fertilizers

Details of the production of fish fertilizers are given in the table below. As the table shows most fertilizers are made from herrings, sardines and bonito. Where transportation facilities are not very good or where there is no satisfactory equipment for manufacturing them into food fishes are converted into fertilizers.

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FISH FERTILIZERS

(Quantity in metric ton, value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total		Herring	Sardine	Bonito-cake	Sardine dried	Dried herring	Others
	Quantity	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value	Value
1927	245,196	29,448	11,869	8,756	576	444	3,881	3,919
1928	216,676	24,171	7,803	7,687	852	1,859	2,790	3,677
1929	230,871	23,187	3,958	10,172	863	1,350	3,977	3,815
1930	233,339	16,572	3,663	8,172	573	475	1,565	2,122
1931	279,085	15,129	3,227	8,080	521	576	1,238	1,486
1932	344,888	20,207	3,799	11,980	489	1,114	1,238	1,584
1933	438,117	28,843	5,121	17,750	526	966	2,300	2,178

Fish Oils

Fish oils used for industrial purposes are sardine oil, herring oil, cod oil, whale oil and shark oil. Production is increasing every year, in 1933 it was 70,633,755 kg. against 57,089,096 kg. in 1932, the value being increased from ¥4,120,642 to ¥6,947,198.

STATISTICS OF FISH OILS

(Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Total	Sardine	Herring	Cod	Whale	Shark	Others
1927	3,697	1,842	634	183	427	256	403
1928	4,407	1,982	707	151	709	409	446
1929	5,180	2,913	448	155	666	422	574
1930	3,404	1,988	425	99	310	308	271
1931	2,480	1,541	291	84	144	269	150
1932	4,120	2,926	265	144	264	340	177
1933	6,947	4,804	295	255	439	448	703

Sukifunori

(Dried Gloiopeltis furcata, used as a starch)

The production of sukifunori in 1932 amounted to 195,654 kwan, valued at ¥583,958.

Year	Quantity kwan	Value yen
1929	264,960	1,047,663
1930	196,515	641,722
1931	211,474	731,561
1932	195,654	583,958
1933	181,165	576,457

Manufacture of Salt

The salt industry in Japan is carried on under the Salt Monopoly Law. Salt is manufactured by the boiling method. The cost of production, therefore, is high, and the quantity produced is not enough, so that a large quantity of cheap salt is imported every year. The number of salt producing establishments, production, production areas, etc., in Japan are as follows :

Year	No. establishments Mar. 31	No. of manufactures Mar. 31	No. of employees Mar. 31	Area of salt-beds Mar. 31	No. of boiling pans Mar. 31	Production
1929	3,682	3,727	41,116	4,888.17	4,115	644,150,900 kg.
1930	3,449	3,398	37,783	4,531.24	3,906	628,682,100
1931	3,434	3,390	37,115	4,529.85	3,852	521,261,500
1932	3,393	3,395	36,156	4,533.72	3,816	5,726,285
1933	3,361	3,378	36,672	4,538.48	3,804	6,308,350

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Protection and Encouragement of Fisheries

Pelagic Fishery Deep-sea fishing must be undertaken by strongly built sailing vessels or steamers, so in order to encourage the development of this fishing with adequate equipment and trained men the Government as far back as 1897 passed an Act for the Encouragement of Pelagic Fishery. The Act is still in force though it has been many times revised. Subsidies for the encouragement of pelagic fishery are of two kinds :—subsidies for fishery and subsidies for fishing vessels. The subsidies for fishery are granted to those who engage either in pelagic fishing with vessels which are in comformity with the rules for construction of vessels prescribed in the Regulations of Inspection of Vessels Engaged in Pelagic Fishery, or for those who carry on the business of transporting fishes caught in pelagic waters, with certain conditions according to kinds, place, period of time, market, or method of disposition of fishes, etc. The subsidies for fishing vessels are granted to those owners of vessels who either build vessels according to the rules of construction prescribed in the Regulations of Inspection of Vessels Engaged in Pelagic Waters, or who fix new engines, or subsidiary fishing implements, or who have installed in their vessels storage facilities, or wireless telegraphic or telephonic equipment, according to the following rates :

1.	For every ton of vessel newly constructed of steel	less than yen 60
2.	„ „ „ „ „ „ „	„ wood „ „ „ 45
3.	„ every H. P. of steam engine	„ „ „ 22
4.	„ „ „ „ motor engine	„ „ „ 40

The Act provides further that, for vessels over 60 tons, instead of applying the subsidies enumerated above, a subsidy not exceeding 20% of the total cost of construction shall be granted. When, furthermore, designs of construction of certain vessels, or repairs of vessels are considered good and proper, the Government shall grant a subsidy not exceeding 1/3 of the expenses required.

After the Act came into operation pelagic fishery made great progress and in 1928, the amount of fish caught amounted to over ¥100,000,000 in value. Though the total value has decreased during the last few years, due to the decline in price, the total quantity is steadily increasing. In 1932 the quantity reached 693,967,481 kg. the largest on record while the value amounted to ¥57,390,923. This progress may be partly due to the times, but the fact that the Act had a great deal to do with it can not be denied. The total value of fish caught in home waters was ¥30,520,000 in 1919, but this increased to ¥65,986,858 in 1933.

Harbour Construction Formerly fishermen used to draw their boats up to the beach where their homes were, but since deep-sea fishing with large vessels has increased it is no longer possible to do so. For mooring, for taking refuge, for discharging fishes caught, for loading fishing requisites, etc., it became very necessary to carry out harbour construction work at fishing ports which serve as headquarters and refuges of vessels. In 1908, therefore, the Government revised a part of the Act for the Encouragement of Pelagic Fishery, and provisions were made for making investigations on harbours. Accordingly 200 ports were carefully investigated. In the meantime, the construction of fishing

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ports and ports of refuge was undertaken independently by various local prefectural governments, by towns or villages, or by fishery associations in increasing numbers. Later, it was found that harbour construction was necessary for other reasons, such as hygiene, or the supply of food, etc., and the Government decided to proceed with the work of harbour construction from 1918 on. Ports constructed by the Government since that year are 18 and the amount of subsidies granted reaches to ¥14,438,000. In 1931 the number of ports in Japan was 1,463, of which fishing ports numbered 536. The names of fishing ports constructed and the years in which instructions were issued by the Government are as follows :

The year in which instruction was issued	Port	Prefecture
1918	Onahama	Fukushima
,,	Shirahama,	Chiba
1918	Ito,	Shizuoka
,,	Nooi,	Niigata
,,	Yuzu,	Miyazaki
,,	Namikiri,	Miyé
1919	Yatsudo,	Aomori
1920	Taki,	Ishikawa
,,	Tomiyé,	Nagasaki
1921	Kushikino,	Kagoshima
,,	Misaki,	Kanagawa
1923	Choshi,	Chiba
,,	Ezumi,	Shimané
,,	Murotsu,	Kochi
,,	Himi,	Toyama
1929	Shinoseki,	Yamaguchi
,,	Hamada,	Shimané
1930	Uotsu,	Toyama

In addition to the above, the Government subsidized harbour construction in smaller ports, viz., Katsuura in Chiba prefecture, Manazuru in Kanagawa, Kisenuma in Miyagi, Toshi in Miyé, Kazumi in Hyogo, Mikuni in Fukui, Shimizu in Kochi and Namachi in Toyama.

Encouragement of Aquiculture This matter is dealt with in the foregoing pages.

Encouragement of Construction of Storage for Fishes In an effort to bring about an equilibrium between demand and supply and with the development of deep-sea fishing and the capturing of fish in places far distant from the place of consumption, the necessity of cold storage and the transportation of fishes by cold storage vessels has arisen. The Government issued Rules for the Encouragement of Cold Storage for Fishery Products in 1923, and since then has been granting subsidies for the construction of cold storage quarters, cold storage vessels and ice storage.

(1) Cold Storage Vessels Subsidies for construction of cold storage vessels are granted in the following manner :

(a) For construction and repair of vessels and engines, subsidies of less than 20% of the cost will be granted.

(b) For equipment, addition or reconstruction of cold storage, subsidies less than 50% of the required expenses will be granted. Since the Rules were put into effect, cold storage vessels have been built in rapid succession. Up to 1929, 18 vessels were constructed and subsidies amounting to ¥530,000 were granted.

(2) Cold Storage The amount of subsidy for construction, addition or reconstruction of Cold Storage is less than one-third of the cost. Prior to enforcement of the Rules for Encouragement of Cold Storage, refrigeration by air was introduced from U. S. A., and as the result of encouragement, cold storage businesses arose in every part of the country. Up to 1929, subsidies amounting to ¥2,467,000 had been granted to 99 persons out of the 174 who had applied for them.

(3) Ice Storage The amount of subsidy for construction, addition,

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or reconstruction of ice storage is less than one-third of the cost. Owing to the rapid development of ice manufacturing since 1919, ice storage has developed in every part of the country, and ice storage plants for fish have been constructed in numerous places along the coast. The Government began to encourage their construction in fishing villages in 1923, and up to 1929 subsidies amounting to ¥180,000 were granted to 83 persons out of the 144 who applied for them.

System of Fishing Rights

Any system which makes the capture of fishes or shell fishes in the sea a right is unknown in the West. Japan, however, has had a system of this sort in a rude form from of old, and in 1901, the system was legally established by the Fishery Law, because of the necessity of protecting the cultivation of fishes and the maintenance of fishing villages. There is a similar kind of system for rivers, lakes and marshes, but examples of river and lake fishing rights are also found in foreign countries. The kinds of fishing rights which are given in the Fishery Law are as follows:

(1) Exclusive fishing rights.
(2) Fixed " "
(3) Divisional " "
(4) Special " "

Fishing rights are considered as rights of property. They can be transferred freely, if registered, and money can be borrowed with them as security. The term of fishing rights are fixed by the authorities which issue the licence within twenty years, but they may be renewed on application by the owners of the rights. The term of an exclusive fishing right is fixed at 20 years.

Facilities for Fisheries

In 1925, the Government issued Rules for Encouraging the Establishment of Facilities for Fisheries and ruled that it would grant subsidies for facilities established by Gyogyo-Kumiai, Suisankai, Suisan-Kumiai, industrial associations, or local municipalities of cities, towns and villages. The kinds of facilities encouraged are:

1. Facilities for quays and the mooring of vessels.
2. " " the sale of manufactured fishing products.
3. " " manufacturing and disposing of fishing products.
4. " " cold storage.
5. " " fishing vessels and fishing implements.
6. Facilities for transportation.
7. " " cultivation.
8. " " rescue work of shipwrecked fishing vessels.

The amounts of subsidy to be granted will be less than 40% of the cost in the case of the first six, less than 50% for the seventh, and less than 60% for the eighth. Subsidies granted since 1925 are as follows:

		yen
1.	95 cases of facilities for quay and vessel mooring	876,374
2.	81 " " " " the sale of fishing products	177,578
3.	22 " " " " " manufacture and disposal of fishery products	45,884
4.	18 " " cold storage	77,224
5.	55 " " facilities for fishing vessels and fishing implements	90,000
6.	16 " " " " the transportation of fish	33,208
7.	74 " " " " " cultivation of fishes	130,000
8.	24 " " " " " rescue of shipwrecked fishing vessels	107,413
Total 384 cases		1,537,856

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Organizations Related with Fisheries

Suisankai (Fishery Societies) Suisankai is a public corporation, recognized by the Suisankai Laws of 1921, which has as its purpose the development of fishery. It is an organization covering a particular county or city and includes in its members, in addition to those engaged in fishing, persons having rights to fish and those who manufacture, trade in, or store fishery products. A prefectural suisankai is organized by county and city suisankai of that particular prefecture, and at the head of prefectural suisankai and suisankai located abroad is the Teikoku (Imperial) Suisankai. The functions of suisankai include the encouragement of fishery, the improvement and extension of the manufacture of marine products, the development of fishing districts, protection of aquiculture, etc. It also collects statistics, investigates markets, or engages in brokerage, etc. On the social side, the rescue of shipwrecked vessels, improvement of relations between employers and employees, employment agency work, mediation in labour troubles, etc., are looked after by the societies. And lectures on fishery subjects, exhibitions and fishery shows are held by them. The number of suisankai, their members, etc. during the last few years are as follows:

SUISANKAI (Fishery Societies)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Fishery Societies:—					
Total	371	374	377	380	380
County and city fishery societies	331	334	337	340	340
Prefectural fishery societies	39	39	39	39	39
Imperial fishery society	1	1	1	1	1
Number of members of societies:—					
Country and city fishery societies	440,511	451,066	457,298	430,767	451,182
Prefectural ,, ,,	330	331	334	340	336
Imperial ,, ,,	39	39	39	42	42
Expenditure of fishery societies	2,027,451	1,835,381	1,899,844	1,613,700	1,778,277

Suisankumiai (Fishery Guilds) There are two classes of suisankumiai. The first of these is a corporate judicial person, organized by fishermen or those who are engaged in the manufacture or sale of aquatic animals or plants in a particular district for the purpose of the encouragement and improvement of fishery, cultivation and propagation of aquatic products, etc. The number of suisankumiai is decreasing gradually. At one time there were as many as 220 or more of these Kumiai or guilds, but now there are barely one-fourth of that number. The Act for Suisankumiai in Foreign Waters promulgated in 1902, authorizes any Japanese engaged in fishery or in the manufacture or sale of aquatic products in foreign waters, either by permit or by treaty, to organize suisankumiai. At present Roryo Suisankumiai (Suisankumiai in Russian Waters) is the only one which belong to this class. This guild is formed by fishermen and those engaged in the manufacture and sale of aquatic products in the Maritime Province, Kamchatka, and Saghalien Island. In 1927, its members were 153. Its specially important task is to encourage amicable relations between the Japanese and Russian fishermen working in the same waters and thus ensure the smooth and

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effective working of the industry in those parts.

Gyogyo-Kumiai (Fishermen's Societies) Gyogyo Kumiai is a judicial person recognized by Fishery Law, and is organized by fishermen living in a particular district. It acquires fishery rights, etc., for member fishermen and takes any measures necessary to further or protect the common benefit of its members.

The principal object of gyogyo-kumiai is the acquisition of fishing rights, etc. This is quite natural in Japan for fishermen work with their village as unit and no fisherman can work independently. Therefore, fishing rights are mostly secured by gyogyo-kumiai, special privileges being given to kumiai for securing them.

Though in the original Act, the object of gyogyokumiai was restricted to the acquisition of fishing rights, etc., the Act was revised in 1910, whereby kumiai had the obligation put on them of undertaking any proper measures that would redound to the mutual benefit of fishermen.

Gyogyo-Kumiai Rengokai are corporations of gyogyo-kumiai. Their principal functions are joint sales of fishery products, cultivation of fishes and rescue of shipwrecked vessels. The history and numbers of gyogyo-kumiai and rengokai are as shown below:

GYOGYO-KUMIAI (Fishermen's Societies)

	1929	1930	1931	1932
No. of societies classified according to no. of members (total)	3,892	3,874	3,928	3,957
under 50	1,267	1,239	1,260	1,262
51—100	924	913	884	892
101—200	947	957	997	1,004
201—500	642	649	661	670
500—1000		100	105	109
1001 and over	16	16	21	20
No. of members of societies	512,761	526,579	546,622	555,734
Federations of societies				
No. of federations	64	61	63	69
No. of member-societies	816	830	881	917
Expenditure for societies and federations	¥ 751,903	776,634	977,339	987,290

Dogyo-Kumiai, etc., Related with Fishery Dogyo means the same trade or profession, hence Dogyo-Kumiai are associations of those connected with the same trade. In relation to the fishery industry they are formed by those dealing in aquatic products, canned foods, salt, cultivation of fishes, etc. In 1930, there were as many as 23 dogyo-kumiai related with the fishing industry. There is also the Dai-Nippon Suisan Kai, which is incorporated according to civil law for the purpose of the improvement and encouragement of fishery.

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CHAPTER XVI

FORESTRY

Introduction

Japan is one of the few countries on earth favoured with extensive forests. The area of forests and fields in Japan including Korea, Formosa and Saghalien Island, was 44,752,404 ha. in 1932 and was about 66% of the whole area of the country, which is 67,467,637 ha. It is about 3.8 times as large as her agricultural land.

Since Japan forms a long narrow chain stretching north and south from the northern extremity of the Kurile Islands to the southernmost point of Formosa, and since her mild climate is very favourable for the growth of plants and trees, it is natural that there should be a thick growth of many varieties. There are as many as 1,500 kinds, of which principal forest trees alone number more than 100. In point of richness in variety, she occupies a high position even among countries which are favoured with larger forest areas. While the amount of timber produced is valued at roughly ¥300,000,000 annually it is still far less than 10% of the value of the total staple products of the country and is not at present enough to fill domestic requirements. Every year it is necessary to import about 10,000,000 koku of lumber, equivalent in value to ¥100,000,000. Furthermore, forestry offers very limited labour opportunities. As compared with agriculture, which gives work to one-half of the total families in Japan, and fishing, which finds employment for 1,500,000 people, the number of persons engaged in forestry is small, being less than 720,000.

Distribution and Character

Forests in Japan stand, roughly speaking, in four different zones: sub-tropical forest zone, evergreen broad leaved forest zone, the deciduous broad-leaved forest zone and coniferous forest zone.

The sub-tropical forest zone This covers the whole of Formosa, the southern half of the Loochoo Islands, including the Yayéyama Islands, the annual mean temperature in it being over 21° C. As to the altitude, the zone varies from below 2,000 metres above sea level in the southern part of Formosa to below 1,000 metres above sea level in the northern part of the same island. In this zone, binroji, tsuga, (Arenga sacchariferа) basho-banana and bamboo are found.

The evergreen broad-leaved zone This comprises Shikoku, Kyushu, the northern part of the Loochoo Islands and the southern part of Honshu (Main Island) (at 36° N. Lat. and Southwards), the annual mean temperature of this zone being 13°-21° C. As to the altitude, it is 854 metres on an average in Kyushu, 762.5 metres in Shikoku and 610 metres in the southern part of Honshu. Trees which grow in this zone are kusunoki (Cinnamomun camphora, Nees), oak, akamatsu (Pinus densiflora), white fir, tsuga (Tsuga sieboldi, Carr), etc.

The deciduous broad-leaved zone This zone covers the northern part of Honshu, the southern part of Hokkaido and a greater part of Korea,

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the annual mean temperature in this zone being from 6° C. to 13° C. As regards the altitude, it is from 976 metres to 1,372.5 metres in the northern part of Honshu and 457.5 metres in the southern part of Hokkaido. Trees which grow in this zone are cedar (the Japanese cypress), white fir, todo-matsu (Abies sachalinensis, mast), ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), beech, poplar, white birch, etc.

The coniferous zone This zone covers the northern half of Hokkaido, the group of the Kurile Islands and the Saghalien Island, the mean temperature of which is 6° C. to below zero. This zone starts at the height of 1,000 metres in Honshu and ends at the height of 2,592.5 metres in the same island, while it ends at the height of 1,067.5 metres in Hokkaido and 610-762.5 metres in Saghalien Island. Principal trees which grow in this zone are ezo-matsu and todo-matsu.

Forests in Kiso district extend over mountain regions which range from 305 metres to 3,050 metres above the sea level along the course of the upper stream of the River Kiso. It covers 104,055 ha. in area and its growing stock amount to 28 million cu. m. Principal trees are the Japanese cypress, the swamp-cypress, sawara (Chamae cyparies obtusa S. et Z), nezuko (Thuja japonica, maxim) and parasol-pines. They are old and are thickly grown. The reason that they are retained so well is due to the fact that during the feudal times, the cutting down of these trees was prohibited. Among these, the most magnificent trees are the Japanese cypresses which are about 190 years old. Most of them are 0.46 metre in diameter and 27.45 metres in height.

Forests of sugi in Akita district are widely distributed along the Yoneshiro and Omono Rivers, and belong to the Government. The forests cover an area of about 43,000 ha. and hold stock of 16 million cu.m. The forests, where they are not mixed with other trees, are beautiful and magnificent to look upon. Most of the sugi in these forests are from 120 to 200 years old, and in a dense part the stands hold as much as 1,400 cu.m. per ha. Some of them are so large that their diameter reaches sometimes to 1.22 metres. The forests are noted for the abundance of timbers of a superior quality. Annual cutting from these forests amounts to 280,000 cu.m.

Area of Forests, etc.

According to 1930 Census the total area of Japan was as follows :

Districts	Total area	Forests and scrubland	Paddy fields	Other Cultivated land	Others
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
Entire country	67,506,894	44,752,404	5,186,309	5,910,804	11,657,377
Korea	22,074,072	16,351,857	1,604,327	2,748,067	1,369,821
Formosa	3,597,355	2,465,074	396,669	415,445	320,167
Saghalien Island	3,608,976	2,906,746	—	27,997	674,233
Hokkaido	8,877,504	6,425,310	206,610	657,749	1,587,835
Japan Proper	29,348,987	16,603,417	2,978,703	2,061,546	7,705,321

The area of forests, according to ownership and districts, in 1930, was as follows :

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Districts	Crown	Government	Public	Shrines and temples	Private	Total
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	
Entire Country	1,482,649	19,719,712	4,950,847	316,061	18,333,135	44,752,404
Korea	—	6,956,287	753,496	174,653	8,467,421	16,351,857
Formosa	—	2,212,365	9,642	—	243,067	2,465,074
Saghalien Island	—	2,906,746	—	—	—	2,906,746
Hokkaido	625,480	1,455,665	342,814	686	199,408	2,624,053
Japan Proper	528,268	4,178,446	3,414,074	139,227	8,348,402	16,603,417

AREA OF FORESTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO OWNERSHIP AND CLASS OF FORESTS 1930

JAPAN PROPER

Owners	Coniferous	Broad leaved	Standing forests Mixed	Bamboo groves	Total	"Genya"	Grand total
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	134,199	54,227	224,789	42	413,257	110,011	523,268
Government	741,790	2,086,964	1,277,257	797	4,106,808	71,638	4,178,446
Public	819,654	1,089,443	595,036	7,513	2,511,646	902,428	3,414,074
Shrines and temples	49,062	33,617	43,358	2,169	128,206	11,021	139,227
Private	2,494,480	2,814,650	1,898,014	126,146	7,333,240	1,015,162	8,348,402
Total	4,239,185	6,078,901	4,038,454	136,667	14,493,157	2,110,260	16,603,417

HOKKAIDO

Owners	Coniferous	Broad leaved	Standing forests Mixed	Bamboo groves	Total	"Genya"	Grand total
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	20,257	218,850	625,480	—	864,587	44,794	909,381
Government	277,269	1,421,006	1,455,665	—	3,153,940	311,928	3,465,868
Public	21,654	308,830	342,814	—	673,298	100,337	773,635
Shrines and temples	449	506	686	—	1,641	540	2,181
Private	87,194	429,645	199,408	—	716,247	557,998	1,274,245
Total	406,823	2,378,837	2,624,053	—	5,409,713	1,015,597	6,425,310

SAGHALIEN ISLAND

Owners	Standing forests	Genya*	Total
	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	—	—	—
Government	2,073,688	833,058	2,906,746
Public	—	—	—
Shrines and temples	—	—	—
Private	—	—	—
Total	2,073,688	833,058	2,906,746

FORMOSA

Owners	Standing forests	Genya	Total
	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	—	—	—
Government	1,684,066	528,299	2,212,365
Public	8,086	1,556	9,642
Shrines and temples	—	—	—
Private	190,423	52,644	243,067
Total	1,882,575	582,499	2,465,074

KOREA

Owners	Standing forests	Genya*	Total
	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	—	—	—
Government	5,593,074	1,363,213	6,956,287
Public	600,906	152,590	753,496
Shrines and temples	151,661	22,992	174,653
Private	7,021,390	1,446,031	8,467,421
Total	13,367,031	2,984,826	16,351,857

Grand total for the country

Standing forests	Genya	Total
ha.	ha.	ha.
1,277,844	154,805	1,432,649
16,611,576	3,108,136	19,719,712
3,793,936	1,156,911	4,950,847
281,508	34,553	316,061
15,261,300	3,071,835	18,333,135
37,226,164	7,526,240	44,752,404

Note: "Genya" are treeless wild lands covered with various weeds of gramineæ which may be utilized for grazing and may also be converted into forests.

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STATISTICS SHOWING CHANGES IN AREA OF FORESTS IN JAPAN PROPER (HOKKAIDO INCLUDED)

Year	Total area	Crown	Government	Public	Temples and shrines	Private
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
1921						
Total area	21,860,464	1,409,076	7,217,268	4,083,820	129,071	9,021,232
Standing forests	18,451,992	1,193,399	6,995,747	2,818,277	114,446	7,330,122
Genya	3,480,476	215,677	221,521	221,521	14,625	1,691,110
1924						
Total area	23,023,358	1,364,559	7,691,016	4,293,006	131,205	9,543,573
Standing forests	19,391,559	1,129,171	7,374,106	3,033,674	116,238	7,738,368
Genya	3,631,802	235,388	316,909	1,259,332	14,966	1,805,206
1927						
Total area	22,713,451	1,349,802	7,699,359	4,247,441	130,278	9,286,070
Standing forests	19,517,036	1,183,186	7,415,504	3,092,580	117,262	7,708,505
Genya	3,196,415	166,616	284,355	1,154,861	13,017	1,577,566
1930						
Total area	23,011,219	1,432,649	7,683,263	4,186,375	141,381	9,612,550
Standing forests	19,879,241	1,277,844	7,248,054	3,184,041	129,320	8,039,481
Genya	3,131,978	154,805	390,209	1,002,334	11,561	1,573,069
1933						
Total area	23,645,731.85	1,418,885.42	7,657,609.80	4,287,336.00	144,269.56	10,142,631.07
Standing forests	20,575,913.91	1,243,194.05	7,417,962.90	3,308,320.76	133,400.24	8,473,035.96
Genya	3,069,817.94	170,691.37	239,646.90	979,015.24	10,869.32	1,669,595.11

Note: The investigation for the area is made at the end of every three years.

Stock of Growing Timber

Japan Proper To ascertain the amount of growing timber owned by the Imperial Household, Government, and public and private interests careful investigations are made, the investigations in the case of public and private interests being carried out by each prefecture. The following statistics show the growing timber in Japan proper in 1932 classified according to ownership: Quantities in 1,000 cu.m.

Kind	Crown	Government	Public and Private			Total	%
			Public	Shrines and temples	Private		
Coniferous trees	32,452	137,208	71,172	7,333	327,510	575,675	46.0
Broad leaved trees	14,121	318,190	83,503	5,000	252,823	673,637	54.0
Total	46,573	455,398	154,675	12,333	580,333	1,249,312	—
%	3.7 %	36.6 %	12.4 %	0.7 %	46.6 %	—	—

Thus the total standing timber in Japan proper is 1,249,312,000 cu.m., of which coniferous trees account for 575,695,000 cu.m. and broad-leaved trees 673,637,000 cu.m.

Of the total growing stock, public and private interests own about 59.7%, the Imperial Household owns about 3.7% and the Government 36.6%. When we examine the ownership of coniferous forests, the Imperial Household and the Government possess together only 20.9%, while the remaining 79.1% is in public and private possession. However, in the case of broad-leaved trees, the Imperial Household and the Government together own about 49%, while the rest own 51%.

The growing timber per unit area of one hectare is 113 cu.m. for the Imperial Household, 113 cu.m. for

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the Government and 237 cu.m. for the rest.

The stock of growing timber per unit of area is very small in the case of public and private ownership because reafforestation has never been vigorously encouraged. The same is true with regard to afforestation, which could be carried out on a very large scale in the "genya" areas, treeless wild lands covered with various graminaceous weeds, which offer great opportunities for conversion into forests, but which to the present have been greatly neglected.

Other Parts The following table shows the number, ownership and type of trees in other parts of the country.

STANDING TIMBER IN HOKKAIDO, FORMOSA, KOREA AND SAGHALIEN ISLAND IN 1932

(Quantities 1,000 cu. metres)

Owners	HOKKAIDO			SAGHALIEN ISLAND			
	Coniferous trees	Broad leaved trees	Total	Coniferous trees	Broad leaved trees	Total	
Imperial Household	32,911	74,130	107,041	—	—	—	—
Government	168,969	235,395	404,364	138,019	21,148	159,167	77
Public	19,829	51,448	71,277	—	—	—	—
Shrines and temples	2	17	19	—	—	—	—
Private	2,899	28,994	31,893	—	—	—	—
Total	224,610	389,984	614,594	138,019	21,148	159,167	77

Owners	FORMOSA				KOREA			
	Coniferous trees	Broad leaved trees	Total		Coniferous trees	Broad leaved trees	Total	
Imperial Household	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Government	70,006	127,374	197,380	117	87,902	72,158	160,060	29
Public	68	297	365	45	4,316	2,095	6,411	11
Shrines and temples	—	—	—	—	2,413	1,472	3,885	26
Private	828	9,121	9,949	52	60,658	15,275	75,933	11
Total	70,902	136,792	207,694	110	155,289	91,000	246,289	18

The total stock of growing timber in the country classified according to ownership is as follows:

TOTAL STAND OF TIMBER IN JAPAN IN 1932

Owners	Total		Grand total
	Coniferous trees	Broad-leaved trees	
	1,000 cu. m.	1,000 cu. m.	1,000 cu. m.
Imperial Household	65,362	88,251	153,613
Government	602,105	774,265	1,376,370
Public	95,385	137,343	232,728
Shrines and temples	9,748	6,489	16,237
Private	391,895	306,213	698,108
Total	1,164,495	1,312,561	2,477,056

Afforestation

As previously mentioned there is great scope for the practice of afforestation in Japan because of the large "genya" areas, plains where there is only a thin growth of trees, and forests where there are many undesirable trees. However, since a great deal of timber is being cut, reafforestation becomes more urgent every year.

Afforestation is divided into two classes, viz., natural and artificial.

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Natural afforestation is being carried out in only a small portion of the Crown and Government forests, while in most of the public and private forests, conditions are such that no definite plans for natural afforestation have been made. However, as this is liable to cause forests to go to waste careful studies are being made to improve the situation.

In artificial afforestation Japan has had some good experience and artificial afforestation for the Imperial and Government forests is being carried out on a well-planned basis.

Areas under natural and artificial afforestation at the end of 1933, according to ownership, are as follows:

ARTIFICIAL AFFORESTATION

Owners	Coniferous	Broad-leaved	Mixed	Bamboo groves	Total
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	5,044	69	—	—	5,113
Government	11,092	810	2,479	—	14,382
Public { by Gov't	20,284	343	—	—	20,627
Public { by public	15,234	2,946	—	10	18,191
Shrines and temples	503	60	—	2	565
Private	44,151	10,661	—	485	55,297
Grand total	96,311	14,890	2,479	499	114,179

NATURAL AFFORESTATION

Owners	Coniferous	Broad-leaved	Mixed	Bamboo	Total
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
Crown	156	1,984	7,391	—	9,531
Government	3,882	16,997	38,466	—	59,346
Public	10,192	20,932	9,662	—	40,786
Shrines and temples	183	563	353	—	1,099
Private	18,219	81,654	30,014	—	129,887
Total	32,633	122,131	85,886	—	240,651

The following table shows the history and tendency of artificial afforestation:

Year	Total area under afforestation	Crown	Public			Private
			Government	By Public bodies	By the Government	Shrines and temples	
	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.	ha.
1921	96,409	4,402	18,504	19,566	—	551	53,385
1927	107,212	3,439	13,352	22,497	8,814	605	58,502
1928	112,618	4,404	13,382	22,137	10,469	634	61,390
1929	110,915	4,130	13,016	20,988	15,394	612	56,772
1930	101,208	4,107	12,579	19,135	10,530	411	54,444
1931	99,612	5,369	11,903	19,589	8,561	578	53,611
1932	110,679	5,010	11,548	18,338	20,635	512	54,633
1933	113,681	5,113	14,382	18,181	20,627	563	54,812

According to the above table, the area under afforestation belonging to the Crown shows a tendency to increase, that of the Government

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shows a decided decrease until 1933, while the area belonging to public and private interests shows on the whole an increasing tendency. During, and for some time after, the World War, afforestation was not carried on because of the high cost of labour and of young plants, but since 1921, as the price of young plants declined and labour became more readily available it has been resumed.

In order to develop work of afforestation, it is important to grow a great number of young plants at a very low price and nursery work in this line has developed a great deal lately. The area of seedling ground in 1933 for Government owned land was as large as 3,235.7 ha.

Clearing of Forest and Bamboo Areas

The area of land cleared, together with the quantity and value of timber and bamboo produced in 1933, is shown in the following table. The changes in clearing in the past 6 years is given in the second table.

CLEARING OF FOREST AND BAMBOO LAND IN 1933

Owners	Area	Timber				Bamboo	
		Lumber		Firewood			
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	Ha.	c.m.	Yen	c.m.	Yen	Bundles	Yen
Crown	4,622	1,305,388	8,972,338	613,020	441,703	802	863
Government	94,046	4,450,617	13,555,012	5,716,381	3,183,472	28,170	4,956
Public	89,522	1,143,470	4,876,564	5,410,240	4,583,668	149,915	52,975
Shrines and temples	1,333	44,810	386,500	219,376	259,365	89,999	24,408
Private	219,234	8,721,013	60,896,192	40,997,793	38,925,524	4,953,678	2,513,588
Grand Total	408,759	15,665,299	88,686,606	52,957,310	47,393,732	5,172,564	2,596,790

AREA OF FORESTS CLEARED

Year	Crown	Government	Public	Shrines and temples	Private	Total
	chobu	chobu	chobu	chobu	chobu	chobu
1928	5,291.2	71,134.6	65,389.0	1,177.9	203,796.4	346,789.1
1929	11,407.7	79,067.0	69,403.6	1,045.4	192,833.4	353,757.1
1930	4,125.3	97,640.4	66,104.3	1,937.9	189,167.5	358,965.4
1931	6,834.0	114,176.2	67,395.5	1,373.4	190,079.5	379,858.6
1932	4,758.2	141,744.4	84,571.4	1,321.9	196,182.4	428,578.3
1933	4,661.2	94,829	90,268.5	1,344.9	221,061.8	412,166.1

Production of Lumber, Firewood, Bamboo, etc.

Perhaps no other country consumes timber in such large quantities as does Japan, yet until 1920 she was able to export. During and after the World War every branch of industry in Japan developed with unusual rapidity with a consequent heavy increase in consumption of lumber, and moreover, the increase in population has contributed in no small way to increased consumption, the result being that large quantities of lumber have had to be imported in recent years.

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PRODUCTION OF TIMBER, FIREWOOD AND BAMBOO

Year	Total Value	Timber					
		Total		Coniferous trees		Broad-leaved trees	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	yen	koku	yen	koku	yen	koku	yen
1928	196,587,754	49,593,320	118,901,269	40,367,680	102,279,871	9,225,640	16,621,398
1929	170,698,885	51,511,156	103,462,482	40,532,383	87,391,380	10,978,773	16,071,102
1930	121,161,562	47,683,536	70,157,730	38,051,223	59,985,380	9,632,313	10,172,350
1931	109,893,917	48,861,826	63,509,363	39,714,547	54,556,176	9,147,279	8,953,187
1932	113,558,616	51,222,910	67,387,663	41,041,266	57,794,234	10,181,644	9,593,429
1933	138,677,128	56,296,382	88,686,606	45,820,794	75,009,416	10,475,588	13,677,190

Year	Fuel wood		Bamboo	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	Tana*	yen	bundles	yen
1928	17,894,949	71,965,363	5,775,522	5,721,122
1929	17,858,076	62,308,117	5,471,731	4,918,286
1930	17,715,546	47,683,233	4,899,853	3,820,599
1931	18,011,078	43,533,840	5,005,507	2,850,214
1932	18,396,510	43,473,724	5,191,998	2,697,229
1933	19,081,269	47,393,732	5,172,564	2,596,790

Note: 1 tana is equal to 2.78 cu. m. "Tana" literally means "shelves."

In 1933, the total forest area cleared was 412,166.1 chobu and the value of timber, firewood and bamboo amounted together to ¥138,677,128. As far as the area of forests actually cleared in the last decade or so is concerned that of 1919, with over 515,000 ha. was the greatest, while that of 1922, about 277,000 ha. was the smallest. In ordinary years, the area cleared is somewhere near 300,000 ha. For the value of produce, 1919 was also the record year. The total output was over ¥345,000,000. Since then values have gradually decreased.

Comparing the figures of various forest products for 1933, it is found that the figures for timber accounted for more than 50% of the value.

	cu. m.	yen
Timber	15,665,299	88,686,606
Fuel wood	52,975,247	47,393,732
Bamboo	5,172,564	2,596,790

The following table shows the timbers classified according to the two large divisions:

	cu. m.	yen
Coniferous trees	12,750,311	75,009,416
Broad-leaved trees	2,914,987	13,677,190

The reason that the quantity of broad-leaved trees cut down is small is that such trees mostly grow in districts where transportation is difficult and the cost of cutting is high. However, when transportation facilities improve and buildings of Western style become more popular, there will be a larger demand for timber from latifoliate trees and more will have to be felled.

Production of lumber in 1933 classified according to ownership was:

	cu. m	yen
Crown	1,305,388.1	8,972,238
Government	4,450,617.8	13,555,012
Public	1,143,470.2	4,876,564
Shrine and temple	44,810.0	886,500
Private	8,721,012.9	60,896,192

Products of Government and privately owned forests together accounted for over 80% of the total production.

Fuel wood produced in 1933 was 52,957,310 cu.m. valued at ¥47,393,732. Values, according to ownership, were as follows:

	yen
Crown	441,703
Government	3,183,472
Public	4,583,668

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Shrines and temples	¥ 219,876
Private	88,925,524

As regards bamboo, the total production in 1933 was 5,172,564 fagots of which 4,953,678 fagots, 91 per cent. of the whole, were produced in the private forests.

Charcoal and Other Products

In addition to lumber, firewood and bamboo, forests yield other products such as charcoal, brushwood, mushrooms, bamboo shoots, etc., as the following table shows:

(Quantities in 100 kg., value in 1,000 yen)

Year	Total Value*	Charcoal		Grass, green	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1928	138,468	18,369,080	99,315	38,042,526	17,508
1929	128,016	18,117,396	90,633	39,079,762	16,348
1930	96,096	17,240,905	64,950	37,895,538	14,555
1931	89,259	18,203,461	59,365	41,095,910	13,962
1932	91,888	18,870,446	61,579	46,715,295	14,557
1933	109,440	19,776,964	76,157	49,318,759	15,575

* Note: The total value of forest products includes, besides the values of charcoal and brushwood, those of mushrooms, bark, fruits, berries, bamboo shoots, rosin, etc.

The total value of forest products other than lumber, firewood, and bamboo in 1933 was ¥109,437,960, the values of the more important of them were:

	kwan	yen
Charcoal	527,385,721	76,154,605
Brushwood	1,315,166,918	15,575,542
Bark	—	1,798,159
Berries	—	3,623,573
Mushrooms	(kin) 12,206,396	6,416,215
Bamboo shoots	18,425,618	3,823,961

Charcoal is widely used in Japan. In Europe and America it is chiefly used for industrial purposes but in Japan 70% of the consumption is for heating and cooking. While the use of gas, electric heat, etc. for these purposes is increasing, the demand for charcoal does not decrease, and about 500,000,000 kwan of charcoal produced at home are consumed every year. A small quantity, about ¥191,790 in value, was imported in 1932.

Protection Forests†

Besides having a direct value through the produce they yield, forests have a distinct indirect value through their influence on climate, conservation of water supplies, prevention of erosion, etc., and in order that the fullest use may be made of them the Government established a system of "protection" forests. In the following instances, under the Forestry Act, the Government is authorized to decree that certain forests etc., shall be considered as "protection" forests:

(1) When it is necessary to protect against soil denudation.

(2) When it is necessary to protect against sand shifting.

(3) When it is necessary to protect against flood, wind and tide.

(4) When it is necessary to protect against avalanches and rolling stones.

(5) For conservation of water supply.

(6) For fishery purposes.

(7) For guiding navigators.

(8) For public health.

(9) For scenery.

The area of protection forests in 1933 was as follows:

† The word forest here and throughout this sub-section is understood to include woods, groves, copses, etc.

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PROTECTION FORESTS.

Year (At the year end) Grand total		1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Total						
Number		353,548	360,478	369,078	376,590	381,313
Area	ha.	1,815,087.07	1,841,856.30	1,858,363.64	1,887,950.67	1,887,002.47
Against soil-denudation						
Number		190,840	195,441	201,960	207,871	212,379
Area	ha.	804,939.08	814,086.75	829,146.65	842,694.55	851,331.67
For feeding spring						
Number		73,628	74,701	75,859	76,367	76,347
Area	ha.	875,760.69	890,988.20	891,810.15	880,309.68	871,568.63
Against flood						
Number		15,624	15,580	15,787	15,885	15,874
Area	ha.	2,757.62	2,657.75	2,553.72	10,463.42	10,497.23
Against rolling stone						
Number		418	420	396	434	454
Area	ha.	498.94	576.79	564.99	635.01	642.75
Against avalanche						
Number		4,292	5,183	5,325	4,529	4,772
Area	ha.	6,745.59	6,753.42	6,637.10	6,677.66	6,806.78
Against wind						
Number		13,650	13,780	13,658	13,827	13,805
Area	ha.	30,458.08	32,576.53	32,570.89	50,524.66	48,772.67
Against dust						
Number		10,426	10,523	10,543	10,498	10,505
Area	ha.	10,994.58	11,143.34	11,174.07	9,342.44	11,182.80
Against tide						
Number		12,093	12,095	12,360	12,545	12,530
Area	ha.	8,362.71	8,496.89	8,594.18	8,754.84	8,691.87
For attracting fish						
Number		23,368	23,431	23,578	24,540	24,429
Area	ha.	41,270.18	41,901.22	42,195.16	46,045.69	45,756.99
Landmark for navigation						
Number		248	250	250	246	248
Area	ha.	2,192.13	2,198.88	2,190.75	1,206.93	1,246.80
For maintaining public health						
Number		153	153	153	153	153
Area	ha.	89.95	89.65	89.65	89.55	89.55
For scenic beauty						
Number		8,808	8,916	9,254	9,700	9,817
Area	ha.	31,017.52	30,886.88	30,886.88	31,206.24	30,415.23

		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total						
Number		386,317	391,353	393,952	394,589	405,145
Area	ha.	2,045,352.60	2,057,906.48	2,067,483.67	2,069,591.70	2,078,522.78
Against soil-denudation						
Number		218,336	221,639	225,724	229,023	236,910
Area	ha.	883,175.70	889,372.07	891,710.48	897,120.59	905,430.25
For feeding spring						
Number		74,828	75,591	75,005	71,918	72,188
Area	ha.	900,394.81	994,823.60	997,982.18	991,570.91	980,990.98
Against flood						
Number		15,518	15,656	15,397	15,461	15,498
Area	ha.	10,415.90	10,407.47	10,449.52	10,915.14	10,967.50
Against rolling stone						
Number		452	452	456	485	485
Area	ha.	642.45	642.45	643.74	693.62	1,723.93
Against avalanche						
Number		4,794	4,812	4,774	4,846	4,899
Area	ha.	6,829.39	6,842.78	6,844.56	6,954.15	7,062.35
Against wind						
Number		13,940	13,894	13,586	13,667	13,736
Area	ha.	52,602.05	54,698.68	59,296.17	59,515.34	65,943.87
Against dust						
Number		10,451	9,859	9,653	9,550	10,869
Area	ha.	11,169.03	11,072.73	11,019.47	11,255.40	13,720.36

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		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Against tide						
Number		12,398	12,890	12,962	12,941	13,260
Area	ha.	8,696.83	8,631.37	8,619.47	8,607.67	8,994.15
For attracting fish						
Number		24,687	25,258	25,208	25,491	25,853
Area	ha.	47,954.78	47,919.37	47,847.08	47,576.73	47,994.05
Landmark for navigation						
Number		247	247	249	254	253
Area	ha.	1,252.36	1,250.28	1,250.38	1,274.48	1,256.93
For maintaining public health						
Number		153	153	153	153	153
Area	ha.	89.45	89.55	89.55	89.55	89.36
For scenic beauty						
Number		10,513	10,902	10,785	10,800	11,091
Area	ha.	32,129.85	32,156.13	31,731.07	34,018.12	34,349.06

Owners of protection forests, etc., cannot, according to the provisions of the Forestry Act, cut down the trees, take the forest products from them nor utilize them for any purpose, unless with the approval of the authorities concerned. Protection forests are divided into two classes for administrative purpose. In the first class are forests in which limits for cutting and utilization are fixed, while in the second are those, the cutting of which is absolutely prohibited. Any owner who has his forest included in the second class and suffers any loss by this inclusion will have the loss reimbursed by the Government.

The changes in area of protection forests are shown below:

Year	Total		Cutting limited		Cutting prohibited	
	No.	Area	No.	Area	No.	Area
		ha.		ha.		ha.
1919	319,079	1,529,498	314,241	1,335,405	4,838	194,053
1927	376,590	1,887,951	372,416	1,646,087	4,174	241,864
1928	381,313	1,887,002	377,146	1,649,188	4,167	237,815
1929	386,317	2,045,353	382,164	1,807,391	4,153	237,815
1930	391,353	2,057,906	387,180	1,819,823	4,173	238,803
1931	393,952	2,067,484	390,335	1,834,231	3,617	233,253
1932	394,589	2,069,592	391,081	1,841,045	3,508	228,561
1933	405,145	2,078,522	—	—	—	221,382

It will be noticed that there has been a yearly increase in the area. The largest owner is the Government which has 927,078.35 ha., the public owns 765,314.08 ha. and private interests 365,280.89 ha. The areas of protection forests owned by the Crown, shrines and temples are so small that they are hardly worth mentioning.

When protection forests are classified according to the nature and kinds of protection, those for conservation of water supply cover 980,990.98 ha., and those for soil denudation 905,430.25 ha., that is to say, about 94% of the protection forests is related to water regulation work.

Utilization of Government Forests

Forests are classified according to ownership as Crown forests, Government forests, and public and privately owned forests. Public and privately owned forests include those possessed by shrines and temples, public corporations and private individuals. Crown forests are those possessed by the Imperial Household and are divided into the hereditary and ordinary ones. Both are under control of the Minister of the Imperial Household, and are in charge of the Bureau of Imperial Forests and Estates. Government forests in Hokkaido are looked after by the

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local Government of Hokkaido, while those in Honshu (Main Island) are taken charge of by the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. Growth of forests, their utilization, and work of ensuring the public welfare through them are looked after by these offices, which administer them with rational plans for the public welfare.

The Government makes a contract with people willing to carry on afforestation work whereby they are given not more than 80% of the total profit on condition that they follow the Government's instructions as to planting, supplementary afforestation work, and taking care of the trees planted. "Divisional Forests" may be established for this work. A portion of the Government's forests may be put into the custody of shrines and temples and any profits arising therefrom may be used by the shrines and temples. Such forests constitute "Forests in Custody." Sometimes the Government may appoint a particular city, town, or village to protect Government forests which are situated within the jurisdiction of that city, town or village, payment for the work being made by part of the products of that forest being handed over to the city, town or village (Commission forests). In addition, the Government may lease its forests for the purpose of the development of industry in a particular district, or for the purpose of assisting people living near the forests. In some cases no rent is charged. The ground may be used for grazing, grass, or gathering fuel. The Government may sell some of its forest land if it is suitable for reclamation. Forests which are used for these purposes are of a vast area. Figures for March, 1934 follow:

Protection forests	533,152 ha.
Divisional ,,	44,558
Forests in the custody of shrines and temples	25,508
Commission forests	60,488
Forests leased for industrial purposes	75,713
,, for grazing	119,409
,, as grass fields	162,338
,, for gathering fuel	1,010,615
,, ,, reclamation	23,602
Total	2,023,464

Taxes cannot be imposed on Government forests which come within the area of any city, town, or village. But in view of the fact that it owes a great deal to the city, town or village for controlling and managing these forests, the Government has decided to pay to that particular city, town or village a sum equivalent to the amount of the local tax which those forests would bear if they were owned by private individuals.

Forestry Associations
(Shinrin Kumiai)

Forestry associations are those judicial persons recognized by the Forestry Act of 1907, which are formed not for profit but for safety of the country, conservation of water supplies, protection of forests, etc. The nature of their work is to allow members to plant, fell, carry, guard, or sell timber under unified control and rational management. Forestry associations are classified according to their objects into four classes, viz., afforesters' associations, business associations, coolies' associations, and protection associations.

The number of forestry associations in 1933 was 1,734, and the area covered was 1,259,575.0 ha. The growth of forestry associations in recent years is shown in the following table:

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FORESTRY COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Kind of societies		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Undertaking						
No. of societies		479	508	544	594	613
Area		197,755.04	215,698.51	241,447.93	279,272.73	290,871.0
No. of members		50,223	55,286	60,803	67,842	70,308
Afforestation						
No. of societies		24	25	24	24	27
Area		8,585.45	8,635.04	8,157.02	8,157.03	8,114.0
No. of members		3,206	3,239	3,032	3,032	3,112
Earthwork						
No. of societies		181	244	311	390	440
Area		99,193.39	133,604.63	165,330.25	219,569.26	244,179.0
No. of members		16,183	22,152	28,898	37,995	42,480
Production						
No. of societies		45	49	50	50	49
Area		38,854.22	45,419.50	46,113.72	46,113.72	47,321.0
No. of members		7,062	7,404	7,490	7,490	7,358
Afforestation and undertaking						
No. of societies		8	8	8	8	8
Area		709.09	709.09	709.09	709.09	715.0
No. of members		493	493	493	493	493
Undertaking and earthwork						
No. of societies		103	123	164	185	212
Area		81,957.03	104,006.28	127,093.89	149,406.94	175,531.0
No. of members		16,596	20,325	23,827	27,357	34,144
Undertaking and protection						
No. of societies		11	9	9	9	9
Area		7,761.32	7,148.43	7,148.43	7,148.43	7,203.0
No. of members		2,142	1,613	1,613	1,613	1,613
Afforestation and earthwork						
No. of societies		7	7	7	8	8
Area		2,423.80	2,423.80	2,423.80	2,602.31	2,624.0
No. of members		717	717	717	882	882
Afforestation and protection						
No. of societies		31	34	34	34	35
Area		12,394.71	15,250.91	15,994.71	15,988.76	17,322.0
No. of members		6,805	7,664	7,637	7,674	8,280
Earthwork and protection						
Number of societies		93	123	155	171	193
Area	ha.	104,033.06	121,193.06	145,215.87	159,144.79	175,251.0
Number of members		17,302	20,826	24,824	27,648	30,885
Afforestation, protection and earthwork						
Number of societies		53	62	94	122	131
Area	ha.	135,597.02	145,375.54	181,673.06	222,901.49	235,607.0
Number of members		14,587	16,777	25,178	34,935	37,901
Earthwork, protection and undertaking						
Number of societies		6	7	7	7	9
Area	ha.	49,680.00	51,663.47	51,663.47	51,663.47	54,832.0
Number of members		5,365	5,870	5,870	5,870	6,297
Total						
No. of societies		1,041	1,204	1,407	1,602	1,734
Area	ha.	738,944.13	851,128.26	992,971.24	1,162,678.02	1,259,575.0
No. of members		140,681	162,366	190,382	222,831	243,753

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Labour for Forestry Work

People engaged in forestry work may be divided into the following classes, those employed in afforestation, those working in the plant nurseries, those clearing woods and lumbering, those carrying and storing lumber, those making charcoal, and those engaged in the production and collection of by-products of the forests. Ordinarily they work for wages. Some of them are exclusively engaged in the work, but most of them work in forestry along with work in other fields, as the following statistics for 1930, 1931 and 1932 clearly show:

JAPAN PROPER (Hokkaido excluded)

Owners	Male	Female	Total	16–60 years	Under 16 years and over 60 years
Crown (March, 1933)	—	—	—	—	—
Government (March, 1934)	323,411	83,085	406,496	393,893	12,603
Public (March, 1934)	128,674	42,755	171,429	165,789	5,640
Private (For 1930)	751,302	186,171	937,474	782,494	154,979
Total	1,203,387	312,011	1,515,398	1,342,176	173,222

HOKKAIDO

Crown (March, 1933)	—	—	—	—	—
Government (March, 1933)	37,244	3,322	40,566	40,256	310
Private (For 1930)	70,089	15,493	58,582	81,738	3,844
Total	107,333	18,815	128,148	121,994	4,154

GRAND TOTAL

Crown	—	—	—	—	—
Government	360,655	86,407	447,062	434,149	12,913
Public	128,674	42,755	171,426	165,789	5,640
Private	821,391	201,664	1,023,055	864,232	158,823
Total	1,310,720	330,826	1,641,546	1,464,170	177,376

Forest Damage and Insurance

Forests are subject to damage by fire, wind, snow, etc., damage and loss by fire being especially great. As the forestry business requires an investment which covers a long period of years it is essential to insure, for if a forest is swept by fire, not only the capital invested, but also the care and labour of many years is instantly swept away. The table below shows both the amount of loss and the area damaged by fire, wind, etc., during the last few years. In order to encourage forestry work some means to minimize the loss which arises from fire had to be devised. For many years forest insurance was looked for but it was not until 1920 that the Toho Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., ventured to take on this business. The Teikoku Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., and Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., quickly followed. The first two companies insure only those artificially afforested forests which are older than ten years, while the Tokyo Marine and Fire Insurance Co., Ltd., will insure artificially afforested forests which are not as old as ten years as well as naturally grown forests.

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STATISTICS OF DAMAGES DONE TO FORESTS

Year	Total damage		Forested tracts			
			By fire		By wind	
	Total area	Value	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	yen	ha.	yen	ha.	yen
1929	132,167.70	7,164,300	35,149.79	3,743,903	11,974.81	238,970
1930	189,363.77	6,993,149	57,500.03	2,419,177	47,147.20	2,638,635
1931	84,188.43	3,464,903	16,393.96	1,970,599	9,227.61	133,677
1932	139,243.34	9,431,919	7,415.31	619,165	30,534.05	3,864,064
1933	91,225.17	3,551,976	4,697.75	893,992	18,526.12	218,159

Year	Forested Tracts			
	By fungus, insect, etc.		By flood	
	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	yen	ha.	yen
1929	14,269.19	311,151	520.56	298,186
1930	4,559.71	222,005	533.56	300,002
1931	3,928.76	52,904	448.27	208,863
1932	4,378.51	42,554	686.97	305,278
1933	2,998.26	25,816	531.66	125,311

Year	Forested tracts			
	By snow		Others	
	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	yen	ha.	yen
1929	5,985.42	303,508	47,079.47	1,973,631
1930	25,524.99	841,323	25,580.33	467,104
1931	26,823.37	780,520	24,458.18	282,458
1932	50,992.07	3,225,637	42,380.03	1,295,064
1933	23,395.52	588,752	38,787.48	1,658,933

Year	Bare Tracts					
	By fire		By flood		Others	
	Area	Value	Area	Value	Area	Value
	ha.	yen	ha.	yen	ha.	yen
1929	13,114.61	87,806	124.16	30,103	3,949.69	227,042
1930	27,063.37	43,727	968.63	88,502	485.95	22,674
1931	2,505.92	24,499	161.35	3,956	240.99	7,427
1932	1,928.63	18,748	374.88	45,321	552.89	16,088
1933	1,832.92	11,545	138.05	18,804	322.41	10,564

Forest Administration

The central office of forestry administration in Japan at present is the Forestry Bureau in the Department of Agriculture and Forestry. Under this Bureau, there are six Forestry Administration Offices, 218 Forestry Administration Stations and 1,544 administrative districts.

In the office of the Forestry Bureau there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Business, and for the administration of privately owned forests there is a Public and Private Forests Section. For experimental work there are, under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Forestry Experimental Stations. Forestry Administration Offices are located in Aomori, Akita, Tokyo, Osaka, Kochi, and Kumamoto cities, and are under supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. The work of each office is to plan the afforestation work of Government and public forests, to establish or eliminate Government forests, to start civil engineering work, to sell forests, etc. They also supervise the works of forest administra-

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tion stations which are placed under them. In each office there is a Section of General Affairs, a Section of Forestry Planning, a Section of Afforestation and a Section of Utilization.

Forest Administration Stations, which number 213 in all, are directly concerned with the management and protection of Government and public afforested forests.

In Hokkaido, the Forestry Section in the Development Bureau is the central administration office, and under it there are 19 forest administration offices. About 3,520,000 ha. of forests which are owned by the Government are administered by these 19 offices, the average area controlled by one office being about 185,000 ha.

The proper policing of various forests is carried out as follows :

FOREST POLICE

Owner	Forest Districts and Number of Police	
Crown	Number of allotted districts ; Japan proper	233
	Persons in charge of allotted districts : Japan proper	185 men
Government	Number of districts in Japan proper	1542
	„ „ persons in charge	1,198 men (Dec. 1931)
	„ „ districts in Hokkaido	240
	„ „ persons in charge	226 men (Dec. 1929)
Public	Ordinarily the police look after these ; but in the following 8 prefectures there are forest police facilities : Aomori (8), Miyagi (1), Fukushima (11), Yamaguchi (8), Yamanashi (44), Aichi (16), Saitama (1), and Oita (2) (Figures in parenthesis are number of forest police in March, 1931)	
Shrines and temples	For the public forests in Hokkaido, members who take charge of allotted districts look after :	
	Number of allotted districts	61
Private	Number of persons in charge	61 men

Forestry Education

College Education Forestry education in Japan began with the establishment of a forestry school in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1882, under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. This school later became the Tokyo Forestry School and by the University Ordinance of 1890 was incorporated as a branch of the Department of Agriculture of Tokyo Imperial University. Morioka and Kagoshima Higher Forestry Colleges were established in 1903 and 1904 respectively. The forestry education that was being carried on in Sapporo Agricultural College in Hokkaido, became a laboratory course when the college became a Department of Hokkaido Imperial University. During the World War, facilities for education were greatly extended, and Departments of Forestry were added to Kyoto and Kyushu Imperial Universities, while higher forestry colleges were established in Miyé, Utsunomiya, Gifu, Miyazaki, and Suigen in Korea and Taihoku in Formosa. By 1926, there were 744 graduates of universities, and 2,589 who had passed through various colleges.

Each university and college has its own speciality. Kyushu and Hokkaido Universities give lectures on Forestry in Tropical and Arctic Zones respectively, and graduates of these universities are mostly working in the colonies. Each university has forests for experimental purposes (Consult Chapter XLII, For-

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ests for University Field Work).

Most higher colleges are comparatively new but they each have their speciality. Some of them have two-year post-graduate courses, while others offer some special courses. Miyé Higher Forestry College is noted for its course in civil engineering for forestry, Gifu Higher Forestry College for its technological course on forestry products, and Utsunomiya for courses on agricultural policy and economics. Gifu Higher Forestry College is specialized in its courses on clearing and carrying lumber making on a mechanical basis, chemical technology of forestry products, etc.

Practical Education The first and second class forestry schools established and supervised by various prefectures give practical lessons in forestry. They exist either as independent schools of forestry, or as a part of agricultural schools. In 1928, in the whole country there were 192 first class forestry schools for boys, and 5 for girls, and 133 second class forestry schools.

In order to encourage forestry, training of experts who have practical knowledge of forestry is very important. These experts are trained mostly in the forestry schools which give practical lessons, but often other methods, as explained in the next section, are adopted.

Supplementary Education For those who have no opportunities to get regular forestry education in schools supplementary forestry education is given in various places, the principal method being by series of lectures given under the auspices of forestry experimental stations, forestry associations or charcoal associations. These lectures are given regularly each year, but in particular cases, when experts are required for the purpose of management of some special forestry work a special course of lectures will be given. In the case of Government forests, supplementary education is given every year to train men who take charge of the forests.

Forestry Experimentation

Central Experimental Station A plant experimental station was first established in Nishigahara, Tokyo, in 1878, to make investigations into the advantages of the cultivation of various plants, the growth of plants, the relation between the forests and climatic conditions of the country, etc. This station was abolished in 1882, but in 1890, the business of forestry experiments was taken up by the Forestry Administration Station of Tokyo. Later, in 1905, upon a pressing need, plant nursery beds was established in Meguro, Tokyo. This nursery developed into a Forestry Experimental Station under supervision of the Forestry Bureau. In 1922, the station was detached from the Forestry Bureau and placed under the direct supervision of the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. A subsidiary station was also established in the Ogasawara (Bonin) Islands for the purpose of experimenting with tropical plants.

In the Central Experimental Station there are departments of, general affairs, afforestation, vegetable pathology, utilization of forestry products, chemistry, forestry work, and weather and climate. Since 1904 it has regularly issued bulletins on experiments and forest weather, besides occasional other reports. The Station will, for payment, make analysis, carry out experiments and give advice and judgments on matters of forestry for the general public, if requested. The principal items of investigation and study of the station are such as are given below:

(1) Items which are connected

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with experiments on afforestation. The relation between plants and soil, the nature of seedlings, and methods of afforestation and fostering are investigated and studied. The study of seedlings has been perfected. Special study has also been made in the method of clearing woods, and the result is already applied in practice by various forestry administration offices and stations.

(2) Experiments on the utilization of forestry products. Investigations have been made on the strengths of various kinds of lumber, antisepsis, physical and chemical properties of lumbers, electrical drying etc. In the chemical department studies are made on the method of manufacturing vegetable oils, charcoal, camphor, rosin, etc. Research is also carried out on the production of mushrooms, plantation of medicinal herbs, etc.

(3) Experiments which are connected with both forestry and agriculture. Studies on such as effect of growth of green mannas, fodder, etc. are made.

(4) Experiments and studies on forestry work and protection of forests. The effects of any forestry work on the principal trees are studied. A valuable supplementary table for the calculation of the growth and yields of the principal trees has been completed as the result of many years' study. As to the protection of forests, studies on beneficial and noxious insects and fungi are made. The result of the study on the disease of the Japanese cedar is one of world-wide importance.

(5) Weather observation. Forestry weather bureaux have been established at different places along the principal rivers to observe the temperatures in and out of forests, humidity, rainfall, evaporation, and water contents of soils. Also, the effects of forests on water regulation, the relation of rainfall in forestry districts to floods, the relation of climate in forestry districts to the growth of forests, etc. are observed and studied. In the field of weather observation in forests, comparative studies are made of the possibility of promoting water supply by forested and wild land, the power of forests to retain rain water, and the extent of damage to coniferous trees and their withering during winter, etc. Also studies of the effects of different kinds of weather in various mountains and the effects of rainfall on the principal rivers and lakes are made.

Local Experimental Stations Among the various prefectures Hokkaido is the only one which has a forestry experimental station. It was established in 1908 and for twenty-five years has contributed to the development of forestry in that island. The station makes experiments in afforestation, the utilization of forestry products and the protection of forests. In Kagoshima prefecture, a forestry research bureau was established in 1929. This bureau studies plant rearing, afforestation, etc. and is the only bureau which engages in experimental work in prefectures other than Hokkaido.

Forestry experimentation in Formosa is undertaken by a Forestry Bureau under the Central Research Station in the Government-General of Formosa. It has experimental forests of 52,000 cho. In addition to experiments in afforestation, utilization, and nursery work, it studies the classification and distribution of plants grown in the island. It has two branch stations.

The forestry experimental station in Korea was established in 1922. As the climatic conditions in Korea are rather continental the kinds of plants, their distribution, and the

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nature of forests, etc. differ widely from those in Japan so the results of the experiments made in the Central Experimental Station in Tokyo cannot be directly applied to the forests in Korea. To effect an improvement in forestry work in Korea it was necessary to establish an independent experimental station in that country. The station is comparatively new, but as part of a plan which is to be completed in fourteen years beginning 1925, investigations on the classification and distribution of the plants, experiments in rearing and afforestation of the principal trees, experiments in the prevention of damage from noxious insects and fungi on young plants and forests, tests on lumber and methods of storing, etc., have already been made and reports on the results of the investigations and experiments have been published in the bulletins issued by the station. In the experiments on rearing young plants it has already succeeded in showing the way to quicken their growth, its experimental success in rearing the Korean pines being specially noteworthy.

In Saghalien Island an experimental station was established in 1929. Prior to that experiments were made on frigid zone plants by the Temporary Industrial Investigation Bureau in the Government Office of Saghalien Island in experimental forests near the towns of Toyohara and Horo.

Lumber Trade and Industry

Lumber Trade The lumber trade in Japan can be said to have begun to develop after the Great War. The trade in 1919 was only ¥34,000,000 in value but had increased to ¥142,750,000 in 1924, an increase of 407%. Up to 1920, foreign trade, as far as the lumber trade goes, was in favour of Japan. This was changed in 1921, when a great quantity of American lumber was imported. After the great earthquake which destroyed Tokyo, Yokohama and their vicinities, there was a great demand for lumber for the reconstruction work of these places and imports of lumber from America and Asiatic Russia increased by leaps and bounds. This situation was maintained until 1929, but the following year, 1930, saw a change when the imports of lumber dropped to 8,600,000 koku as against 12,000,000 koku in 1928. The reason for the change can be attributed to the following causes:

(a) Japan's raising of the embargo on gold.

(b) The world-wide depression.

(c) Japan's revision of the import tariff.

(d) Completion of reconstruction work in Tokyo and Yokohama.

Lumber imported into Japan for the year 1934 totalled ¥40,183,000. Though this shows a slight decrease, if compared with ¥40,584,000 of 1933, it was a big increase when compared with that of 1932. Main sources of shipments were the United States, Canada, the Dutch East Indies, Siam and Asiatic Russia, but the United States' share was far larger than the other countries combined. Meantime, the exports of lumber amounted to ¥24,868,000 for the same year, which was a big increase compared with the 1933 figure, viz., ¥19,330,000 and a far greater increase compared with the 1932 outcome which was ¥11,328,000. Chief foreign markets for lumber from Japan in 1934 were Britain, Kwantung Province, China, Manchoukuo, the Dutch East Indies, British India and the Straits Settlements.

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IMPORTS OF LUMBER (Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Ebony, kwarin, etc.	Teak	Cedar for pencils	Cedar, pine, fir from under 60 mm. thick to over 200 mm.	Cedar, pine and fir (logs and cants)	Kiri (paulownia)	Aspen	Other wood
1920	1,320	999	535	950	14,425	3,387	1,473	366
1921	1,033	1,059	199	983	30,200	5,701	3,552	745
1922	1,033	1,099	178	4,372	70,155	4,258	3,049	672
1923	863	1,183	92	4,554	75,971	3,775	2,209	871
1924	1,240	1,610	214	10,016	109,568	2,843	2,201	1,377
1925	729	1,246	212	2,801	66,926	1,819	1,819	639
1926	976	1,749	217	4,444	91,155	1,524	2,293	1,663
1927	804	1,371	226	4,600	91,060	842	2,891	1,974
1928	879	2,618	382	54,195	42,551	700	2,306	2,482
1929	900	1,655	408	47,195	32,971	459	1,791	3,454
1930	677	995	412	22,797	22,613	288	1,627	2,670
1931	836	681	481	18,996	18,740	398	459	2,784
1932	578	753	425	15,243	14,617	87	—	3,822
1933	922	919	203	16,479	16,540	97	204	5,214
1934	952	758	336	14,722	15,404	66	277	7,665

EXPORTS OF LUMBER (Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Bamboo	Railway sleepers	Veneers	Shooks	Match sticks	Wood shavings for match boxes	Wood, other sawn	Logs, etc.
1920	838	3,995	—	6,444	3,247	1,255	14,185	—
1921	552	3,172	—	2,834	3,121	812	5,386	—
1922	834	975	—	3,669	2,847	921	5,748	—
1923	885	916	—	3,608	2,512	1,070	4,151	—
1924	891	1,076	—	3,990	1,927	1,305	5,376	—
1925	988	1,491	—	6,446	1,396	1,190	9,242	—
1926	657	712	—	7,278	1,251	891	7,845	—
1927	803	223	—	5,253	1,389	1,093	7,930	—
1928	893	243	1,027	5,237	1,526	996	4,590	4,341
1929	1,117	199	1,460	6,354	1,323	571	5,808	5,418
1930	835	145	565	5,106	1,160	534	4,231	2,879
1931	741	123	554	3,224	942	642	2,346	2,136
1932	511	26	1,291	3,304	285	493	3,573	2,351
1933	700	612	2,550	4,506	347	462	6,825	3,833
1934	952	2,207	4,010	5,779	255	402	6,620	4,639

Wood Pulp Industry In 1914, the consumption of wood used as raw materials for pulp amounted to only 1,160,000 koku, but in 1932 it was 6,978,261 koku, and in 1933 nearly 7,992,000 koku. Japan proper and Korea supply fir, cedar and hemlock-spruce, while Hokkaido and Saghalien Island supply ezo-matsu and todo-matsu. In 1913, lumber grown in Japan proper used for pulp amounted to 127,000 koku, that grown in Hokkaido 852,000 koku and that in Saghalien Island 33,000 koku. The consumption of wood grown in Japan proper decreases every year, while that grown in Hokkaido and Saghalien Island incerases rapidly. In 1927, the consumption of Saghalien lumber was about 69% of the whole, Hokkaido lumber about 27%, and the remaining 4% was grown in Japan proper, Korea and Manchuria.

Resources for pulp. Though the development of the pulp industry was partly due to the increase in

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demand for paper, it owes a great deal to the abundant supply of lumber. While in 1914 the consumption of lumber was barely 1,160,000 koku, it increased to 7,090,000 during the next 12 years and today the consumption amounts to about 10,000,000 koku a year. However, as explained elsewhere, it requires careful investigation, study and planting to make our forests capable of producing so large an amount every year.

Japan proper has been supplying in the past, fir, cedar and hemlock-spruce as pulp woods, but these are decreasing in quantity, and though they may be used to some extent for pulp, they are more necessary for other purposes and cannot be relied upon indefinitely as raw materials for pulp.

The quantity of ezo-matsu and todo-matsu supplied by Hokkaido as pulp woods is large, but it is difficult to obtain supplies in a greater proportion than at present, therefore the only forests on which the pulp industry can rely for a greater supply are those in Saghalien.

The stock of coniferous trees in Saghalien Island was at one time said to be 1,800,000,000 koku and that of broad-leaved trees 125,000,000 koku. Later investigations have shown, however, that the total growing stock was only 709,000,000 koku, of which coniferous trees made up 637,000,000 koku and broad-leaved trees 72,000,000 koku. Great quantities have since been utilized and the amount available in future is said to be only about 400,000,000 to 500,000,000 koku.

Under such circumstances, it is doubtful whether the forests in Japan can supply all the raw materials her pulp industry will require in future. Thus the establishment of a far reaching forestry policy, encouragement of afforestation, prohibition of rough cutting, etc., are urgently required, and in order to further develop our pulp and paper industry the development of forests in Northern Manchuria and the Maritime Province is essential. In 1933 the total production of various kinds of wood pulp amounted to 620,039 tons from 7,278,883 koku of timber. (See Chapter XXII, Paper, for minutes.) At present a large quantity is yearly imported from foreign countries, the United States being the largest importer. The total amount imported for the year 1934 was ¥44,255,000 against ¥27,066,000 for the previous year.

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CHAPTER XVII

MINING

History of the Industry

During the reign of the Emperor Kotoku (645 A. D.), a mineral deposit was discovered in the province of Iyo and experts came over from Korea and China, to work the minerals extracted. Metals were being used for making coins so mining received the encouragement of the rulers. During the time of the Emperor Shomu, (724-747 A. D.) mineral deposits were found in many places and the art of working them made considerable advance, a fact witnessed by the construction of the Great Buddha at Nara, a monument of the metal-working art of those days.

Later, during the time of the Ashikagas, mining made further development, especially in the field of gold, copper and sulphur. Influential lords who held sway in their own localities required metals to finance their army, and mines always proved good objects for fights. Mineral deposits obtained in this manner were well worked and the mining industry naturally developed.

In the time of the Tokugawas metallurgy further advanced. The government coined money which circulated all over the country and naturally the industry was well protected and carefully developed under its ægis. At this time Japan was known throughout the world as a country which abounded in gold and silver, and after the country was opened up to foreign trade the quantity of these precious metals exported was considerable, a business which provided a natural stimulus to gold and silver mining. The government also encouraged private enterprisers to engage in the industry, a result of which was the entry of the Sumitomos. The chief mineral deposits discovered during those times were :

Ashio Copper mine	in Shimozuké Province
Besshi „ „	in Iyo „
Sado Gold mines	in Sado Island
Miiké Coal „	in Chikugo Province
Karatsu „	in Hizen

After the Meiji Restoration the industry did not show much progress until after the Sino-Japanese War of 1884-1885, when the Government called in many mining experts from abroad and employed them in government operated mines, not only to improve, organize and work the mines more efficiently but also to teach the operating of them on a modern basis. The mines improved in this manner were sold to private companies, and the experts who were officials of the Government transferred also, a factor which served to bring the mining industry of Japan to its present stage of development.

Mining Industry in Recent Years

The year 1933 closed with an unprecedented record in recent years, which was doubtlessly caused by the enormous increase of overseas trade and the continued boom of munition industries. The price level of mineral products kept its upward tendency throughout the year, which in turn contributed to accelerate the productive activity. The greatest activity was witnessed in the coal

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production. Gold was another item which recorded an enormous increase in production owing to its enhanced market price. The high price paid for Government gold and gold bullion, the discount allowed in the railway freightage, the lower charges for the analysis of gold ores and the bounties for the building of gold refineries, all these facilities given by the Government added force to the increase of its production.

Mining applications made during the year 1933 were 8,193 for prospecting, 148 for actual operation and 478 for mining gold dust, with the total number of 8,819. This was an increase of 2,423 (42%) in prospecting, 61 (70%) for actual operation, but a decrease of 106 (18%) in gold dust, as compared with the previous year. The total production in 1933 was valued at ¥358,240,658, an increase of ¥103,458,750 (46%) as compared with the previous year. Coal added ¥53,490,000 in value, as compared with the previous year, copper ¥11,650,000, iron, zinc, sulphur, etc. followed in the list. Of the above, iron deserves special mention. In 1933 the production of pig iron, including Chosen and Manchoukuo, was 2,000,000 metric tons and steel 2,800,000 metric tons, the former satisfying 92% and the latter 100% of home demand.

Exports and Imports The latest returns of the overseas trade show that the exports and imports of mineral products for the year 1933 were ¥73,772,389 and ¥406,090,097 respectively. The increase was ¥25,351,842 in the exports and ¥137,013,951 in the imports. Gains in the shipments of iron to Manchoukuo, of coal to China and Hongkong and of sulphur to Australia account for the increase of the exports, while the increase of the imports owed largely to the increased purchases in foreign markets of iron, petroleum, coal, and others. (For details of exports and imports of mineral products in 1933 and 1934 see Chapter XI.)

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS OPERATED AND THEIR AREA

(Prepared by Department of Commerce and Industry)

(Area is given in ares)

		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
No. of Mine-lots	Operated	1,265	1,186	1,099	1,113	1,241
	Not optd.	3,515	3,434	3,301	3,205	3,067
Area	Operated	22,341,695.2	22,825,461.3	21,037,812.1	20,806,803.3	22,175,416.3
	Not optd.	27,410,452.5	26,061,934.6	24,061,610.1	23,903,106.3	22,608,207.5

NUMBER OF MINE LOTS PROSPECTED AND THEIR AREA

(Prepared by Department of Commerce and Industry)

(Area is given in ares)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
No. of Mine-lots	6,896	6,607	6,195	6,299	7,130
Area	121,575,169.1	114,968,846.3	109,294,197.7	111,630,875.4	130,743,419.5

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NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS PROSPECTED AND THEIR AREAS

(Classified according to Kinds of Minerals)

(Area is given in ares)

Kind of mineral	1928 No. of mine-lots	1928 Area	1929 No. of mine-lots	1929 Area
Metal	3,430	52,957,734.5	3,497	52,860,182.6
Phosphorus	15	181,381.3	20	265,446.4
Graphite	20	242,690.4	15	190,199.5
Coal	1,936	42,079,868.6	1,881	40,915,869.1
Lignite	224	2,530,676.1	204	2,494,656.0
Petroleum	1,302	26,657,581.4	1,163	22,775,793.1
Petroleum asphalt	26	519,072·1	27	451,745.0
Sulphur	83	1,517,558.3	87	1,506,255.4
Other non-metals	1	21,008.4	—	—
Total	7,037	126,707,571.0	6,896	121,575,168.1

Kind of mineral	1930 No. of mine-lots	1930 Area	1931 No. of mine-lots	1931 Area
Metal	3,438	50,097,981.7	3,234	48,182,550.4
Phosphorus	21	208,812,0	19	183,493.2
Graphite	15	190,397.3	10	170,635.5
Coal	1,774	40,245,236.3	1,742	39,130,915.6
Lignite	191	2,029,314.9	157	2,005,192.0
Petroleum	1,056	20,141,610.9	903	17,368,277.6
Petroleum asphalt	20	809,462.0	14	219,253,0
Sulphur	89	1,667,491.1	108	1,895,325.9
Other non-metals	—	—	6	86,441.0
Total	6,607	114,968,846.3	6,195	109,294,197.7

Kind of mineral	1932 No. of mine-lots	1932 Area	1933 No. of mine-lots	1933 Area
Metal	3,503	55,568,450.3	4,488	74,253,387.5
Phosphorus	14	155,837.0	14	121,620.5
Graphite	7	84,432.2	11	107,678.2
Coal	1,573	35,598,012.6	117	944,720.9
Lignite	146	1,290,171.0	822	17,002,362.3
Petroleum	858	16,761,711.9	13	265,581.3
Petroleum asphalt	13	250,371.0	114	1,960,509.7
Sulphur	112	1,877,969.4	1	32,529.1
Other non-metals	—	—	—	—
Total	6,229	111,630,875.4	2,686	56,420,567.7

NUMBER OF MINE-LOTS OPERATED AND THEIR AREAS

(According to Kinds of Minerals)

Kind of mineral		1928 No. of mine-lots	1928 Area	1929 No. of mine-lots	1929 Area
Metal	Operated	365	6,096,686.8	462	6,934,308.7
	Not optd.	2,085	13,893,964.1	1,927	12,438,685.5
Phosphorus	Operated	2	137,407.5	1	8,926.5
	Not optd.	5	18,615.0	6	28,095.9
Graphite	Operated	3	46,326.1	6	61,451.7
	Not optd.	13	58,283.1	10	43,157.1

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Kind of mineral		1928 No. of mine-lots	1928 Area	1929 No. of mine-lots	1929 Area
Coal	Operated	582	13,598,942.5	515	12,808,958.5
	Not optd.	1,082	12,661,996.2	1,054	12,888,437.4
Lignite	Operated	97	581,679.4	101	613,212.2
	Not optd.	118	435,512.3	112	557,278.6
Petroleum	Operated	140	1,450,360.5	140	1,578,519.7
	Not optd.	319	1,236,059.2	297	1,080,495.1
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	9	156,809.0	9	156,808.0
	Not optd.	5	7,344.6	5	7,345.0
Sulphur	Operated	28	158,929.0	31	184,509.0
	Not optd.	109	434,606 4	103	406,944.6
Other non-metals	Operated	—	—	—	—
	Not optd.	1	10,013.3	1	10,013.3
Total	Operated	811	16,006,454.1	803	15,407,386.5
	Not optd.	1,652	14,862,430.0	1,588	14,971,767.0

Kind of mineral		1930 No. of mine-lots	1930 Area	1931 No. of mine-lots	1931 Area
Metal	Operated	401	6,394,261.4	343	5,873,435.5
	Not optd.	1,877	12,224,045.0	1,837	11,464,541.1
Phosphorus	Operated	2	13,374.4	1	3,926.5
	Not optd.	5	18.648.0	5	22,571.3
Graphite	Operated	3	46,764.0	4	50,498.5
	Not optd.	15	68.745.8	14	53,168.9
Coal	Operated	508	13,515,299.3	481	12,714,854.5
	Not optd.	1,038	11,963,661.7	963	10,855,070.2
Lignite	Operated	100	619,281.8	101	598,206.5
	Not optd.	110	381,805.7	103	352,474.6
Petroleum	Operated	130	1,399,318.4	128	1,442,001.1
	Not optd.	285	1,022,905.4	274	866,651.9
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	9	118,305.0	9	116,284.0
	Not optd.	5	7,344.0	3	2,959.0
Sulphur	Operated	31	194,107.0	30	213,856.5
	Not optd.	98	364,766.0	101	388,160.1
Other non-metals	Operated	2	24,750.0	2	24,749.0
	Not optd.	1	10,013.3	1	10,013.3
Total	Operated	1,186	22,325,461.3	1,099	21,037,812.1
	Not optd.	3,434	26,061,934.4	3,301	24,016,610.1

Kind of mineral		1932 No. of mine-lots	1932 Area	1933 No. of mine-lots	1933 Area
Metal	Operated	389	6,210,175.4	481	7,134,619.7
	Not optd.	1,750	11,210,554.1	1,649	10,253,456.5
Phosphorus	Operated	1	3,926.5	2	13,374.4
Graphite	Not optd.	5	22,571.4	6	60,475.7
	Operated	3	45,308.5	3	45,308.5
	Not optd.	13	51,270.0	12	40,890.7
Coal	Operated	456	12,298,637.5	488	12,549,253.3
	Not optd.	970	10,867,332.2	935	10,670,004.6
Lignite	Operated	103	644,101.3	99	627,782.4
	Not optd.	100	362,063.4	102	359,412.0
Petroleum	Operated	119	1,247,916.7	124	1,446,184.0
	Not optd.	266	998,875.1	263	842,514.0
Petroleum Asphalt	Operated	10	134,086.0	9	134,086.3
	Not optd.	3	2,959.0	3	2,598.9
Sulphur	Operated	32	222,651.9	35	224,807.7
	Not optd.	97	377,522.1	96	368,841.7
Other non-metals	Operated	—	—	—	—
	Not optd.	1	10,013.3	1	10,013.3

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Kind of mineral		1932 No. of mine-lots	1932 Area	1933 No. of mine-lots	1933 Area
Total	Operated	1,113	20,806,803.3	1,241	22,175,416.3
	Not optd.	3,205	23,903,160.3	3,067	22,608,207.5

PRODUCTION OF MINERALS

Kind of Ore	Unit	1931 Quantity produced	1931 Value	1932 Quantity produced	1932 Value	1933 Quantity produced	1933 Value
			yen		yen		yen
Gold	Gramme	13,363,493	17,975,954	12,469,285	25,924,770	13,701,200	33,790,368
Gold dust	,,	9,840	10,614	27,881	48,186	27,390	55,634
Platinum-dust	,,	8,559	37,496	8,272	26,896	6,424	39,901
Silver	,,	173,765,205	3,598,709	163,625,358	5,386,849	185,610,259	8,037,277
Silver dust	,,	—	—	981	26	—	—
Copper	Kg.	75,848,181	33,627,912	71,876,556	39,120,840	69,032,756	50,771,985
Lead	,,	4,069,853	557,617	6,414,643	1,071,842	6,824,687	1,357,829
Bismuth	,,	56,652	266,565	47,646	212,025	57,100	382,570
Tin	,,	1,015,196	1,036,916	1,002,280	1,601,074	964,800	2,758,522
Tin dust	,,	84	99	164	295	420	1,399
Tin ore	Metric ton	839	540,832	829	862,157	855	1,850,230
Antimony sulphide	Kg.	1,700	150	—	—	1,200	300
Antimony ore	,,	—	—	67	6,369	184	13,126
Mercury	Metric ton	3,504	17,838	2,384	11,202	8,077	37,156
Zinc	,,	25,407,089	4,471,742	27,034,432	6,032,611	30,657,632	9,746,556
Cast iron	,,	156,831	4,936,978	165,332	5,149,221	244,149	11,015,524
Steel	Metric ton	58,853	2,942,650	71,629	4,297,740	128,933	11,603,970
Iron pyrites	,,	560,372	6,091,169	726,073	7,514,695	903,129	9,974,995
Chromite	,,	9,727	293,072	12,492	356,581	19,897	714,688
Manganese ore	,,	2,917	62,191	5,419	167,592	10,845	325,070
Dioxide Metal	,,	9,932	108,712	20,823	209,722	32,690	418,911
Scheelite ore	,,	52	20,483	20	6,945	29	17,624
Arseneous acid	Kg.	2,588,093	201,193	2,637,408	273,633	2,375,092	383,579
Phosphate rocks	Metric ton	21,148	204,247	18,757	213,372	34,742	414,034
Graphite	,,	295	13,448	495	18,300	869	44,270
Coal	,,	27,987,271	151,949,901	28,053,375	141,976,783	32,523,746	195,467,264
Atan*	,,	117,741	538,655	108,532	464,513	115,788	559,703
Crude Petroleum							
Crude Oil	hl.	3,057,662	8,356,850	2,534,966	7,509,873	2,255,655	8,958,927
Gasoline	100 cm.	766,159	1,405,931	512,660	892,955	419,176	821,797
Sulphur	Metric ton	61,499	3,166,177	84,530	4,616,084	114,426	7,500,318
Sulphur ore	,,	2,230	18,614	2,633	24,218	2,700	29,340
Sulphuric acid	,,	90,414	949,345	93,040	781,539	115,832	1,141,786
Total		—	281,584,811	—	254,781,908	—	358,240,658

* Brown or soft lignite.

Mining of Metals

Gold The removal of the gold embargo was effected in January, 1930, and the outflow of specie during that year reached ¥300,000,000. There was no sign of the outflow abating in the following year, and in consequence the specie holding of the Bank of Japan dwindled to a very low ratio. All these adverse conditions gave rise to demands for the encouragement of gold producing enterprises among the people and resulted in the establishment of a Central Refinery Station (Chuo Seirensho) and of other means for conducting research work. As regards financial assistance extended to the enterprisers, it was so arranged that the Bank of Japan should advance low-interest loans against the mortgaging of the gold produced. The suspension of the gold standard by

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Britain in September, 1931, greatly influenced the financial atmosphere of this country, the effect of which was to augment the outflow of gold and intensify the tendency, which had become rampant throughout the country, of cornering and hoarding the metal.

With the installation of the Seiyukai Cabinet in December, 1931, gold exports were prohibited and an unprecedented depreciation of the yen and appreciation of gold in inverse ratio took place.

Stimulated by various measures of encouragement, as has been said elsewhere, the production of gold was increased by 9.9% as compared with 1932, despite the fact that the gold refineries, the construction of which was started on the receipt of bounties, were still but half completed. The production in 1933 was 13,701,200 gm. at ¥33,790,368 against 12,469,285 gm. at ¥25,924,770 in the previous year. Chosen produced 11,508,165 gm. and Taiwan, 652,139 gm. in the same year. Gold is mostly refined by two large companies of Nihon Mining Co., Ltd. and Mitsubishi Mining Co., Ltd. The former has its smelteries at Hidachi in Ibaraki and Saganoseki in Oita, and produce about 200 kan a month. In addition to the old gold mine in Sado Island Mitsubishi has an alluvial gold mine at Kintei in Korea, which is producing from 20 to 30 kilogrammes of gold per month. The Kōnomai (in Iwami, Hokkaido) Refinery, which was under construction since 1932, was completed in October, 1933, its capacity being 20,000 metric tons per month. At Taifu, Oita, a refinery with a capacity of 1,500 metric tons per month was completed. Amoh, of Gifu, and Kushikino, and Yamagano, of Kagoshima, have all extended their refineries. At Mitsui-sanru (Teshio, Hokkaido), Amanuma (Gumma), Naguri (Saitama), Oshima (Yamanashi), and Amagi (Shizuoka) built new refineries. In each of the following mines a new refinery will before long be completed: Tsugaru (Aomori), Kuromori (Iwate), Matsukawa (Fukushima), Tajima (Hyogo), Katsuka (Kagoshima), and Suzumino and Hoshino (Fukuoka).

Gold bullion is sold to the Bank of Japan or disposed of in the open market. For quantity and value of production see table "Production of Minerals" above. How the quantities were disposed of is shown below:

Year	Sold to Bank of Japan		Placed on the Market		Market Price (yen)	Remarks
	Quantity (grammes)	Percentage	Quantity (grammes)	Percentage	(momme)	
1927	—	—	8,029,866	100	5.151	
1928	—	—	8,903,297	100	5.345	
1929	411,641	4.6	8,560,028	95.4	5.343	
1930	4,853,628	43.8	6,223,567	56.2	5.040	Gold ban lifted in Jan., 1930.
					(Grammes)	
1931	7,693,306	62.7	4,572,251	37.3	1.366	Gold export prohibited Dec., 1931.
1932		12,721,000	(both together)		2.107	
1933	—	—	—	—	2.687	

According to a statement issued by the Ministry of Finance, gold purchases by the Bank of Japan for the period from April, 1934, to January 15, 1935, were as follows:

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GOLD PURCHASES BY THE BANK OF JAPAN

1934	Quantity Purchased (Grammes)	Value (in ¥1,000)
April	2,704,140	7,977
May	4,269,538	12,595
June	1,896,787	5,595
July	1,071,645	3,161
August	1,187,592	3,503
September	2,133,516	3,843
October	1,663,396	4,907
November	1,566,769	4,621
December	1,502,434	4,432
Total	16,995,819	50,137
1935		
January (up to the 15th inclusive)	639,088	1,947
Aggregate	17,634,908	52,084
Quantity transferred from the Treasury	13,955,539	34,651
Grand total	31,590,448	86,736

The purchase price was ¥2.871 per gramme in 1934. It was raised to ¥3.090 in Feb., 1935.

Silver Affected by the bounds and leaps in the silver quotations in foreign markets and on account of the close relationship of silver with gold smeltering the production of silver increased too, the 1933 production showing 185,610,259 grammes at ¥8,037,277 against 163,625,358 grammes at ¥5,386,849 in the previous year, the quantitative increase percentage being 13%.

Tin Only about one-third of the total demand is being met by home products. To be exact 964,800 kg. was produced at home in 1933 against the total home consumption of 4,471,900 kg., leaving a balance of 3,507,100 to be imported. This import showed a slight increase compared with the previous year. Meantime, a little setback occurred in the home production, being 964,800 kg. in 1933 as against 1,002,280 kg. in 1932.

Osaka Tin Refinery Guild was established in October, 1933. The reproduced tin put out by the members of the guild became such an important factor that its manufacture came to be designated as one of the principal industries by the Government in November, 1934. The sales of the product have been well regulated after the formation of the guild. Before the guild was organized the product contained a good deal of impurities and the production was only two or three hundred tons. As the time went on the technique of refining improved and the production in 1934 went up to five hundred tons. All the product is consumed in the domestic market.

Iron and Steel The record of iron and steel in the recent years was that of expansion. In 1931 the total production of pig iron was 917,342 metric tons, which increased to 1,010,761 metric tons in 1932 and 1,423,889 metric tons in 1933. The same trend of expansion was seen in the incoming shipments, increasing from 494,575 metric tons in 1931 to 650,380 metric tons in 1932 and to 801,283 metric tons in 1933, the aggregate supply being 1,411,917 metric tons in 1931, 1,661,141 metric tons in 1932 and 2,225,172 metric tons in 1933. The same trend is found in the steel production, which increased from 1,662,858 metric tons in 1931 to 2,113,637 metric tons in 1932 and 2,863,155 metric tons in 1933. The incoming shipments of steel materials in the same period were 265,548 metric tons, 235,165 metric tons and 409,861 metric tons according to the order of the aforesaid three years.

Copper Production of copper, unlike those of tin, lead, zinc, or aluminium, was comparatively large in Japan, occupying an important position among metal industries, especially in arms industries. Copper industry developed rather early in Japan. Its production in 1876 was

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less than 4,000 tons, but Japan was then known throughout the world as the second largest copper producing country, exporting one half of her product. But with the Great War as the turning point, her position as copper exporting country became less important, for new copper beds were discovered in Chile and Congo. Japan then came to occupy the fourth position in the production of copper, and has been compelled to become an importer, the quantity imported increasing every year.

Demanded as an indispensable requisite in the munition manufacturing industries its brisk tone was maintained throughout the year 1933. A noteworthy thing was that, while the 1933 production dropped to 69,032,756 kg. against 71,876,557 kg. in the previous year, its production value which was ¥50,771,985 was higher by ¥11,651,145 compared with ¥39,120,840 of 1932. The copper market in Japan was long under influences of New York and London markets. But since the second half of 1932, owing to the depression of Yen and the increased tariff, it began to regain an independent position of foreign influences. This was well seen in the firm tone of price at home, despite that in foreign markets there occurred an unprecedented decline. The price range was firm at ¥82-83 per kilogramme in August, compared with the ¥70 level in the earlier months of the year, but following the recovery of exchange rates it underwent a setback toward the end of the year, the lowest quotation being ¥72. The average in the year was 21% higher than in 1932. The exports of copper reached 8,512,100 kg. in 1933; 23,121,600 kg. in 1932; and 26,603,200 kg. in 1931, while the imports 17,617,700 kg. in 1933; 1,966,600 kg. in 1932; and 2,019,900 in 1931.

The increasing tendency in the demand was continued during 1934, and the import in the first half of the year reached over 5,000 tons every month. To meet the enhanced demand copper mines extended their equipments, the most important being the improvement of the furnace at Naoshima refinery of the Mitsubishi Mine, the extension of Saga refinery of the Nippon Mine, and opening of a new shaft at Ashio Mine of the Furukawa interests.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF COPPER (kilogrammes)

	Production	Import	Total	Export	Home Consumption
1931	75,848,181	2,019,900	77,868,081	26,603,200	51,264,881
1932	71,876,557	1,966,600	73,843,157	23,121,600	50,721,557
1933	69,032,756	17,617,700	86,650,456	8,512,100	78,138,356
1934	32,802,000 (up to June)				

With the development of the machine industry, the demand for copper remarkably increased in 1934, and import in the first half of the year reached 32,802 tons.

Lead The home production of lead barely satisfies 10% of the aggregate demand. In 1933 the total home production was 6,824,687 kg. and the import was 67,254,300 kg. The home consumption increased from 62,368,343 kg. in 1932 to 74,078,987 kg. in 1933, indicating the growing demand for the metal as the industrial activities expand. At Hosokura (Miyagi prefecture) and Nibukoiwa (Fukushima prefecture) new refineries were constructed. At the Budo mine (Niigata prefecture) an electric-refinery was being built.

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Zinc The origin and development of zinc mining in Japan is of comparatively recent date. In 1900, a Swiss clock firm, seeing bright prospects of developing the industry, purchased many zinc mines in the country and began exporting the metal. From this time the industry developed, the number of men engaged in mining increased, and the exportation of zinc grew in proportion.

Along with the development of other industries there has been an advance in zinc smelting. With increased demand during the World War, production and exports increased, the quantity produced in 1917 reached 54,700 metric tons, and smelting furnaces numbered 16. From the slump of 1920 and the depression which followed it, the industry received a heavy blow. Most of the furnaces were shut down, and only those in Miiké, Takata, and Hiroshima were able to weather the storm. The last named has been especially successful in manufacturing sulphuric acid with the sulphur separated from zinc ores.

Zinc ores in Japan exist mainly in igneous and aqueous rocks. They seldom exist independently, sometimes being found mixed with lead ores. The principal ore which yields zinc is zinc sulphide, some of the best of which contains about 67% of zinc and 33% sulphur. Ordinary ores contain 40-55% of zinc and 24 to 28% of sulphur. The principal places of production are as follows:

Kamioka	Kozan in Gifu	Prefecture	
Budé	,,	,, Niigata	,,
Ikuno	,,	,, Hyogo	,,
Yasuda	,,	,, Nagasaki	,,
Hosokura	,,	,, Miyagi	,,
Kanayama	,,	,, Wakayama	,,
Wanibuchi	,,	,, Shimané	,,
Sasu	,,	,, Nagasaki	,,

Ginya and Maden Kozen in Heiando, Korea
Mimuné Kozan in Keiando, Korea.

The production, import, export, and consumption of zinc follow:

Year	Production		Imports	Exports	Consumption
	Quantity produced	Value			
	kg.	yen	kg.		kg.
1927	17,497,747	6,157,601	31,638,600	—	49,136,347
1928	19,116,950	6,339,605	41,173,500	—	60,290,450
1929	22,099,129	7,197,563	33,287,900	—	55,377,029
1930	24,669,224	6,042,068	27,357,400	—	52,026,624
1931	25,407,089	4,471,742	24,633,600	—	50,040,789
1932	27,043,432	6,032,611	26,571,600	—	52,615,032
1933	30,657,632	9,746,995	32,525,600	—	63,183,232

The production gain in quantity in 1933 over the preceding year was 3,614,200 kilogrammes (13%) and that in the money value was ¥3,713,945 (61.6%)

Iron and Steel Industry

Down to the Meiji Era The art of iron smelting is said to have been known even in prehistoric times in Japan, but no reliable record can be found. The granites found in large quantities in the Chugoku districts, i. e. Okayama, Hiroshima, Tottori, and Shimané prefectures were found to contain a good percentage of magnetite iron from which iron dust was extracted. These places became famous for their iron products and swordsmiths. In the middle of the 19th century, there were as many as 300 smelting works in these districts, but before the Restoration the utility of iron was not well realized and the demand for it was naturally

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small. Therefore, the iron and steel industry in its modern garb can be said to have begun with the Restoration.

Since the Restoration Early in the Meiji Era, mines were mostly operated by the Government. As the iron and steel industry was considered very important from a military standpoint the Government placed Kamaishi mine in Iwaté prefecture, under its direct management, and established there some smelting works with foreign experts called from abroad. In 1879, two furnaces with capacity of 25 tons each were installed, but, owing to a shortage of raw materials and fuels the enterprise failed.

After the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895, the necessity of establishing the iron and steel industry for manufacturing war supplies was very keenly felt, and the Yawata Iron Works was established in 1886. Owing to the increased demand for iron and steel by various expanding industries the Yawata Works were extended in 1906 and again in 1911.

Private iron and steel works have since been established in rapid succession. In 1905, Suzuki Shoten of Kobé established Kobé Seikojo, and in 1907, Nippon Seikojo was established in Muroran with English and Japanese capital. In 1912, Nippon Kokan Kaisha, Ltd., was established, while in Manchuria, Honkeiko Baitetsu Koshi was established in 1910 on joint account of Japan and China.

These iron and steel works expanded tremendously during the World War, and production increased with marvellous rapidity. The 1913 production of pig iron was 240,000 metric tons while the 1918 production had increased to 583,000 tons. During the same period the production of steel increased from 255,000 tons to 537,000 tons. The Mitsubishi Co. established their Iron Works in Kenjiho, Korea, about this time.

Perhaps the iron and steel industry received a heavier blow than any other from the slump of 1920, a blow that was intensified by the decisions reached at the Disarmament Conference of 1921. The price of pig iron fell from ¥541 per ton, the highest price, in July of 1918 to ¥65 per ton in 1921, steel bars fell from ¥451 to ¥132, and steel sheets from ¥1,285 to ¥199. Twelve pig iron manufacturing companies, four steel manufacturers and six steel materials manufacturing companies went out of business. Many small companies were amalgamated with or absorbed by bigger ones, until at present the whole iron and steel industry is controlled by a few powerful houses, Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Okura, Asano and Okawa.

Many new industries were started during the Great War and as they progressed their demand for iron and steel expanded. Production increased to meet this demand and the 1923 output was greater than at any time during the Great War. The industry received blows from the great earthquake of 1923 and the financial panic of 1927, but with the finances of the largest concerns of the country behind it readjustments were soon made and as demand increased the industry steadily developed.

Iron Manufacturing Industry in 1933

The latter half of 1932 witnessed a brisk tone in the iron and steel manufacturing industry, owing evidently to such new factors as the activities in the munition and heavy industries, the depreciation in the exchange, tariff revisions, etc. This brought about a record demand for 3,270,000 metric tons of steel products. This surpassed the 1928 record of 2,800,000 tons. With pig iron, too,

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there was a large increase in demands. Consequently, seven furnaces were in full operation in 1933 with a total annual capacity of about 800,000 metric tons. New steel manufacturing hearths and compressors were installed and many equipments were added and perfected.

The 1933 pig iron production was estimated at 1,420,000 metric tons, exclusive of 160,000 metric tons of Chosen and about 430,000 metric tons of Manchoukuo, which represented 64% of the total home consumption and 92% when the aforesaid production of Chosen and Manchoukuo was added. As for steel, whose production of the year was 2,860,000 metric tons, it covered nearly all home demand. In the year under review an epoch-making event took place in the steel and iron manufacturing industries of the country. It was the organization of the Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha under the newly enacted Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha (Japan Iron Manufacturing Co., Ltd.) Law, with an objective of ensuring self-satisfaction of iron and steel. The new corporation is, in addition to the Yawata Iron Works, composed of 6 iron and steel manufacturing corporations with an aggregate capital stock of ¥359,821,000. This is the sum total of capital of the component corporations plus ¥151,000 newly subscribed in the open market.

In this connection a few words should be added as to the supply of iron and steel from Manchoukuo. The Manchurian incident in 1931 marked a turning point in the industrial relations of Japan with Manchuria. One of the most important events that took place since then was the separation of the Anshan Iron Works from the South Manchuria Railway Company as from June 1, 1933, and the Works became affiliated to the Showa Steel Works. The production estimates of the Showa Steel Works after March, 1935, in which month all the extension projects will be completed are estimated as follows:

Pig iron	180,000	metric tons
Steel materials	200,000	" "
Rails and big scales	70,000	" "
Small scales	33,000	" "
Black sheets	30,000	" "

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF IRON ORES IN JAPAN PROPER

(in metric tons)

Year	Amount produced	Amount imported	Amount imported from Colonies	Amount exported to Colonies	Demand	Percentage of production to demand
1928	157,706	1,616,974	225,389	—	2,000,069	8%
1929	177,556	1,944,786	314,134	4,299	2,432,177	7
1930	245,991	1,973,659	278,727	2,466	2,495,911	10
1931	208,181	1,549,919	176,585	5,176	1,929,509	11
1932	226,722	1,482,409	151,603	4,200	1,860,734	12
1933	320,670	1,523,627	255,320	5,600	2,099,617	15
1934 (estimate)	350,000	2,132,001	—	—	—	—

Pig Iron Pig iron is produced by Nippon Seitetsu Kabushiki Kaisha (Japan Iron Manufacturing Company). Coke is mostly used in its production, the amount produced with charcoal being so small that it is hardly worth mentioning. The amount of production classified according to the mode of production and raw materials from which it is produced is as follows:

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Year	From iron ore with coke	From iron ore with charcoal	Reproduced	From ores	Total
1927	884,341	—	10,905	925	896,171
1928	1,077,065	381	14,287	853	1,092,536
1929	1,065,908	2,000	19,138	82	1,087,128
1930	1,136,853	241	24,748	57	1,161,894
1931	896,445	—	20,897	—	917,342
1932	998,447	1,253	15,837	224	1,010,761
1933	1,408,502	—	19,924	463	1,423,889

During the war, Japan had the bitter experience of having her supplies of iron and steel cut off from Great Britain and the United States of America, and in view of this the Nippon (then Yawata) Works has steadily extended its production capacity. The 1930 production was 2.5 times that of 1919.

Japan requires about 1,500,000 tons of pig iron every year. Her own production is not enough to meet this requirement and the shortage is filled by importing from Korea, Manchoukuo and India.

PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON IN JAPAN AND MANCHOUKUO (in metric tons)

Year	Production in Japan Proper	Production in Korea	Production in Manchoukuo	Total
1928	1,092,536	146,159	284,675	1,523,370
1929	1,087,128	153,627	295,380	1,536,135
1930	1,161,894	349,415	150,524	1,661,833
1931	917,342	147,257	342,270	1,406,869
1932	1,010,761	161,940	368,181	1,540,882
1933	1,423,889	161,163	433,523	2,018,575

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF PIG IRON IN JAPAN (in metric tons)

	1930	1931	1932	1933
Production in Japan Proper	1,161,894	917,342	1,010,761	1,423,889
Imports from Cieolons, Manchoukuo, and India total supply	515,261	494,575	650,380	801,283
	1,661,141	1,411,917	1,660,489	2,225,170
Exports to Colonies	652	2,551	652	437
Demand in the country	1,660,489	1,409,366	1,661,141	2,224,733
Percentage of production to demand	61%	65%	61%	64%

Steel and Steel Materials Steel ingots are produced mostly from pig iron, principally by the open-hearth process. The Bessemer process is sometimes employed by small mills, but the number of mills which use either this or the crucible method is small. Recently the electric process of production has been gaining ground. The amount of steel produced by different methods are shown below.

PRODUCTION OF STEEL INGOTS (in metric tons)

Method of production	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Open hearth	1,569,552	1,863,391	2,238,198	2,225,451	1,828,823	2,325,306	3,456,347
Bessemer	87,998	3,340	1,210	35	—	940	—
Electric	26,517	37,748	52,654	62,140	52,765	69,740	137,600
Crucible	1,175	1,503	1,778	1,711	1,537	2.296	2,192
Total	1,685,242	1,905,980	2,293,840	2,289,337	1,883,125	2,398,282	3,596,139

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PRODUCTION OF STEEL MATERIALS
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS (in metric tons)

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Round bars	460,837	552,107	683,841	483,556	467,333	568,446	846,997
Square ,,	208,001	253,227	255,553	250,753	202,509	252,402	331,439
Thin plates	349,460	434,730	543,948	570,603	560,056	608,893	747,138
Steel pipes	50,491	64,460	78,492	88,336	68,491	95,890	117,287
Rails and fish plates	178,561	213,064	271,324	289,696	110,338	233,502	271,982
Wire rods	54,426	57,589	68,471	122,428	176,561	215,250	285,013
Black sheet	—	—	—	—	—	—	35,989
Others	33,783	48,740	26,048	31,709	21,513	36,724	53,110
Total	1,335,559	1,623,917	1,927,677	1,837,081	1,601,800	2,011,107	2,688,955
Wrought Steel materials	25,475	31,968	38,450	26,895	16,595	31,917	63,709
Cast steel	43,145	48,675	49,224	38,661	30,532	42,684	61,043
Special steel materials	10,942	15,929	18,529	18,429	13,931	27,929	49,448
Grand total	1,415,121	1,720,489	2,033,880	1,921,066	1,662,858	2,113,637	2,863,155

The annual requirement of steel materials in Japan is about 2,000,000 tons. Though the production in the country has greatly increased of late a quite appreciable quantity is still imported. The following statistics show how the demand is met.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF STEEL MATERIALS (in metric tons)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Production	1,720,489	2,033,880	1,921,066	1,662,858	2,113,637	2,863,155
Amount imported	824,237	790,058	437,103	265,548	235,165	409,862
Total supply	2,545,226	2,823,938	2,358,169	1,928,406	2,348,802	3,273,017
Amount exported	181,944	203,771	238,580	203,547	299,867	435,297
Home consumption	2,363,282	2,620,167	2,124,589	1,724,859	2,048,935	2,837,720
Percentage of production to consumption	73	78	90	96	103	101

Coal Mining

Coal surpasses all other mineral products both in quantity and money value, the 1933 production being 32,523,746 metric tons at ¥195,467,264. This production, compared with 28,053,375 metric tons in 1932, showed an increase of 4,470,371 metric tons (15.9%) and its money value, compared with ¥141,976,783 in 1932, an increase of ¥53,490,481 (37.7%). Prior to August, 1932, the coal industry was among the most depressed in the country. The total stock in warehouses was always up to somewhere about 3 million metric tons. The agreement entered into among coal miners for the restriction of its production had been rigidly in force. The imports of Fushun coal in an unrestricted quantity, however, caused them to take a concerted action in order to influence the authorities to bring pressure upon the South Manchuria Railway Company so as to restrict its shipments of coal to Japan. Such was the situation in which the coal industry in Japan found itself when in September in that year the turn for prosperity set in. This was made possible by great activities in the manufacturing industries, aided with the increased foreign trade due to the depreciated

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yen. The whole coal stock, therefore, rapidly diminished and the price jumped upward. Meantime, the Showa Coal Company, Ltd., an organ for the sales unification of coal, was satisfactorily organized toward the close of 1932. The year 1933 was a really prosperous year for the coal industry. As was shown in the above the coal production in that year was an unprecedented one in recent years and the whole stock was at the end of April reduced to 950,000 metric tons, below the normal stock of 1,500,000 metric tons as agreed on among the miners. It was natural, therefore, that they now began to complain of the ban put upon production. So the Coal Miners' Association took action and decided to permit the increase of production of about 1,400,000 tons over the 1932 basis of 18,750,000 tons. But this extension of the restriction limit proved too small and, through force of demand, the aggregate production exceeded further by 220,000 tons within the first half of 1933. This limit, however, was still too small in view of the incessantly increasing demand, wherefore the Federation was forced to further extend the limit at three different times since July and to permit the production of 3 million tons more in aggregate. The inward shipments of Manchurian coal was at the same time allowed to be increased by 1,325,000 tons. Coal producers not belonging to the Federation did also their utmost to meet the new situation. Despite all these efforts for the increase in production the reserved stock did not exceed 1,000,000 tons and so the market continued its firm tone. The 1933 demand for coal was estimated at 35,400,000 tons, the highest record ever seen in Japan. The estimated demand showed an increase of about 5,500,000 tons, compared with the previous year. That the incoming shipments from Manchoukuo was not as great as had been desired was due to the increased demand for the commodity in Manchoukuo itself. Details follow:

	1933	1932
Coal actually marketed	32,442,000	28,053,000
Coal imported	3,441,000	2,673,000
Coal stocks at the beginning of	1,848,000	2,250,000
Total coal output	37,371,000	32,976,000
Coal exported	1,536,000	1,366,000
Coal stocks at the endof	1,226,000	1,848,000
Coal demand in Japan Proper	34,969,000	29,762,000

Japan's coal production since 1912 follows:

(In 1,000 metric tons)

1912	19,639	1913	21,815	1914	22,293
1915	20,490	1916	22,910	1917	26,361
1919	28,029	1919	31,271	1920	29,245
1921	26,220	1922	27,701	1923	28,948
1924	30,110	1925	31,459	1926	31,426
1927	33,530	1928	33,860	1929	34,257
1930	31,376	1931	27,987	1932	28,053
1933	32,523	1934	37,200		

Business results of the coal-mining companies in recent five years were:

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	No. of companies	Authorized capital	Reserve fund
1928	105	¥386,413,700	¥26,868,288
1929	100	368,593,200	30,326,664
1930	88	343,913,200	30,975,007
1931	87	365,800,700	30,149,827
1932	88	352,510,700	29,692,489

	Profit	Dividend	Net loss
1928	¥11,711,498	¥7,142,008	¥13,011,829
1929	12,706,871	8,568,725	3,093,942
1930	8,351,933	6,449,626	18,212,362
1931	4,424,070	4,183,180	5,654,419
1932	4,674,374	3,826,245	9,514,950

Coal Deposits No survey of coal resources was undertaken between the years 1911 and 1931, but in the latter year the Mining Bureau of the Department of Commerce and Industry commenced a survey which took 2 years to complete. The results, compared with the 1911 survey, are:

	Investigation in 1932				
	Anthracite Natural Coal	Bituminous Coal	Lignite	Total	Percentage
Amount, already mined	29,888	984,130	6,965	1,020,483	5%
Amount, unminable	39,332	991,673	18,859	1,049,864	6%
Amount, minable	718,782	15,499,091	473,460	16,671,333	89%
Percentage	4%	93%	3%	100%	
Amount minable					
Actual deposits	454,745	5,439,905	65,765	5,960,415	36%
Probable deposits	131,944	3,780,975	132,582	4,045,501	24%
Possible deposits	132,093	6,278,211	275,113	6,685,417	40%

	Investigation in 1911			
	Coal	Lignite	Total	Percentage
Amount, already mined	283,200	—	283,200	3%
Amount, unminable	—	—	—	
Amount, minable	8,792,000	347,570	9,139,450	100%
Percentage	86%	4%	100%	
Amount minable				
Actual deposits	822,000	75,770	897,770	10%
Probable deposits	2,940,000	205,000	3,145,000	34%
Possible deposits	5,030,000	66,700	5,096,700	56%

Note: "Amount unminable" indicates the deposits, such as portions between pits, officially prohibited regions and where no pick is allowed.
"Probable deposits" as judged geologically and from conditions of coal seams and which can be presumed as available in future.
"Possible deposits" represent the deposits imagined to be there and are the most uncertain of all.

Petroleum

Production The home yield of crude oil until about 1916 was approximately 2,600,000 koku, by no means sufficient to satisfy domestic demand. Notwithstanding every yearly increase in demand output was unable to keep pace with it so that by 1927 domestic production was only able to satisfy 25% of the home consumption. The percentage has since increased and in 1932 was about 44%.

According to investigations conducted by the Nippon Petroleum Oil Company, the most important producer of crude oil, wells with a daily output of 20 kilolitres (approximately 111 koku) and over numbered no more than the following 7.

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Location	Name of well	Date	Depth	Daily output during 10 days after successful date
Kashiwazaki	Warimachi Ro Style No. 3	Jan. 6	1,240 metres	24.60 kilolitres
,,	Warimachi Ro Style No. 20	Feb. 11	1,246 ,,	27.13
,,	Takamachi Ro Style No. 35	April 2	1,240 ,,	22.50
,,	Takamachi Ro Style No. 36	April 24	1,240 ,,	34.08
,,	Warimachi Ro Style No. 27	May 14	1,255 ,,	30.45
,,	Warimachi Ro Style No. 14	June 11	1,325 ,,	32.88
,,	Warimachi Ro Style No. 36	July 20	1,264 ,,	60.60

Demand and Supply One of the most conspicuous features in the oil production for the three years, 1931-1933 inclusive, was the marked increase in the use of foreign crude oil in the manufacture of heavy oil, 205,310 hl., 507,623 hl., and 1,062,168 hl. being the amount so manufactured in the three respective years. In sharp contrast to it the supply of the heavy oil manufactured out of home crude oil decreased in the same three years from 593,640 hl. to 214,203 hl. As for the import of foreign oil, heavy oil headed the list which amounted to 14,292,801 hl. in 1933 as against 13,709,507 hl. in 1932 and 11,806,000 hl. in 1931. Next comes gasolene, which amounted in 1933 to 4,625,860 hl. against 4,401,440 hl. in 1932, and 3,997,620 hl. in 1931. Korosene dropped in the three years from 635,810 hl. to 576,510 hl. The same tendency was seen in machine oil, which decreased from 376,610 hl. to 241,140 hl. In the aggregate the importation of foreign oil increased in the three years under review from 16,017,090 hl. to 18,459,940 hl. Below are given detailed figures on the supply and demand of oil :

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OIL (in hl.)

Classification	Year	Production			Imports
		From home oil	From foreign oil	Total	
Gasolene Oil	1931	799,680	2,134,980	2,934,610	3,997,620
	1932	628,474	3,105,810	3,734,284	4,401,440
	1933	394,737	3,533,429	3,928,166	4,625,860
Kerosene Oil	1931	209,880	403,870	613,750	635,810
	1932	244,758	579,299	824,057	700,500
	1933	208,660	589,694	798,354	576,510
Light Oil	1931	889,490	1,033,610	1,923,100	—
	1932	733,672	1,483,508	2,217,180	—
	1933	563,824	1,404,971	1,968,795	—
Machine Oil	1931	524,620	1,118,810	1,643,430	376,610
	1932	511,969	1,133,088	1,645,057	353,890
	1933	455,520	1,555,840	2,011,360	241,140
Heavy Oil	1931	593,640	205,310	798,950	11,007,050
	1932	205,354	507,623	712,977	12,996,530
	1933	214,203	1,062,168	1,276,371	13,016,430
Total	1931	3,017,310	4,896,530	7,913,840	16,017,090
	1932	2,324,227	6,809,328	9,133,555	18,452,360
	1933	1,836,944	8,146,102	9,983,046	18,459,940

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SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OIL (in hl.)

Classification	Year	Total	Exports	Balance Consumed at home	% of Production to Demand
Gasolene Oil	1931	6,932,230	—	6,932,230	42.8
	1932	8,135,724	—	8,135,724	45.9
	1933	8,554,026	—	8,554,026	45.9
Kerosene Oil	1931	1,249,560	33,570	1,215,990	50.5
	1932	1,524,557	120,140	1,404,417	58.7
	1933	1,374,864	51,000	1,323,864	60.3
Light Oil	1931	1,923,100	—	1,923,100	100.0
	1932	2,217,180	—	2,217,180	100.0
	1933	1,968,795	—	1,968,795	100.0
Machine Oil	1921	2,020,040	32,060	1,987,980	82.7
	1932	1,998,947	124,850	1,874,097	87.3
	1933	2,252,500	203,960	2,048,540	98.2
Heavy Oil	1931	11,806,000	—	11,806,000	6.8
	1932	13,709,507	—	13,709,507	5.2
	1933	14,292,801	—	14,292,801	8.9
Total	1931	23,930,930	65,630	23,865,300	33.2
	1932	27,585,915	244,990	27,340,925	33.4
	1933	28,442,986	254,960	28,188,026	35.4

Producers and Operatives

Companies engaged in Mining Industry were as follows :

Year	No. of Companies	Capital ¥	Reserve ¥	Net Profit ¥	Dividend ¥	Net Loss ¥
1923	350	969,866,645	103,111,106	34,274,972	—	9,827,836
1924	366	1,064,051,246	106,798,673	39,349,819	—	8,570,197
1925	325	1,036,396,495	111,915,601	35,901,885	25,406,558	6,804,390
1926	349	1,086,981,420	122,146,216	36,601,718	18,348,148	9,122,589
1927	363	1,096,506,935	121,941,624	41,842,808	29,969,452	18,180,059
1928	371	1,005,280,192	131,375,307	44,281,532	30,562,085	18,457,887
1929	394	1,060,690,693	116,771,370	57,316,880	34,158,518	19,019,463
1930	376	954,242,273	100,696,580	30,339,837	22,930,041	23,112,090
1931	383	961,868,883	97,793,798	19,027,144	15,651,820	15,857,406
1932	389	951,969,923	96,981,747	26,812,546	19,093,927	12,647,560
1933	427	975,954,664	96,736,497	50,605,374	31,914,230	5,509,475

Numbers, sum of paid-up capitals, reserves and profits of joint stock companies specially engaged in mining industry, and the total number of operatives employed by them, as well as both by limited and unlimited partnership companies, are as shown in the following tables :

MINING COMPANIES

(Prepared by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Kind of mining	Number	Amount invested and authorized capital	Reserves	Profits	Dividend	Net Loss
			yen	yen	yen		
1929	Metal	79	497,481,400	62,410,094	27,351,019	18,005,324	14,983,118
	Coal	100	368,593,200	30,326,664	12,706,871	8,568,725	3,093,942
	Petroleum	16	153,312,000	22,094,721	15,842,420	6,686,000	168,471
	Others	21	14,703,500	1,117,817	779,308	491,320	545,276
	Total	216	1,034,090,100	116,949,296	56,679,708	33,751,369	18,790,807
1930	Metal	85	418,158,200	45,204,067	14,417,218	10,590,850	2,150,743
	Coal	88	343,913,200	30,974,007	8,351,933	6,449,626	18,212,362
	Petroleum	16	148,162,000	22,756,567	6,406,093	5,090,500	191,715
	Others	14	14,098,500	1,068,495	726,811	472,500	1,765,808
	Total	203	924,331,900	100,003,136	29,902,055	22,603,476	22,320,628

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Year	Kind of mining	Number	Amount invested and authorized capital	Reserve	Profits	Dividend	Net Loss
1931	Metal	83	399,619,400	40,754,359	8,634,807	6,387,375	9,261,921
	Coal	87	365,800,700	30,149,827	4,424,070	4,183,130	5,654,419
	Petroleum	19	159,212,500	24,823,541	5,062,319	4,439,000	411,297
	Others	11	7,098,000	1,457,739	663,436	478,000	37,470
	Total	200	931,730,600	97,185,466	18,784,632	15,487,505	15,365,107
1932	Metal	95	402,851,850	40,684,796	15,781,911	10,298,454	2,609,100
	Coal	88	352,510,700	29,692,489	4,674,374	3,826,245	9,514,950
	Petroleum	17	159,910,000	24,663,612	5,259,157	4,229,000	120,691
	Others	18	6,440,500	1,341,871	842,798	561,000	23,900
	Total	218	921,713,050	96,382,768	26,558,240	18,914,699	12,268,699

NUMBER OF OPERATIVES ENGAGED IN MINING

At the end of June	Under 16 years			16-50 years		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1929	2,870	1,085	3,955	215,895	51,934	267,829
1930	2,224	879	3,103	200,687	41,114	241,801
1931	1,045	382	1,427	167,869	24,551	192,420
1932	759	293	1,052	158,635	19,991	178,626
1933	950	339	1,289	174,021	20,358	194,379

	Over 50 years			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1929	13,095	2,085	15,180	231,860	55,104	286,964
1930	11,925	1,640	13,565	214,836	43,633	258,469
1931	7,458	1,050	8,508	176,472	25,983	202,985
1932	5,515	647	6,162	164,909	20,931	185,840
1933	5,969	683	6,652	180,940	21,380	202,320

NUMBER OF OPERATIVES ACCORDING TO KIND OF WORKING

(At the end of June, 1933)

Kind of Mines	Working Place	Under 16 years		16-50 years	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
Metal Mines	Underground	51	—	24,163	209
	Out of ground	297	130	12,174	3,531
	Refineries	77	2	6,153	533
	Total	425	132	42,490	4,273
Coal Mines	Underground	145	39	95,845	6,416
	Out of ground	356	164	27,451	9,005
	Total	501	203	123,296	15,421
Oil Mines	Oil field	4	—	2,925	95
	Refineries	—	—	780	78
	Total	4	—	3,705	173
Other Non-Metallic Mines	Underground	5	—	2,071	62
	Out of ground	10	4	1,701	332
	Refineries	5	—	758	97
	Total	20	4	4,530	491
Grand Total	Underground	201	39	122,079	6,687
	Out of ground	667	298	44,251	12,963
	Refineries	82	2	7,691	708
	Total	950	339	174,021	20,358

		Over 50 years		Total		
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
Metal Mines	Underground	694	8	24,908	217	425,125
	Out of ground	693	216	13,164	3,877	17,041

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Kind of Mines	Working Place	Over 50 years		Total		
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
	Refineries	346	32	6,576	567	7,143
	Total	1,733	236	44,688	4,661	49,309
Coal Mines	Underground	2,446	118	98,436	6,573	105,009
	Out of ground	1,349	268	29,156	9,437	38,593
	Total	3,735	386	127,592	16,010	143,602
Oil Mines	Out of ground	147	23	3,076	118	3,194
	Refineries	51	2	831	80	911
	Total	198	25	3,907	198	4,105
Other Non-Metallic Mines	Underground	98	2	2,169	64	2,233
	Out of ground	101	9	1,812	345	2,157
	Refineries	39	5	812	102	914
	Total	243	16	4,793	511	5,304
Grand Total						
	Underground	3,233	128	125,513	6,854	132,367
	Out of ground	2,290	516	47,208	13,777	60,985
	Refineries	446	39	8,219	749	8,968
	Total	5,969	683	180,940	21,380	202,320

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

Introduction

The use of foreign-style machinery in Japan began in the Meiji Era, when cotton spinning equipment was imported from Europe and the United States. After that time the spinning industry gradually developed along modern lines, a development that was extended to weaving as well. The total capital invested in the Japanese textile industry amounts to ¥1,207,000,000, giving employment to more than 907,000 operatives, which corresponds to 47.8 per cent. of the total industrial operatives in Japan.[1] The products of spinning and weaving of all kinds account for 37 per cent. of Japan's industrial production. The total production of textiles in Japan for 1933 was ¥2,914,155,000, an increase of ¥702,067,000 over the previous year. Of this, the production of cotton yarns headed the list with ¥727,959,0000 against ¥542,810,000 of 1932, followed by cotton fabrics ¥569,708,000 against ¥366,506,000 of 1932; raw silk ¥510,166,000 against ¥439,087,000 of 1932; silk fabrics ¥208,603,000 against ¥181,258,000 of 1932; wool, wool-cotton and other mixtures ¥177,096,000 against ¥121,578,000 of 1932; and hosiery ¥62,878,000 against ¥52,320,000 of 1932. The year 1933 marked the pinnacle of Japan's fibre industry. Except raw silk, the industry was outstandingly prosperous.[2]

Japan profits about ¥200,000,000 a year from the fibre industry. The country imports ¥800,000,000 worth of raw cotton and wool as materials for fibre manufactures and exports ¥1,000,000,000 worth of fibre. These exports for 1934 were as follows:

	1934 (In ¥1,000)	Compared with 1933	
Raw silk	286,793	de.	104,108
Cotton fabrics	492,351	in.	109,136
Woollen ,,	29,848	,,	17,472
Silk ,,	77,487	,,	13,943
Rayon ,,	113,484	,,	86,103
Rayon yarns	22,399	,,	12,916
Cotton yarns	23,484	,,	7,772

The fact that it has developed to this point is in large measure due to the adaptability of the Japanese people to this special type of industry, an abundant supply of labour, favourable climatic conditions, brisk domestic consumption of cotton yarn, the propinquity to large foreign markets, the constant efforts of manufacturers, and the protective policy of the Government. The Government and private firms have co-operated in furthering technical improvement by the rationalization of production by large mills and by production control and improvement in the quality of products through the organization into industrial guilds of the smaller mills. There were, in 1932, 127 such guilds throughout the country. This development and co-operation enable Japanese mills to supply the world's markets with goods of excellent quality at reasonable prices.

According to the new factory law of 1926, the employment of

1 Figures given here and those following are for mills only which employ more than 5 operatives, unless otherwise stated.

2 For a detailed description of silk see Chapter XIV.

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minors and women during night hours was prohibited after July 1, 1929. As a result, workers are now divided into two shifts, each of 8½ hours, which means a 15 per cent. reduction in the operating hours as compared with the old system. In order to make good this loss the cotton spinning factories have been trying to increase efficiency in other ways. Two methods have been adopted. One is to improve the technical factors of operation, and the other is to improve the workers by giving them better training, and the result has been larger individual output and the replacing of lower by higher quality goods.

Statistics The number of operatives, mills, etc. for all kinds of textile industry in 1933 show an increase over those of 1932, indicating that the industry as a whole was very prosperous in that year. The following table shows these figures:

NUMBERS OF OPERATIVES, MILLS, ETC. IN TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN 1933 AS COMPARED WITH THOSE IN 1932

Kind of industry	No. of mills		No. of mills using motors		No. of officials		No. of technicians	
	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932	1933
Silk reeling	3,560	3,365	3,296	3,143	6,299	5,930	5,770	5,507
Cotton spinning	444	471	441	466	3,191	3,018	2,894	2,584
Twisted thread	1,039	1,191	1,009	1,161	361	360	219	251
Weaving	11,379	11,975	10,423	11,056	5,026	5,426	3,849	4,263
Hosiery	1,354	1,409	1,144	1,205	703	788	416	479
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	2,513	2,684	1,896	2,057	2,530	2,896	1,933	2,213
Miscellaneous	1,008	1,085	922	993	649	705	346	349
Total	21,297	22,180	19,130	20,086	18,759	19,121	15,427	15,646

Kind of industry	No. of operatives				Others		Total	
	Males		Females					
	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932	1933
Silk reeling	23,731	23,051	300,718	288,191	5,498	5,273	342,016	327,952
Cotton spinning	35,692	31,325	167,973	161,923	9,630	6,396	219,380	205,218
Twisted thread	3,464	3,844	10,929	12,476	181	197	15,154	17,128
Weaving	44,939	51,319	210,602	240,374	4,342	5,182	268,758	306,562
Hosiery	7,067	7,743	11,316	13,120	246	272	19,748	22,402
Dyeing, refining, bleaching, assorting	41,223	47,628	8,567	9,049	1,901	2,739	56,161	64,525
Miscellaneous	5,287	5,671	9,944	11,918	371	841	16,597	18,964
Total	161,408	170,581	720,051	737,050	22,167	20,373	937,814	962,771

Cotton Spinning

Recent Development

The Year 1934 Business result of mills belonging to the Japan Spinners' Association for 1934 realized some improvements over the year before. Fixed assets, net profit, dividend, reserves, and balance carried forward showed better results than for 1933. Results of member companies belonging to the Association follow:

	First term 1933	Second term 1933	First term 1934	Second term 1934
Paid capitalization	385,675	391,899	399,638	424,874
Reserves	243,549	247,875	253,486	264,537
Funded debt	128,770	124,934	116,268	131,747
Fixed assets	561,004	555,556	565,397	571,491
Applied to depreciation for term	17,416	24,282	20,325	24,858
Brought forward	30,446	45,500	36,853	53,936
Net profit or loss	30,009	32,673	35,948	37,065
Dividend	19,840	21,047	24,621	25,682
Applied to reserves	5,314	6,200	6,621	6,518
Carried forward	35,301	50,926	41,561	58,800
Average dividend	10.6	10.8	12.7	12.2

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The lowest dividend rate in recent years was 7.6 per cent. for the second half of 1929. The rate was 8.4 per cent. for the first half, 1931; 9.4 per cent. for the second half, 1931; 10 per cent. for the second half, 1932; 10.6 per cent. for the first half, 1933; and 10.8 per cent. for the second half, 1933.

Spindles, Looms, Capitalization During the last nine years Japan witnessed an increase of 3,446,000 spindles. This means an average yearly increase of 382,000 spindles and a monthly gain of 32,000 spindles. The number of spindles and looms for the last nine years and the capitalization and equipment for the past twenty-one years follow:

	Spindles (Rings)	Looms
1926	5,644,772	77,043
1927	6,079,272	78,352
1928	6,425,500	81,209
1929	6,795,502	77,898
1930	7,171,527	79,466
1931	7,498,152	77,782
1932	7,929,530	79,277
1933	8,608,608	86,343
1934	9,495,254	91,146

COTTON SPINNING PROGRESS

	Daily Average Working Spindles	Cotton Yarn Output (Bales[1])	Operatives Male	Female
1927	4,831	2,530,692	88,929	131,385
1928	4,843	2,451,862	6,353	117,697
1929	5,784	2,792,586	85,223	124,449
1930	5,897	2,524,699	80,202	108,811
1931	5,904	2,567,133	23,661	98,016
1932	6,304	2,810,437	21,154	105,651
1933	6,737	3,099,856	19,295	110,128
1934	7,502	3,472,442	18,747	122,661
January	7,040	270,985	18,529	112,006
February	7,047	273,844	18,584	113,468
March	7,093	266,872	18,553	116,079
April	7,142	283,001	18,432	120,179
May	7,253	280,452	18,455	122,928
June	7,316	286,026	18,643	123,958
July	7,543	282,541	18,697	123,335
August	7,638	290,211	18,733	123,543
September	7,691	287,569	19,052	125,177
October[2]	7,969	308,171	18,929	127,943
November	8,119	322,402	19,242	130,888
December	8,176	320,367	19,115	132,430

1 Bale=180 kilogrammes.

2 Output restriction of 23.6 per cent. enforced

SPINNERS' CAPITAL AND EQUIPMENT

Year	Cos.	Paid Cap. (000s)	Reserves (000s)	Mills	Ring Spindles	Mule Spindles	Doubling Spindles	Looms
1914	42	85,820	36,639	157	2,606,004	51,170	348,766	25,443
1915	41	86,012	38,663	161	2,754,124	53,390	355,313	30,068
1916	40	99,642	48,952	161	2,825,944	49,960	370,681	31,295
1917	43	115,623	70,037	170	3,008,568	51,910	383,458	36,181
1918	43	138,495	92,426	177	3,175,768	51,910	384,872	40,391
1919	54	165,758	139,074	190	3,435,932	52,330	410,690	44,401
1920	56	276,536	165,697	198	3,761,250	52,330	466,460	50,583
1921	61	295,648	182,041	217	4,116,616	44,510	533,384	54,994
1922	64	317,148	202,774	235	4,472,112	45,500	602,032	60,765
1923	70	376,273	217,408	241	4,422,428	14,370	510,031	64,460
1924	69	398,163	219,043	247	5,100,056	25,150	685,995	68,579
1925	64	382,715	223,531	243	5,413,094	34,090	759,632	73,381
1926	64	391,205	231,149	247	5,644,772	35,080	789,688	77,043
1927	64	391,551	238,367	257	6,079,272	36,994	787,490	78,352
1928	70	419,792	249,679	259	6,425,500	41,674	804,520	81,209
1929	70	429,415	259,757	258	6,795,502	41,014	808,324	77,898
1930	74	425,346	252,095	263	7,171,527	42,474	803,094	79,466
1931	72	398,855	240,828	263	7,498,152	36,994	801,594	77,782
1932	71	397,675	245,940	265	7,929,530	35,320	810,492	79,277
1933	69	403,899	255,398	268	8,608,608	35,320	842,808	86,343
1934	61	438,573	273,315	275	9,495,254	35,320	868,440	91,146

Note: In 1923 and in the years following, all figures include spinners not members of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association. It must be noted that the looms include only those which are owned by spinners, not embracing those in mills which have no spinning equipment.

Source: The report of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association.

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LEADING COTTON COMPANIES' BALANCE SHEETS

(000s omitted)

Term	Paid cap.	Reserves	Fixed assets	Net profit	Profit rate	Div. rate	Surplus added	Profits kept [1]
Japan Cotton Spinning								
1928b	52,000	38,900	60,323	5,398	20.7	16	233	1,233
1929a	52,000	39,900	60,442	5,329	20.6	16	169	1,169
1930b	52,000	41,426	61,144	—3,860	—	10	—6,462	—6,460
1931b	52,000	41,196	61,536	3,431	13.2	10	631	831
1932a	52,000	41,082	62,909	3,677	14.1	10	877	2,077
1932b	52,000	41,110	63,538	4,097	15.7	10	1,297	2,697
1933a	52,000	41,194	62,994	4,250	16.3	10	1,450	3,151
1933b	52,000	41,270	62,491	4,608	17.7	10	1,808	3,708
1934a	52,000	41,410	64,238	4,718	18.1	10	1,919	3,819
1934b	52,000	41,544	62,779	5,259	20.2	12	1,238	3,138
Toyo Cotton Spinning								
1927a	36,850	42,870	44,853	6,173	33.5	25	173	1,573
1927b	36,850	44,156	48,686	6,192	33.6	25	186	1,586
1928b	36,850	46,295	44,888	6,201	33.7	25	195	1,595
1929a	36,850	47,114	45,782	6,253	33.9	25	247	1,647
1930b	36,850	48,666	50,701	4,063	22.1	20	77	377
1931b	49,975	62,257	66,229	5,051	20.2	18	42	442
1932a	49,975	62,079	65,322	5,211	20.8	18	214	2,714
1932b	49,975	62,173	67,339	5,395	21.6	18	397	2,897
1933a	49,975	62,325	67,446	5,516	22.7	18	218	3,019
1933b	49,975	62,465	72,182	5,275	21.1	18	277	3,277
1934a	49,975	62,639	75,331	7,561	30.3	28	65	3,065
1934b	49,975	67,362	83,313	6,200	22.1	18	663	5,163
Kanegafuchi Cotton Spinning								
1927a	28,596	45,946	37,824	6,000	41.8	35	96	996
1927b	28,596	47,023	37,518	6,086	42.5	35	182	1,082
1928b	28,596	49,172	39,282	6,006	41.3	35	102	1,002
1929a	28,596	50,237	40,904	6,072	42.4	35	168	1,068
1930b	28,596	47,733	51,493	4,165	26.1	25	51	591
1931b	28,596	44,650	53,926	4,472	31.3	25	97	897
1932a	28,586	45,096	53,743	4,641	32.4	25	266	2,066
1932b	28,596	45,847	53,306	5,106	35.9	25	232	2,532
1933a	28,596	46,918	54,176	5,906	41.3	25	531	3,331
1933b	28,596	48,469	54,744	5,611	39.2	25	36	3,537
1934a	28,596	49,980	59,679	5,857	40.9	25	382	3,782
1934b	39,064	51,563	61,851	6,415	32.9	25	299	3,699
Fuji Gas Spinning								
1927a	34,000	9,364	49,825	295	1.7	6	—761	—725
1927b	34,000	9,214	49,689	1,695	9.9	8	135	335
1928b	34,000	9,501	50,137	1,816	10.6	8	231	456
1929a	34,000	9,610	49,797	1,868	11.0	8	260	508
1930b	34,000	9,263	50,021	—2,385	—	—	—2,385	—
1931b	34,000	7,641	49,147	1,111	6.5	5	123	161
1932a	34,000	7,720	49,042	1,474	8.7	7	103	981
1932b	34,000	7,820	48,465	1,861	10.9	8	203	1,501
1933a	34,000	8,063	48,031	2,044	12.0	8	326	1,684
1933b	34,000	8,107	47,354	2,160	12.7	8	436	1,800
1934a	34,000	8,764	47,364	2,331	13.7	8	599	1,972
1934b	34,000	4,142	47,461	2,868	16.9	10	668	2,519

1 Including allocation to depreciation.

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Nisshin Spinning

Term	Paid cap.	Reserves	Fixed assets	Net profit	Profit rate	Div. rate	Surplus added	Profits kept
1927a	16,125	4,516	21,604	1,463	18.1	16	23	173
1927b	16,125	4,595	24,050	1,459	18.0	16	16	169
1928b	16,125	4,671	25,208	1,542	19.1	16	42	252
1929a	18,293	4,828	24,838	7	—	—	—7	—7
1930b	18,300	5,246	24,652	1,055	11.5	10	30	140
1931b	18,300	5,480	23,780	1,090	11.5	10	25	175
1932a	18,300	5,465	22,898	1,295	14.1	12	37	1,297
1932b	18,300	5,590	22,537	1,378	15.1	13	13	1,288
1933a	18,300	5,732	20,825	1,424	15.5	13	64	1,434
1933b	19,749	5,811	20,244	1,484	15.0	13	31	1,401
1934a	19,750	5,897	21,818	1,832	18.5	13	68	1,748
1934b	19,750	6,345	21,340	1,961	19.8	14	59	1,979

Operatives The year 1933 saw the first expansion in the number of workers employed in weaving for some time. With more inexperienced hands on the job, the figure on operatives per 1,000 looms (including power house and other workers) rose slightly. The tendency to replace with women exaggerated this tendency. But the figure again declined in 1934.

OPERATIVES PER 1,000 LOOMS

	Male	Female	Total
1908	158.1	948.2	1,102.2
1913	142.0	959.4	1,101.4
1918	148.9	827.9	976.8
1923	166.5	765.0	931.5
1924	151.2	785.7	936.9
1925	136.1	741.4	877.5
1926	140.7	756.0	896.7
1927	132.4	659.6	792.0
1928	118.2	515.8	634.0
1929	122.4	496.6	619.0
1930	113.3	430.1	543.4
1931	90.1	357.1	447.2
1932	79.1	367.8	446.9
1933	71.5	392.3	463.8
1934	65.8	385.6	451.4

Import of Cotton

Since Japan practically does not produce any cotton, almost the whole of her requirements of ginned cotton is imported from abroad, which increases every year in quantity. The total imports in 1934 amounted to 13,525,151,000 kin, of which 6,486,727,000 kin or 47.9 per cent. was from the U. S. A., 5,792,383,000 kin or 42.7 per cent. from British India, 549,550,000 kin or 4.1 per cent. from Egypt, 330,644,000 kin or 2.4 per cent. from China and the balance from other countries. The Japanese boycotting of 1933 to purchase Indian cottons, owing to the Indian tariff action against Japanese goods, explained elsewhere in this chapter, which reduced imports from India sharply in the year, did not last long. The import from India rose once more to 42.7 per cent., while the American share fell again to 47.9 per cent. from 60 per cent. This decline of import from America was not due to a slump in price in this market, but to the more favourable price position of Indian cotton, coupled with the Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement. Under this agreement, Japan is required to purchase 1,000,000 bales a year from India, in return for which she is allowed to sell 325,000,000 yards of piecegoods in India. She may sell 1,500,000 yards more for every 10,000 bales over 1,500,000 bales of raw cotton she buys, until a total of 400,000,000 yards is reached. Purchase of 1,931,000 400-pound bales in the calendar year of 1934 gave Japan the right to sell roughly 385,000,000 yards of piecegoods in the piecegoods year which ended March, 1935.

Details follow:

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RAW COTTON IMPORTS

(In units of 100 kin or 133 pounds)

From	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
China	702,846	713,151	530,696	562,212	330,644
British India	4,725,444	4,807,479	2,741,052	3,976,857	5,792,388
Straits Settlements	697	1,608	11,966	—	609
Dutch East Indies	19,757	4,363	—	2,697	10,455
French Indo-China	—	—	450	283	60
U. S. A.	3,883,488	5,321,022	9,101,698	7,434,873	6,486,727
Egypt	182,586	287,168	330,362	280,454	549,550
Others and Total	9,543,896	11,135,402	12,713,615	12,457,818	13,525,151
Seed cotton	29,262	21,424	26,541	31,383	29,701

CONSUMPTION OF COTTON

(Compiled by the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association)

(in kilogrammes)

	Indian	American	Chinese	Egyptian	African
1923	293,759,329	133,390,616	11,626,586	9,963,244	—
1924	253,786,155	126,988,661	26,499,803	11,771,141	4,508,145
1925	288,139,808	171,020,929	21,257,723	11,770,616	3,847,395
1926	299,095,073	218,908,958	8,980,391	13,690,931	5,909,891
1927	248,207,074	252,941,265	7,128,701	14,012,775	3,723,784
1928	231,727,684	232,100,809	27,636,750	12,748,245	3,989,411
1929	291,836,453	256,534,391	13,156,298	13,905,904	5,572,560
1930	284,672,288	212,634,672	5,190,675	11,585,719	4,162,196
1931	263,497,489	255,348,623	1,179,784	14,721,146	1,132,088
1932	150,411,008	412,251,821	920,678	16,970,179	74,254
1933	209,200,192	394,741,935	3,563,944	18,438,758	5,023,702
1934	276,035,861	388,724,040	5,173,796	24,023,621	8,429,535

	Annamese	Chosen	Others	Total
1923	1,133,771	5,424,405	3,568,284	458,866,185
1924	657,799	9,199,661	2,644,800	436,056,165
1925	1,225,313	8,581,939	4,401,705	510,245,426
1926	455,123	5,630,824	3,943,530	556,614,720
1927	1,331,385	4,395,866	3,363,323	535,104,173
1928	754,478	5,013,551	3,206,689	517,177,616
1929	259,620	6,747,870	3,293,085	591,306,180
1930	876,334	9,194,138	2,871,536	531,187,558
1931	552,548	6,389,591	2,194,039	545,015,308
1932	218,708	2,292,566	3,259,450	586,398,664
1933	260,933	7,556,580	4,909,466	643,695,510
1934	583,740	7,306,260	10,634,134	720,910,987

Yarn Exports

Whether Japan has a favourable or unfavourable trade balance in cotton yarn depends not only upon prices, but also upon conditions prevailing in China. If the Chinese are boycotting Japan, they first direct their attention to the Japanese-owned mills in Shanghai and elsewhere. Such mills, when they cannot sell their products in China, send their stocks to Japan proper. Thus, the seesaw movement in Japanese yarn imports, shown in the following table, becomes understandable in the light of political as well as financial events.

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FOREIGN TRADE IN YARN

(in bales)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Exports	59,616	31,724	89,604	48,307	64,844
Imports	9,052	115,533	28,586	58,966	54,517
Favourable balance	50,564	—	61,018	—	9,327
Unfavourable balance	—	83,809	—	10,659	—

EXPORTS OF COTTON YARN

(In units of 100 kin or 133 pounds)

To	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	5,601	33,538	36,189
China	52,912	34,507	6,451	11,019	1,293	971
Kwantung	6,590	6,508	5,101	11,171	6,459	5,171
Hongkong	20,069	39,523	9,258	24,504	3,426	1,059
British India	82,542	60,118	48,596	152,966	55,296	72,955
Dutch East Indies	7,203	5,754	5,441	21,978	11,953	13,556
Philippines	5,438	3,971	4,104	2,907	1,929	3,254
Siam	245	400	153	1,114	893	1,448
Egypt	1,089	9,245	967	5,201	3,571	2,235
Others	25,178	18,822	17,106	32,235	26,458	57,645
Total	201,266	178,848	58,374	268,816	144,916	194,533
Total converted into 400 lb. bales	67,089	59,616	19,458	89,604	48,307	64,844
Under 20s (bales)	18,335	26,722	4,422	25,896	17,126	23,124
Up to 40s (bales)	11,952	11,507	2,885	23,198	6,150	7,409
Up to 60s (bales)	21,619	11,756	3,740	20,192	10,902	13,998
Others (bales)	15,183	9,630	8,411	20,316	14,125	20,318

PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF COTTON YARNS SINCE 1931

(in bales)

Year	Domestic output	Imports	Exports	Domestic consumption
1931	2,567,133.5	115,533	31,724	2,650,942.5
1932	2,810,437.0	28,586	89,604	2,749,419.0
1933	3,099,856.0	58,966	48,307	3,110,515.0
1934	3,462,442.5	54,517	64,844	3,462,116.5

Cotton Textiles

It may be safely said that to-day the Japanese cotton spinning industry is practically occupied in the manufacture of cotton textiles, and, therefore, the rise or fall of the industry depends on the growth or decline in the export of these textiles.

There are about 60 members in the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association. This organization also reports on the yarn output of 10 outsiders, which among them have but 11 mills and a paid capitalization of only ¥10,400,000. But these are all spinners, some of whom also weave. It must be remembered, however, that less than a third of cotton yarn consumed in this country is taken by the spinning mills in their cloth production. The balance goes to hundreds of little weaving plants, scattered all over the country. Some of them are one-loom sheds, worked by a family as household industry. The following table shows the output of cotton textiles by the member companies of the Japan Cotton Spinners' Association.

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COTTON CLOTH PRODUCTION BY MEMBER MILLS

Terms	Working Looms	Yards Output (000s)	Yds. per day per loom	Pounds Yarn Used (000s)	Pounds Waste (000s)	Operatives Men	Operatives Women
1919a	45,230	399,598	49.01	98,799	2,101	8,285	40,078
1919b	44,040	362,440	46.01	90,852	1,836	7,725	37,018
1926a	64,905	641,903	60.73	147,047	1,618	9,138	49,071
1926b	66,492	635,824	61.55	147,287	1,830	9,294	47,283
1927a	67,808	660,098	62.66	149,558	1,638	8,979	44,728
1927b	65,658	634,571	59.56	143,608	1,490	8,317	39,030
1928a	68,601	668,146	64.63	145,128	1,421	8,115	35,390
1928b	72,611	713,888	64.97	157,880	1,530	8,404	35,503
1929a	70,210	762,876	67.07	167,449	1,588	8,598	34,873
1929b	67,070	775,373	62.77	168,827	1,665	8,371	33,544
1930a	67,571	578,907	62.97	160,941	1,553	8,186	31,810
1930b	62,767	629,516	57.08	135,651	1,239	6,607	24,103
1931a	63,817	682,557	62.01	146,313	1,360	5,988	23,047
1931b	64,967	722,111	62.88	154,919	1,380	5,636	23,000
1932a	66,725	749,279	64.74	159,417	1,447	5,425	23,797
1932b	69,332	783,572	63.16	166,491	1,491	5,334	26,234
1933a	74,835	840,462	64.80	184,201	1,593	5,301	28,876
1933b	78,098	833,419	65.50	178,100	1,558	5,291	29,150
1934a	78,850	877,820	65.37	189,329	1,625	5,207	30,319
1934b	80,410	916,025	64.66	195,681	1,703	5,282	31,099

VALUE OF COTTON CLOTH PRODUCTION

(Prepared by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Production in value (in ¥1,000)
1924	745,828
1925	774,372
1926	743,315
1927	725,419
1928	784,634
1929	786,534
1930	498,021
1931	423,023
1932	531,915
1933	704,893

Note: Figures include production by small factories which employ less than 5 persons.

Apparently gains in efficiency have gone just about as far as they can go under present conditions and with present machinery. Conditions at present are not entirely conducive to more efficient operation, for most of the big companies are making profits and are not watching the fine details as carefully as they were forced to do not so long ago. However, there have been vast gains in the last few years and most of these are being retained.

Import of Cotton Textiles Until 1931 Japan used to buy a considerable amount of cotton cloth from abroad. This was due largely to the fact that mills in this country concentrated principally on weaves intended for the export market and did not make the finer grades of cloth. With the geographical as well as volume expansion of exports, however, markets for the fine weaves began to open up and Japan commenced to make them. The negligible size of the 1934 imports shown in the following table indicates that the market here has been all but wiped out.

Year	Volume (in 1,000 sq. yds.)	Amount (in ¥1,000)
1930	9,701	4,999
1931	11,630	4,375
1932	10,110	4,130
1933	9,077	2,754
1934	1,392	947

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IMPORTS OF COTTON CLOTH BY COUNTRIES

From:	1932 Volume (1,000 sq. yards)	1932 Value (1,000 yen)	1933 Volume (1,000 sq. yards)	1933 Value (1,000 yen)	1934 Volume (1,000 sq. yards)	1934 Value (1,000 yen)
England	4,150	2,080	2,150	1,222	1,133	736
Switzerland	5,609	1,796	26	10	174	96
U. S. A.	107	69	890	425	66	53
Others	243	185	6,033	1,097	19	62
Total	10,110	4,130	9,099	2,754	1,392	947

Export of Cotton Textiles Taking advantage of the decline in the yen exchange, the export trade manifested great activities since 1932. In particular, the export of cotton tissue has made tremendous gains in 1933 and 1934. Their chief markets are British India, Dutch East Indies, Egypt, Kwantung Peninsula, China, etc. The amount of cotton cloths exported in 1931 was 1,413,825,000 sq. yards valued at ¥198,732,000, which increased to 2,577,237,000 sq. yards valued at ¥492,351,000 in 1934, showing gains of 1,163,412,000 sq. yards or 82 per cent. in quantity and ¥293,619,000 or 148 per cent. in value.

Export of cloths to British-India has been placed under control by the Indo-Japanese Trade Agreement. The total for 1934 (including Ceylon, which is outside the pact) was about the same as that for 1933, but, since Japan shipped so much more cloths to the world, the percentage of exports to India to the total exports was lower.

EXPORTS OF COTTON CLOTH

(In 1,000 sq. yards)

To:	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Manchoukuo	—	—	8,971	91,911	170,430
China	436,409	239,445	193,623	113,248	59,443
Kwantung	45,899	37,934	88,838	86,921	83,529
Hongkong	105,974	63,450	23,406	28,692	36,292
British India	404,251	404,411	644,685	451,791	451,640
Straits Settlements	44,552	41,305	82,228	95,769	90,989
Dutch East Indies	182,865	212,107	352,234	422,755	440,870
Philippines	35,127	33,423	21,410	34,918	75,709
Siam	16,132	5,884	24,458	39,826	60,555
Turkey	20,359	25,150	41,529	11,157	7,835
United States	351	488	1,646	7,485	17,370
Chile	6,176	2,360	1,263	6,534	31,737
Argentine	7,289	10,540	22,461	34,942	66,365
Uruguay	404	490	896	2,611	9,559
Egypt	109,015	103,799	195,435	210,349	233,686
South Africa	23,686	39,033	36,316	26,101	16,173
Australia	14,153	20,939	35,992	54,999	74,547
New Zealand	830	670	1,238	2,622	2,835
Hawaii	828	813	1,152	931	903
Others	118,025	171,539	254,441	367,568	646,665
Total	1,571,825	1,413,780	2,031,722	2,090,230	2,577,237
Value (¥1,000)	272,117	198,732	288,713	383,215	492,351

EXPORTS OF TOWELS BY COUNTRIES

(In dozens)

To:	1929a	1929b	1930a	1930b	1931a	1931b
Hongkong	49,155	82,734	42,986	44,679	14,643	12,582
British India	212,715	222,656	196,897	117,227	129,460	123,357
Straits Settlements	57,016	49,931	79,858	37,360	23,647	16,411
Dutch East Indies	164,488	114,704	172,777	138,081	128,271	78,502
Siam	16,323	33,938	29,662	47,224	9,895	14,480
Egypt	57,521	44,269	31,730	39,484	65,345	35,436
Australia	40,901	74,146	76,564	74,714	65,967	63,980
Others	309,626	289,646	273,502	311,912	278,790	278,925
Total	907,745	912,124	903,976	794,813	716,018	623,673

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To:	1932a	1932b	1933a	1933b	1934a	1934b
Hongkong	1,451	14,295	12,654	18,779	37,921	108,883
British India	277,109	233,294	210,563	230,099	269,402	138,218
Straits Settlements	23,343	121,253	118,656	70,421	121,586	93,606
Dutch East Indies	230,468	297,021	217,494	236,934	178,169	220,188
Siam	11,669	142,124	73,821	110,247	53,522	122,986
Egypt	51,841	81,434	110,709	80,595	140,877	52,961
Australia	71,866	208,987	201,192	183,929	188,758	256,942
Others	280,324	531,052	532,451	629,628	740,248	778,469
Total	948,071	1,619,460	1,477,540	1,560,632	1,730,483	1,772,252

EXPORTS OF BLANKETS BY COUNTRIES

(In units of 100 kin or 133 pounds)

To:	1929a	1929b	1930a	1930b	1931a	1931b
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	—
China	1,218	3,488	1,397	2,489	703	1,261
Hongkong	2,769	5,442	3,320	8,085	2,074	2,473
British India	678	4,256	879	3,775	275	3,086
Straits Settlements	1,330	1,768	2,604	1,639	1,625	259
Dutch East Inies	2,170	1,917	2,422	3,174	2,946	1,185
Philippines	699	477	881	505	586	243
Siam	1,856	2,552	829	3,732	208	1,971
Others	2,095	2,276	1,818	4,024	2,248	1,961
Total	12,815	22,176	14,150	27,405	10,755	12,439

To:	1932a	1932b	1933a	1933b	1934a	1934b
Manchoukuo	—	483	220	1,035	460	1,387
China	199	385	172	125	144	507
Hongkong	3	624	733	930	416	1,475
British India	1,041	4,143	1,343	2,381	1,357	9,710
Straits Settlements	75	1,002	1,276	1,916	1,710	2,381
Dutch East Indies	1,698	4,635	5,783	3,962	9,254	4,623
Philippines	292	1,385	322	612	589	426
Siam	234	4,646	5,135	9,671	5,162	14,058
Others	1,969	3,697	6,622	8,347	10,762	8,725
Total	5,511	21,900	21,611	29,279	29,854	43,292

EXPORTS OF HOSIERY BY COUNTRIES

(In dozens)

	1929a	1929b	1930a	1930b	1931a	1931b
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	—
China	169,086	259,540	213,973	357,589	193,123	159,709
Kwantung	99,815	115,635	50,124	61,916	39,042	67,221
Hongkong	133,791	33,884	137,432	74,978	76,096	24,444
British India	1,518,091	1,863,212	1,927,146	1,276,614	777,465	1,106,993
Straits Settlements	78,773	79,464	47,585	38,577	27,429	11,213
Dutch East Indies	545,462	402,014	282,279	472,294	354,436	416,465
Philippines	680,429	734,190	691,674	882,875	619,036	606,680
England	1,121,809	1,039,213	1,580,559	1,124,282	1,367,732	1,227,914
France	41,097	58,820	172,452	203,835	207,984	10,910
U.S.A.	78,847	101,150	92,478	135,808	120,153	180,350
Egypt	442,614	414,663	169,889	266,437	294,980	288,235
Cape Colony and Natal	196,048	229,378	209,096	319,424	272,238	252,589
Australia	11,095	9,485	4,582	13,269	6,899	5,591
Others	936,254	944,466	1,126,408	948,218	907,100	951,956
Total	6,053,211	6,274,344	6,705,677	6,206,116	5,263,213	5,312,270

	1932a	1932b	1933a	1933b	1934a	1934b
Manchoukuo	—	2,682	110,222	192,376	157,223	142,153
China	21,192	73,302	41,729	28,798	33,567	27,524
Kwantung	75,110	127,764	116,261	142,219	135,253	165,421
Hongkong	2,652	7,484	18,409	30,741	56,690	100,105

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	1932a	1932b	1933a	1933b	1934a	1934b
British India	1,254,717	2,256,049	1,922,029	2,466,590	1,440,081	1,957,482
Straits Settlements	80,969	62,926	74,311	169,675	228,261	215,187
Dutch East Indies	369,837	913,372	688,999	1,027,434	839,313	247,144
Philippines	742,107	1,124,753	410,149	715,221	664,090	838,632
England	1,110,069	887,808	1,124,725	1,228,360	1,421,332	1,049,551
France	15,648	12,725	13,619	16,336	7,323	6,187
U.S.A.	172,606	168,124	171,817	268,378	361,022	459,696
Egypt	429,667	612,269	739,296	617,998	745,786	482,503
Cape Colony and Natal	174,285	383,667	455,229	416,204	363,544	162,443
Australia	3,441	11,604	11,945	5,724	2,979	3,689
Others	1,084,995	1,594,188	1,585,631	1,837,671	2,388,284	2,614,879
Total	5,487,295	8,233,717	7,484,371	9,163,724	8,884,698	9,172,598

Export to China The Chinese market has been contracting. There have been two reasons for this. One is the growing ability of the mills in China to supply the needs of the country and at cheaper prices than the Japanese. Most of such mills are run by the Japanese and British. The other reason is the boycott movement, which has never been cut down completely. Back in 1928 China was Japan's outstanding customer for cloth, taking 44.2 per cent. of total exports. Last year China proper and Hongkong took but 3.8 per cent.

CLOTH EXPORTS TO CHINA (1)

	All Exports	Exports to China	
	(in sq. yards)		%
1928	1,418,798,000	653,685,000	44.2
1929	1,790,650,000	671,346,000	37.5
1930	1,571,825,000	587,782,000	37.5
1931	1,413,780,000	340,829,000	24.1
1932	2,031,722,000	193,623,000	9.5
1933	2,090,280,000	141,940,000	6.8
1934	2,577,237,000	95,735,000	3.8

If the former parts of China are added together, that is to say, if China, Hongkong, Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory are totalled, the figure for 1934 amounts to 349,694,000 sq. yards or 13½ of the all-Japan total. The decline in the Chinese market is actual, not merely an optical illusion caused by the independence of Manchoukuo.

Indo-Japanese Trade Conference

The Indo-Japanese Trade Conference which was held in Simla and New Delhi during the second half of 1933 came to a successful end on January 5, 1934. The trade dispute between the two countries started following the action of the Indian Government in repudiating the old trade convention in April of 1933. The situation became aggravated in June, when India increased the tariff against Japanese goods to 75 per cent. The action of the Indian Government was met by Japanese businessmen, who declared a boycott against Indian raw cotton. To remedy the situation, the Indo-Japanese Trade Conference was called in Simla in September. The negotiations for a time made almost no progress, and it was reported on more than one occasion that there was no prospect for a successful conclusion. Finally, both sides showed patience and this saved the conference. The new treaty had yet to be initiated, but a portion of it took effect on and after January 8, 1934.

The Agreement The agreement provides six features. First, most-favoured-nation treatment will be accorded to goods of the two countries. Second, there will be a lowering of tariff on Japanese cotton piecegoods imported by India. Third, a quota will be instituted for Japanese cotton cloth goods imported by India, and the quota will be related to the purchase of Indian raw cotton by Japan. Fourth, the Japanese boy-

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cott of Indian cotton be discontinued. Fifth, measures will be adopted to meet fluctuations in exchange. Sixth, the two countries are to meet for discussion of measures to deal with customs duties which may be found to affect their interests. Meanwhile, three points which are to figure in the new treaty went into effect forthwith: first, the Japanese boycott will be discontinued; second, the Indian tariff on Japanese cotton piecegoods will be lowered from 75 per cent. ad valorem to 50 per cent., to 6.75 annas per pound, other goods from 75 per cent. to 50 per cent., or 5¼ annas per pound and others lowered to 50 per cent., and, third, the quota for Japanese goods agreed on will be enforced.

What It Means The new agreement is far from favourable to Japan. This country has made sacrifices it ought not to have made under ordinary circumstances. It did so because it did not want the conference to end in a failure, thus placing Japan and India in non-treaty relations. There was an impression in India that the Japanese boycott of Indian raw cotton was intended as a threat. But the new treaty was the result of mutual accommodation by the two countries. The lowering of the Indian tariff on Japanese cotton piecegoods benefits both the Japanese spinners and the Indian consuming public. As for the limit imposed on Japanese cotton goods, which is 400,000,000 square yards, Japan finds it difficult to make full use of it, if India levies specific duties. The percentage allowed to grey cloth is 58 per cent. of the quota. This is not satisfactory to the Japanese manufacturers, who will have difficulty in exporting that amount, especially in view of the progress being made by the Indian cotton mills in this line of cloth. Lancashire interests are much pleased with the new agreement. There is ample room for them to expand their business in bleached and other high-grade cotton goods, of which the percentage allotted to Japan under the new arrangement is very low. Some of the sacrifices made by the Japanese delegation at New Delhi were with an eye to alleviating Indian sentiment in regard to the competition of Japanese general merchandise in the Indian market. The Indian Government, however, suddenly announced tariff revision on about 20 kinds of Japanese merchandise on December 23. For example, the tariff on rayon mixtures was raised to 50 per cent. ad valorem, or 2.3 annas per square yard, from 35 per cent., or 2.3 annas; cotton fents to 75 per cent. ad valorem from 25 per cent.; and others.

Cotton cloth exported from Japan to India for 1933 totalled 640,000,000 yards. At first, Japanese traders planned to export about 1,280,000,000 yards there for the same year, but this was not done, due to the abrogation of Indo-Japanese trade convention and the imposition of a high tariff of 75 per cent. on Japanese cotton piecegoods. The Japanese delegation stood on the basis of buying 1,000,000 bales of Indian cotton in return for selling 325,000,000 yards of Japanese cloth. This was a source of dissatisfaction to Japanese traders, because of the reason that the fundamental terms of 325,000,000 yards and 1,000,000 bales can be developed by a sliding scale to that when Japan exports 400,000,000 yards to India, this country has to buy 1,500,000 bales of raw cotton.

The fact that Japan is willing to buy yearly 1,500,000 bales of Indian raw cotton does not necessarily prejudice her future purchase of American raw cotton. The figure of 1,500,000 bales was computed on the basis of Japan's actual importation of Indian cotton in past years. The

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average, for example, for the last 10 years' importation amounts to 1,565,000 bales, and that for the last five years to 1,419,000 bales both figures differing but very slightly from the agreed quota of 1,500,000 bales. Therefore the purchase by Japan of Indian cotton to the full quota does not in any substantial manner affect the position of American cotton. Furthermore, the volume of consumption of American cotton in Japan is steadily expanding, and this tendency seems to be persistent. This is easily understandable, as in consequence of the advance in the technique of Japanese industry her staple cotton piecegoods products are gradually shifting from coarser to finer fabric, for which American cotton is better suited as raw material than Indian. If there is anything that prevents Japanese spinners from using more extensively American cotton, it is its comparatively high price. The price is, after all, the predominant factor of consideration for the spinners in making their choice of cotton, because it follows that if American cotton be reasonably cheap it can not only maintain the present market in Japan but also develop more exports to this country. According to the latest available statistics, the amount of American cotton consumed by Japanese spinners was as follows in comparison with cotton of other countries :

Countries of supply	In 100 kin	Percentage
U.S.A.	6,487,000	47.9
India	5,792,000	42.7
Egypt	550,000	4.1
Other countries	696,000	5.3

For the last 12 years, the importation of Indian and American cotton was :

Year	Indian	American
	(In bales)	
1925	6,154,475	3,799,504
1926	5,865,282	4,522,373
1927	4,992,005	6,359,658
1928	4,603,928	3,871,600
1929	—	4,485,146
1930	5,136,468	3,883,488
1931	4,725,444	5,321,022
1932	2,739,842	9,101,688
1933 in 100 kin	3,977,000	7,435,000
1934 „	5,792,000	6,487,000

In the light of the Indo-Japanese commercial agreement concluded at New Delhi, the Japan Spinners' Association on January 7 made formal announcement of the termination of the boycott against Indian cotton instituted by the Osaka industrialists early in the summer of 1933.

Anglo-Japanese Textile Trade Conference

The Anglo-Japanese Textile Trade Conference was held on February 14, 1934, in London. After the subsequent six meetings it came to rupture on March 14. The Japanese delegation consisted of Mr. Gota Miyaké and four others representing cotton traders, Mr. Katsunosuké Shimada, representing rayon traders, and Mr. Shinjiro Matsuyama, commercial counsellor of the Japanese Embassy in London, observer. The British side was represented by Sir Thomas Barlow, heading Lancashire spinners, and several others. The cause of rupture was in the one-sided proposal made by the British delegates to restrict the export amount of Japanese cotton and rayon piecegoods alone, without any restriction on British goods. That country also demanded the export amount of Japanese goods be based on the 1931 exports, which were 300,000,000 yards less than the British exports, while Japanese exports were 57,000,000 yards more than the British goods for 1933. The British

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side further asked that a quota on Japanese goods shall be extended to all British territories and third countries.

Japan's Statement Following the breakdown of the Anglo-Japanese trade conference, the Japanese delegation made the following statement: "The Anglo-Japanese trade conference has now been abandoned, with the sixth session marking the end, as the claims on both sides are too incompatible. The Japanese delegation since their arrival in London last September have endeavoured very earnestly to let better understanding of the Japanese economic and social situation prevail among the people here and drive home in the mind of Lancashire the fairness of the effort of the Japanese industry to advance on world markets, convinced that if we could secure a scheme whereby needless competition between Britain and Japan might be avoided and mutual prosperity assured, nothing could be more hoped for, for the sake of world commerce. At the very outset of the formal conference, however, the Lancashire delegation proposed a unilateral restriction on Japanese exports without any parallel action on the part of Britain, on the ground that Japan's cotton textile and rayon textile advance on world markets is harmful to the stability of world commerce. We tried hard to explain that such a demand is unfair and emphasized that Japan merits no reproach for her trade advances, for they are founded on thoroughly fair operations, hoping that some co-operative measure could be adopted to relieve the difficulties of competition. The Japanese delegation declared that in respect to trade with a third nation the negotiations should be direct and that it would not be advisable to have Britain participate in such negotiations, pointing out that Japan had in fact started such negotiations with a number of other countries. In brief, we proposed that a third nation or Dominions with autonomous tariff rights should be excluded from the sphere of discussion and only Britain and her territories included in any agreement to emerge from the conference. The British delegation proved adamant, however, declaring that if Japan refuses to accept their proposal Britain would be compelled to meet Japanese competition by such political measures as high tariffs and import restrictions, and, moreover, it would result in the industrialists of other European nations entering into a combination against Japanese goods, thus isolating Japan to her everlasting disadvantage. They urged us to accept their proposal without any anxiety, as by means of a pool are commonly in practice. Seeing that the talks between the industrialists were in this way not likely to come to an agreement, the British Government took a hand and urged the Lancashire delegation to make a new proposal. In this proposal, they claimed that Japan must reduce her exports to the world level because the figures for the world's cotton textile exports in 1929 were 8,000,000,000 square yards but last year were reduced to 5,000,000,000 sq. yards, whereas Japanese exports alone showed an increase. They declared that since considerable decrease had taken place in their exports they would fix their level on the assumption of some increase afterwards and if trade revives and an increase develops Japan will get a share. The decrease in Japanese exports, they said, should be effected with reference to five continental areas. Now this proposal is in substance the same as their previous proposal with only an alteration in the manner of explanation, demand-

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ing just as before that Japanese exports should be restricted unilaterally and Japan abandon her markets and differing entirely in nature from any pool agreement.

"It is obvious that Japan could not agree to any such scheme, since nothing could be really effected with regard to a third nation market or markets of the Dominions with autonomous tariff rights nor could anything be done about competition with the industrialists of other nations by any agreement with Britain. We have sojourned for six months or more in London, and throughout this period we have done our best to continue the negotiations in the spirit of co-operation. We are surprised that Lancashire should demand of us abandonment of the main part of our markets overseas for our cotton textiles in order that pressure on Lancashire should be lifted. It is not without misgivings as to the situation resulting from the breakdown of this conference that we express our regrets that we could not avert the collapse in spite of the fact that we did our best."

JAPAN'S EXPORTS OF COTTON YARNS AND COTTON CLOTHS TO INDIA

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Yarns	Cloths	Others and Total
1928	9,181	70,185	146,006
1929	13,449	109,138	198,056
1930	6,575	61,216	129,262
1931	5,592	49,866	110,367
1932	14,343	80,653	193,491
1933	7,605	71,163	205,154
1934	11,111	82,828	258,011

COMPARISON OF CLOTH EXPORTS TO INDIA AND TOTAL CLOTH EXPORT

	All Exports	Exports to India	
	Yards	Yards	%
1928	1,418,798,000	357,710,000	25.2
1929	1,790,650,000	581,105,000	32.5
1930	1,571,825,000	404,251,000	25.8
1931	1,413,780,000	404,411,000	28.8
1932	2,031,722,000	644,685,000	31.7
1933	2,090,280,000	451,791,000	21.6
1934	2,577,237,000	451,640,000	17.5

INDIAN RAW COTTON PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS TO JAPAN

Year	Production in India (In 1,000 bales)	Exported to Japan (In ¥1,000)
1920	3,250	1,398	357,581
1921	3,668	1,468	181,707
1922	4,240	1,648	209,897
1923	4,282	1,715	263,027
1924	4,736	1,512	310,943
1925	4,578	2,051	475,632
1926	4,002	1,955	327,520
1927	4,489	1,664	202,281
1928	4,719	1,534	232,266
1929	4,978	1,712	231,108
1930	4,584	1,575	147,688
1931	5,224	1,602	113,262
1932	4,064	913	91,746
1933	4,516	1,326	168,790
1934	4,970	1,924	252,434

Export to British Empire Shipment to the British Empire as a whole rose appreciably, but the share of the Empire in Japan's export cloth trade was cut from 40.3 per cent. to 38.8 per cent.

CLOTH EXPORTS TO BRITISH EMPIRE

(In 1,000 yards)

	1929	1932	1933	1934
British India[1]	581,105	644,685	451,791	451,640
Straits Settlements	29,472	82,228	95,769	90,989
South Africa	13,788	36,316	26,101	16,173
Australia	13,765	35,992	54,999	74,547
New Zealand	728	1,238	2,622	2,835
British Empire	746,262	995,894	841,631	869,870
% of Total	41.1	49.0	40.3	33.3

1 Including Ceylon.

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Japan-Dutch East Indian Trade Conference

Trade Relation Japanese-Dutch trade relations have been maintained since the Tokugawa era. Japan for many years bought more from Holland than it sold to it, but about 10 years ago the balance shifted, Japan selling more than it bought. In the past few years, Japanese exports to the Dutch East Indies have gained tremendously, and Holland, including its colonies, is second only to Great Britain in importance among the European Powers as an outlet for Japan's commodities. Exports to Holland proper, however, total little more than ¥12,000,000 a year, and imports into Japan from Holland proper are trifling. The trade at issue is with the Dutch East Indies and Dutch West Indies, which has of late been very prosperous for Japan. These Dutch possessions bought from Japan goods worth ¥63,540,000 in 1921; ¥100,250,000 in 1932, and ¥121,910,000 in the first 10 months of 1933. They constitute Japan's fourth most important market, and since 1932 they have been taking more from this country than from Holland itself, a situation that has naturally led the Dutch industrialists to campaign for restrictions against Japanese commodities. The low yen exchange rate since replacement of the gold embargo, the efforts of the Japanese manufacturers to cultivate new markets as a result of the anti-Japanese movement, and the ingenuity of Japanese traders account for growth of trade with the Dutch Indies especially as the economic depression in the islands has created a demand for cheaper goods, which Japan alone has been able to supply. Japanese commodities meet the fancy of consumers and are therefore popular. The market prices of such staple Dutch Indian products as sugar, rubber, copra, tobacco, petroleum and tin have declined heavily in recent years because of the world-wide depression. During 1933, the Dutch Indian Government had a budgetary deficit of 14,000,000 guilders, and the 1934 deficit is likely to be even greater. By encouraging thrift and economy among the people, the authorities have cut down their purchasing power, which has turned them to low-priced Japanese goods. Japanese commodities fill the demands of some 60,000,000 inhabitants of the islands. Dr. Haruichi Nagaoka, former Ambassador in Paris, was named Japan's chief delegate at the Batavia Conference to be held about May, being assisted by the Japanese Consul-General there.

The conference adjourned indefinitely without any result on December 21, 1934.

Trade Regulations The Dutch East Indian Government issued regulations providing for restricting import cotton piecegoods from Japan on February 28, 1934, effective from March 1. The term of enforcement is 10 months. The restrictions are as follows:

		Maximum import amount
1.	Cambrics	75,000,000 yards
2.	Cambrics, shirtings, elephant, etc.	210,000 „
3.	Shirtings and long cloth	20,000,000 „
		Maximum import amount
4.	Drills	4,500,000 yards
5.	Jeans and twills	8,000,000
6.	Satin, Flannel, Bleached cloth other than already mentioned	3,000,000

Cambrics, shirtings and bleached jeans are most important bleached cotton cloth exports from Japan. The import restrictions were based on the import amount into the Dutch

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East Indies for 1932. Japanese bleached cloth exported to the Dutch East Indies for the last five years follows:

	Total Imports from Japan	Cambrics for Java	Shirtings for Java
	(In 1,000 yards)		
1929	9,592 (4.9%)	4,367 (3.6%)	1,339 (4.7%)
1930	13,098 (7.8)	7,439 (7.2)	941 (3.8)
1931	21,594 (15.8)	12,365 (13.9)	2,686 (15.9)
1932	53,667 (37.8)	31,282 (35.8)	8,306 (49.2)
1933	126,062 (77.5)	82,327 (82.3)	15,835 (85.3)

(For 1934 trade relations between Japan and Dutch East Indies see Chapter XI.)

Japanese Mills in China

Beginning of Enterprise It was in 1902 that the Japanese commenced cotton spinning and weaving enterprises in China, when the Shanghai Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd. was established to purchase two American mills, the Hsieh Lung and the Hsing Chin. The second company to be promoted was the Naigai Men Kabushiki Kaisha (The Naigai Cotton Co., Ltd.) established also in Shanghai, in 1909.

The outbreak of the World War and the subsequent boom brought enormous profits to these Japanese mills in China. This prosperity was then further advanced by the abrupt rise of the price of commodities and wages in Japan during and after the War, and also, by the increase of customs duties in China.

At the end of the World War, there were 3 Japanese cotton spinning and weaving companies in China, viz., the Shanghai, the Naigai, and the Nikka. These companies operated 10 mills, of which the combined equipment stood at about 400,000 spindles.

Its Expansion A wholesale expansion of the Japanese cotton enterprises in China then took place during 1924 and 1925. Consequently, there were, at the end of 1926, 15 Japanese companies with an aggregate of 1,257,000 spindles and 6,690 looms. Their total investments were then valued at ¥200,000,000.

The Chinese cotton spinning and weaving enterprises also made remarkable progress. Their combined equipment amounted to 1,770,000 spindles in 1926. The enterprises run by those other than the Chinese and the Japanese, however, remained inactive, those of the British, who were the pioneers of the foreign cotton industry in China, showed hardly any progress, while the German and American companies went out of business.

Owing to the high price of silver, the deflation policy of the Government and to the lower purchasing power of the people caused by the crisis in agricultural districts, the industry in 1934 in China was depressed to such an extent as it has never experienced before. The industry was depressed because of the low price of cotton goods, while the raw materials were bought at a higher price. Production by the Chinese mills was only 75 per cent. of capacity. On the other hand, the Japanese mills were able to run to the extent of 90 per cent. of full capacity in spite of the increased tax on cotton yarn and duty on imported cottons. In view of the Chinese boycotting against Japanese goods, Japanese mills made way into North China and Manchoukuo markets, in which they were successful. The facilities of the Japanese textile industry at the end of June, 1934, in Shanghai, Tsingtao, Hankow, Kwantung Peninsula and Manchoukuo were as follows:

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NO. OF SPINDLES, THROWN YARN SPINDLES, LOOMS IN 1934

	No. of spindles		No. of spindles for thrown yarn		No. of looms	
	1934	inc. over 1933	1934	inc. over 1933	1934	inc. over 1933
Shanghai	1,351,868	61,332	284,152	8,624	13,572	456
Tsingtao	379,553	11,772	17,680	880	4,934	64
Hankow, Kwantung Peninsula, Manchoukuo	148,896	8,400	2,820	720	805	—
Total	1,880,316	81,504	304,652	5,224	19,311	520

The following table shows comparative figures of cotton yarns and textiles in 1933 and 1934 produced by Japanese, Chinese and British mills in China. While Chinese and British mills did not increase production, Japanese mills alone were able to make gains in 1934 over 1933 :

PRODUCTION OF COTTON YARNS AND TEXTILES

	Production of cotton yarns in 1,000 bales		Production of cotton textiles in 1,000 hiki*	
	1934	1933	1934	1933
Chinese mills	1,617	1,665	9,040	9,548
British „	80	92	1,840	1,850
Japanese „	576	576	12,585	8,724
Total	2,273	2,333	23,465	20,122

* One hiki is about 70 shaku.

Investment of capital by Japanese spinning mills there at the end of 1933 totalled ¥299,000,000, that by Chinese mills 38,390,000 taels and 96,710,000 yuan and that by British mills 4,570,000 taels. From various points, Japanese mills now occupy the predominant position. While 11 Chinese mills were closed in Shanghai between April and August of 1933, Japanese mills kept increasing their productive equipment during the same period. Their business activity was especially pronounced after August. The alleviation of the anti-Japanese situation was largely responsible for this.

The following table gives the total imports into China of cotton yarn, the imports into China from Japan, and the Chinese exports of Chinese yarn during the 13 years ending 1933 : (Unit : bales, Hongkong and Kwantung province are excluded.)

Year	Total imports	Imports from Japan	Chinese exports
1919	470,209	191,899	22,401
1920	441,792	225,059	23,215
1921	424,479	230,795	8,605
1922	406,493	296,255	12,920
1923	258,348	161,676	29,667
1924	191,891	158,029	49,010
1925	215,707	141,243	21,668
1926	149,760	80,658	64,076
1927	98,446	36,897	113,224
1928	94,981	29,899	116,607
1929	78,042	25,214	114,912
1930	54,143	18,726	109,956
1931	15,983	6,380	—
1932	27,992 piculs	19,038	—
1933	95,605 „	467	—

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Silk Textile Industry

Silk Weaving Districts As early as the days of the Emperor Suijin, about 1,960 years ago, weaving was already carried on, on a fairly large scale, under encouragement of the Imperial Court. During the Yedo Age the weaving industry made marked development as one of the most important domestic industries. The Ryomo district has been known as a very prosperous weaving centre for centuries. This district is in Gumma and Tochigi prefectures and includes great weaving centres such as Ashikaga, Kiryu, Isézaki, Sano and Tatebayashi. The district may be likened to Paterson, New Jersey, U. S. A. The main products of the Ryomo weaving district are silk textiles for domestic use.

Another important weaving district is Fukui, followed by Kyoto, Ishikawa and Tokyo in the order named. Among silk weaves habutaé, taffetas, poplin, chiffon, pongee, fuji silk, crêpe, etc. are well-known abroad. In addition to these, however, there are many other varieties, which are used by the Japanese at home. The width of these weaves are generally narrow. To give the names of some of them : omeshi, ro, sha, meisen, nishijin, etc. These narrow weaves are almost solely manufactured for domestic consumption.

The Industry in 1934 Continued prosperity featured the silk weaving industry in Japan for 1934. The low exchange, low price of silk and low wages account for this. Exports again increased in 1934. Though British-India and some countries in Europe tried to bar import of the Japanese silk weaves, the depreciation in currency enabled Japan to push her export in spite of that, and her export of silk weaves experienced an unprecedented boom.

Owing to the activities of the munitions industries, the purchasing power of consumers increased at home and the sales of silk weaves were good in the domestic market also, producers reaping profits all through the year.

Production of Silk Weaves Owing to the increase of consumption both at home and abroad the production showed great gains. Except Kyoto weavers, most weavers in other districts turned to weaves intended for export, so that those engaged in weaving textiles intended for domestic consumption were also kept busy and prosperous. Production of crêpes amounted to 6,123,000 units and showed an increase of 1,149,000 units over 1933 ; habutaé totalled 1,125,000 units making a gain of 192,000 units ; and fuji silk 1,434,000 with a gain of 69,000 units. Other weaves which are mainly consumed at home, such as omeshi, nishijin, meisen, etc. also showed increases in production. The industry as a whole profited through the low price of silk. Production of silk weaves since 1926 follows :

PRODUCTION OF SILK TEXTILES[1]

(Compiled by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry)

Year	Broad Weaves					
	Crêpes and Kabe-ori		Habutaé		Pongee	
	Quantity in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000
1926	24,703	38,215	58,835	39,816	25,873	18,719
1927	23,426	32,434	61,957	40,385	21,963	14,683

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Year	Crêpes and Kabe-ori		Habutaé		Pongee	
	Quantity in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000
1928	31,885	43,116	60,892	42,965	29,809	16,606
1929	30,511	42,244	64,244	39,156	26,834	12,564
1930	32,233	33,606	45,545	21,434	20,665	7,091
1931	34,646	27,964	31,213	11,907	33,071	9,655
1932	45,812	33,546	36,060	13,273	32,550	11,164
1933	85,385	66,105	48,735	19,281	35,636	12,699

Broad Weaves

Year	Fuji silk		Satin		Others & total
	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000
1926	34,993	32,197	11,307	16,019	169,004
1927	45,128	34,986	9,665	12,703	159,893
1928	56,050	40,726	10,229	13,388	181,074
1929	60,872	40,085	14,104	15,896	194,288
1930	51,320	26,862	21,581	16,653	150,657
1931	51,551	24,851	25,490	14,268	137,251
1932	56,619	28,896	45,799	20,048	175,640
1933	65,945	33,216	45,527	21,904	235,902

Narrow Weaves

Year	Omeshi		Crêpes and Kabé		Habutaé, etc.	
	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000
1926	895	17,040	4,763	64,587	2,951	34,536
1927	891	16,751	4,537	54,457	3,720	31,159
1928	1,082	19,988	6,388	69,782	4,074	35,103
1929	1,020	18,003	5,236	55,607	3,077	25,321
1930	1,208	17,954	7,248	59,511	3,986	24,158
1931	1,783	22,577	10,659	67,670	3,701	20,475
1932	2,102	21,195	9,611	60,982	3,495	20,241
1933	1,493	15,809	10,979	69,207	2,911	17,553

Year	Ro and Sha		Meisen, etc.		Others & total
	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Qt'y in 1,000 tan	Value in ¥1,000	Value in ¥1,000
1926	1,125	11,980	7,699	57,915	233,978
1927	1,129	11,889	7,419	57,861	215,030
1928	1,197	13,021	10,229	75,353	260,714
1929	1,321	13,353	12,386	71,003	221,026
1930	1,368	11,111	14,432	68,500	209,774
1931	1,347	8,352	13,526	57,017	207,898
1932	2,139	12,231	12,601	48,132	198,869
1933	1,894	11,319	12,117	46,096	197,349

PRODUCTION OF SILK TEXTILES

(in ¥1,000)

Year	Special Weaves	Total of Silk Textiles	Silk-Cotton Mixtures	Grand total
1926	23,931	426,914	67,460	494,374
1927	36,180	411,104	58,305	469,408
1928	40,893	482,682	57,986	540,669
1929	30,234	445,549	48,301	493,850
1930	31,175	391,606	33,532	425,138
1931	31,599	376,749	30,107	406,857
1932	33,351	407,860	31,159	439,019
1933	30,931	464,183	36,912	501,095

Note: (1) Figures given here show products by all mills, regardless of the size of mills, or the number of operatives employed.

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Export of Silk Weaves The production of silk weaves for export in 1934 amounted to 5,280,200 units and showed an increase of 748,000 units over 1933. During the first half of the year the demand in Europe, British India, the South Sea Islands, Australia, North and South America, and Africa was very strong, though it was reduced in the latter half owing to the increased tariff in various countries. Value of crêpe production increased by ¥9,358,000 over 1933, fuji silk by ¥1,399,000 and habutaé by ¥1,492,000. Exports during the last four years follow :

EXPORTS OF SILK WEAVES

Kind		1931	1932	1933	1934
Habutaé	Quantity in 1,000 kin	6,921	7,078	663	911
	Value in ¥1,000	6,552	6,333	6,823	8,314
Satin	Quantity in 1,000 S yards	2,593	3,322	2,988	7,215
	Value in ¥1,000	1,394	1,822	1,744	4,442
Fuji silk	Quantity in 1,000 S yards	17,722	30,333	32,449	32,267
	Value in ¥1,000	9,353	15,014	17,179	18,578
Crêpes	Quantity in 1,000 S yards	21,175	23,785	28,844	42,953
	Value in ¥1,000	17,968	18,893	25,188	34,546
Pongee	Quantity in 1,000 S yards	25,630	24,222	31,075	22,011
	Value in ¥1,000	7,062	6,520	9,568	6,732
Others and Total	Value in ¥1,000	43,052	50,286	63,543	77,487

Rayon

Rise of Rayon Industry

In 1926, the total production of rayon yarn in Japan amounted to only 5,000,000 lbs. while in 1932 it increased to more than 64,000,000 lbs. The 1933 output is estimated at 158,790,000 lbs., thus making Japan one of the chief producing countries in the world. Only a few of the existing rayon manufacturing companies, such as Teikoku and Asahi, were established before 1926. Since then, quite a number of new companies have been added, including Nihon, Tokyo, Showa and Kurashiki.

Causes of Development What are the causes of such a rapid rise of this new industry in Japan ? First of all, rayon came to fill a long-felt want. Japanese dress styles change very rapidly. Special designs and different colour schemes are in vogue each season. The obi, or sash, is the decorative centre of the native Japanese costume, and women want variety in them. The natsuobi, or the sash for summer wear, is worn for but a few weeks, and the next year its colour may be out of fashion. Under these circumstances the comparatively low price of rayon is especially tempting, for it enables women to keep close to the styles without unduly straining their means.

Rayon was at first regarded with much distrust, but it has since proved thoroughly serviceable. The manufacturers have been making vigorous efforts to improve the quality of the yarn. Some makers are now turning out multifilament yarns, which consist of a larger number of finer filaments compared with ordinary yarn of the same size. Multifilament yarns are more supple than ordinary ones and when woven the cloth is practically free from the creases which are unavoidable in textiles made of ordinary yarn. A further innovation is that dull lustre yarns are being made in some factories.

The public has been educated in

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how to handle goods made of rayon —how to wash them, and so forth, and the ways in which rayon is being used have considerably increased during recent years. In 1907, it appears that rayon was used almost exclusively for making ribbons. In 1920, weavers commenced adopting rayon for necktie materials. In 1921, they started using it in women's obi, a particular line which has since much developed.

It is hardly necessary to extol the superior quality of natural silk, its beauty, soft feel, and durability, but sometimes, it is more expensive than one can afford, and a trade in mixed rayon and silk fabrics, which are obtainable at reasonably low prices, has arisen. Such textiles are finding more and more favour with the public, and both silk and rayon are being given more opportunities of use. This weaving in silk and rayon mixture has made a unique development in Japan, and has attracted world-wide interest.

The mixed fabrics enable dyers to produce a pleasing effect by cross-dyeing, that is, by applying at separate times the dye that affects silk only and the one that affects rayon only. Such stuffs are increasingly popular for making into kimono. Likewise, cotton and rayon mixtures are being woven with excellent results. The same principle has already been applied to several other fibres, such as hemp and wool, with success.

The Output Observation of the development of the rayon industry in Japan discloses that, while in 1928 the output was only 4.5 per cent. of the world output, in 1931, it represented over 10 per cent., with the result that, in point of production of rayon, Japan now ranks second to the United States and is on a par with Great Britain, Italy and Germany.

This rapid development is traceable primarily to the cheapness of fibrous material in this country, but partly to the improvement in the quality of the product, the progress of technical skill and the extension of the use of rayon during the last few years and, moreover, to the extensive markets that Japanese products enjoy in China, India, the Dutch East Indies, the Straits Settlements and the Philippines.

Production The table below shows the development of the production of rayon yarn and its exports and imports during the years 1923-34.

RAYON YARN

(in pounds)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Real Supply
1923	780,000	1,006,609	—*	1,786,609
1924	1,368,000	895,655	—*	2,263,655
1925	3,200,000	824,285	—*	4,024,285
1926	5,000,000	3,288,149	—*	8,288,149
1927	10,500,000	791,650	37,524	11,254,126
1928	19,652,000	256,763	68,155	16,840,608
1929	25,716,000	624,980	153,877	26,187,103
1930	35,959,000	842,467	3,204,363	33,597,104
1931	46,764,120	1,154,634	2,555,521	45,363,233
1932	70,389,606	876,184	7,294,735	63,471,049
1933	90,428,900	509,147	8,859,500	82,078,447
1934	1,589,952,700	690,100	221,825,100	1,368,817,700

* Exports before the year 1927 are negligible both in quantity and value.

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Japan's Rayon Exports

During 1933 Japan's export of rayon tissues lost ground in British India and the United States but steady advances elsewhere allowed the country to close the year with a strong gain. In 1931 exports were worth only ¥39,712,933; in 1932 they were ¥60,539,940; in 1933 they were ¥77,381,765; and in 1934 they were ¥113,484,235.

Exports of rayon yarn to China and Hongkong showed a startling contraction last year but sales to Manchoukuo and the Kwantung Leased Territory expanded tremendously, more than making good the loss. There was a large loss, as well, in shipments to Australia and New Zealand.

EXPORTS OF RAYON FABRICS

(In 1,000 yards)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
China and Hongkong	8,484.3	4,912.0	352.0	822.9	2,323.9
Manchoukuo and Kwantung	733.3	295.7	1,216.3	6,156.2	16,344.1
India	27,110.8	61,354.0	92,571.9	61,982.3	76,283.4
Dutch East Indies	19,613.2	27,496.5	59,393.1	60,798.1	46,726.1
Other Southern Asia	26,154.5	18,246.3	18,232.3	20,553.2	36,861.4
Europe	313.7	363.9	1,368.4	4,499.6	5,301.4
North America	2,961.9	5,572.9	2,616.7	631.6	852.1
Central America	149.4	575.8	3,074.5	9,930.5	20,743.8
South America	152.3	584.3	1,682.2	4,814.0	13,382.5
Egypt and Africa	1,727.3	15,130.6	45,644.8	50,395.9	68,156.7
Australia and New Zealand	435.3	1,400.4	9,214.2	22,749.2	46,402.1
Others	1,999.5	3,588.1	6,306.8	15,272.1	12,773.0
Total	89,835	139,520	241,719	260,054	345,655
Total Value (in ¥1,000)	34,934	39,712	60,539	77,381	113,484

Note: Figures of the Jinken Rengokai.

EXPORTS OF RAYON YARN

(In case of 100 lbs.)

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
China and Hongkong	31,317.4	19,500.8	33,924.8	5,116.5	24,786.0
Manchoukuo and Kwantung	5.9	416.3	3,616.0	57,354	81,858.0
India	234.2	1,629.2	21,247.9	18,503	84,303.5
Dutch East Indies	30.2	16.3	82.5	554.0	3,000.0
Other Southern Asia	46.6	124.8	148.7	652.7	6,940.3
Europe	5.8	137.0	1,565.7	4,168	1,212.6
North America	12.5	—	376.2	95.0	9.5
Central America	34.5	9.0	940.1	3,432	15,329.8
South America	—	2.2	165.1	105.4	500.3
Egypt and Africa	—	—	296.4	16.6	3,198.0
Australia and New Zealand	102.2	3,714.8	10,581.1	3,680.9	449.9
Others	—	—	—	4.0	183.8
Total	31,789	25,550	72,944	88,627	221,771
Total Value (in ¥1,000)	3,236	2,244	5,860	9,483	22,397

Note: Figures of the Jinken Rengokai.

Rayon Industry in 1933 and 1934

In 1933 Japan became the second largest producer of rayon in the world, preceded only by the United States. In 1934 the American lead was reduced and this year, if expansion plans come to fruition, Japan will become the world's most important producer of the fibre. Gains

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in production made by Japan in the past several years have been most spectacular as the table given above shows.

In 1933 Japan produced 90,428,000 pounds of rayon. In 1934, the total was 137,795,000 lbs. for the companies which are members of the Association of Rayon Manufacturers and 21,000,000 lbs. for outsiders, making 158,795,000 lbs. In the same year the United States was turning out 187,670,000 pounds.

World production of rayon yarn in 1934 is estimated at about 750,000,000 lbs., gaining 90,000,000 lbs. or 14 per cent. over the 1933 total. Therefore, the production in the same year by Japan of 158,795,200 lbs. means that she produced over 21 per cent. of the world's total production. Her 1933 production totalling 90,428,000 lbs. was 14.3 per cent. of the world's total production, which was 631,565,000 lbs. The relation of demand and supply of rayon for 1934, as compared with 1933, follows :

	1933		1934	
	(In case of 100 lbs.)			
Production of yarn	904,285		1,587,952	
Yarn imported	5,014		690	
Total supply	909,299		1,588,642	
Yarn exported	88,635		221,825	
Textiles exported in pounds	429,330		570,330	
Overseas consumption	517,965	(54%)	792,155	(49.8%)
Domestic consumption	391,334	(46%)	798,487	(50.2%)

The remarkable development of rayon industry in Japan must be attributed to the fact that the cost of raw material, though imported at present, occupies a rather small percentage of the total cost of production, while in making cotton yarn, Japan must import cotton which occupies a major portion of production cost. If it becomes possible to produce rayon pulp in Japan in large quantities as it is being planned, the situation will further improve. (As to rayon pulp see Chapter XXII, Paper, Rayon Pulp.) The production cost of 120 denier medium quality at present ranges between ¥50 and ¥60 per 100 pounds, generally near the lower figure, which is below the cost of the corresponding quality of cotton yarn (44s).

It should be noted that, in making 44s, material accounts for 80 per cent. of the production cost. This is fixed and immovable and cotton yarn producers must squeeze the remaining 20 per cent. if they are to reduce production costs. In making the corresponding grade of rayon, pulp accounts for only 22 to 23 per cent. of the production cost. Chemicals and electric power are classed as "semi-materials" costs but rayon producers here have managed to cut these very appreciably, building their own chemical and power plants. Labour costs have also given Japanese rayon production tremendous profit margins.

Woollen Industry

Introduction

The establishment of a Government woollen textile mill in Senju, Tokyo, in 1876, was the origin of this industry in Japan. Many private companies were organized after the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars, but owing to the pressure of foreign competition only a few

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companies were able to survive. By the World War the industry was given a further good opportunity for trial at development, an opportunity that was not neglected, and which turned out more successful than previous attempts, as a very big demand for woollen goods was created.

The production of woollen goods in Japan is carried out by two classes of manufacturers. The first are the large scale producers, all joint-stock companies, who carry through the whole process of spinning the yarns, weaving them on power looms and dyeing them. The other class is that of the small producers who buy yarns from others and weave by hand looms. There are about 30 companies which belong to the former class, while there are numerous weavers who belong to the latter class and who produce considerable quantities of serge, muslin, etc.

Woollen textiles are manufactured from wools mostly imported from Australia. Japan does not produce any wool herself. Formerly, in addition to greasy wools, tops were imported in large quantities, but, as the facilities for preparing tops from greasy wools have been greatly improved, the importation of tops has recently been drastically reduced.

The Industry in 1934

Woollen industry is one of beneficiaries of the depreciation of the yen currency. While almost every country, with the exception of Great Britain, has been recording a decrease in production in recent years, the Japanese woollen industry alone has more than doubled its output since 1928. Japan to-day stands second only to Great Britain as a consumer of raw wool and is the fifth in the list of exporting countries.

The prosperity of the industry was, however, at its height in 1933. Great profits in 1932 resulted in the usual rush of outsiders to get a share of the business. New mills were set up, and the old mills expanded their facilities. Owing to the impoverished state of the farming districts, which have practically no purchasing power, domestic consumption did not increase. The result was shown in the increase of stocks, which, in June, 1934, totalled as much as 8,967,000 lbs. Though this unhappy condition was relieved partly by the increase in export, the large companies had to resort to the curtailment of production at 48 per cent. only to profit the outsiders. The situation is reflected in the import of raw wool which was reduced to 181,107,520 lbs. in 1934 as against 242,620,000 lbs. in 1933. Japan's imports of wool in the past five years are shown below:

JAPAN'S IMPORT OF RAW WOOL[1]

	Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in yen
1930	115,999	73,919
1931	191,374	86,518
1932	206,858	88,321
1933	242,620	165,818
1934	184,379	187,667

Note: (1) including tops and goat and camel hair.

The output of woollen yarn and cloth showed its high water mark in 1933. The figures for 1934 show decline in quantity in every one of these as the following tables show:

PRODUCTION OF WOOLLEN YARN

	Quantity in metric tons	Value in ¥1,000
1930	17,927	59,720
1931	23,971	61,024
1932	26,367	67,230
1933	30,550	108,659
1934	28,495	126,490

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PRODUCTION OF TOPS

	Quantity in metric tons	Value in ¥1,000
1930	13,194	35,464
1931	17,443	33,636
1932	20,058	41,441
1933	23,644	71,759
1934	23,519	93,241

PRODUCTION OF WOOLLEN CLOTH

	Quantity in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000
1930	—	—
1931	—	—
1932	—	—
1933	40,624	72,927
1934	29,988	77,479

PRODUCTION OF MUSLIN

	Quantity in 1,000 metres	Value in ¥1,000
1930	—	—
1931	—	—
1932	—	—
1933	112,503	37,350
1934	97,490	38,087

In 1934, while the sales and production of woollen goods were decreasing, the productive equipments were increased. These equipments have been expanding during the past several years as the following figures on the number of spindles, looms, machines, etc. indicate:

WOOLLEN TEXTILE MANUFACTURING FACILITIES

(at the end of the year)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Number of woollen textile factories	924	960	1,039	1,188	1,178
Number of weaving machines	21,289	21,497	22,484	26,554	26,923
Number of operatives	39,020	34,562	37,955	41,606	41,311
Number of worsted spindles[1]	446,202	443,412	563,710	581,564	667,390
Number of weaving machines[1]	9,274	8,992	9,391	10,043	9,871
Number of woollen spindles[1]	73,664	69,528	75,096	87,898	88,403

Note: 1 Only member companies of the Woollen Industrial Association.

Another noteworthy fact in connection with woollen indsutry of 1934 was the great increase in stock. Beginning with September, 1933, stocks started a movement upward which extended to June, 1934, when 8,967,000 lbs. of woolen yarn were stored in Japanese godowns. To check this distressing tendency, which was reducing prices, the Wool Industrial Association decided to curtail output of its members by 48 per cent. This was again extended to the end of the year and for the first quarter of 1935 the rate was cut to 36 per cent. These drastic measures have brought about an encouraging reduction in stocks, although the association members did not get much profit from it. The outsiders who were not members of the association were benefited by the self-sacrifice of the members.

One really encouraging factor about the Japanese industry in 1934 was the gain in exports. These went steadily upwards. Woollen cloth and serge exports were 20 times what they were in 1931, woollen yarn 8.9 times and muslin six times. Value rose to ¥33,467,000 compared with ¥1,836,000 in 1931. Principal markets were Manchoukuo, Kwantung Leased Territory, China and British India.

JAPAN'S EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN GOODS

	Yarn		Muslin		Cloth and Serge	
	Quantity in 1,000 lbs.	Value in ¥1,000	Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	Value in ¥1,000	Quantity in 1,000 sq. yards	Value in ¥1,000
1931	698	861	660	280	727	695
1932	1,289	1,697	1,516	569	2,854	2,531
1933	3,168	5,292	2,559	1,199	7,654	8,020
1934	5,919	12,184	4,202	2,185	16,128	19,098

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The Japan Wool Industrial Association in co-operation with the traders interested in the trade of Japan with the Union of South Africa adopted a policy of buying possibly large South African wool, to counteract a possible increase of tariff by the Union on Japanese goods imported there in a large amount. With the understanding of the Foreign Office the Association and traders decided to buy larger wool from there. This has come to bear fruit in 1934. In 1933 Australia supplied 94.8 per cent. of Japan's wool requirement. In 1934 this percentage fell down to 84.8 per cent. This is due to Japan's attempt to expand sales to the South American countries. These all have, however, exceedingly difficult exchange regulations and the only way Japan can expand sales to them is to buy more from them. They have only a few products which Japan wants in any quantity, and raw wool is one of them. One might almost say that a drive is under way to encourage purchase of raw wool from Uruguay, Argentine and other non-Australian producers, including South Africa. Freights are against this kind of a switch, but export-import guilds are charging export fees to subsidize wool purchases from the South American suppliers. Australia still has a tremendous favourable trade balance in its trade with Japan and the Japanese scheme is to reduce it to make possible greater exports elsewhere. The following table shows the tendency of raw wool imports:

IMPORT OF RAW WOOL

Origin	1932 Quantity in 100 kin	1932 Value in ¥1,000	1933 Quantity in 100 kin	1933 Value in ¥1,000	1934 Quantity in 100 kin	1934 Value in ¥1,000
Australia	1,488,198	84,246	1,705,653	156,514	1,165,820	159,241
Argentina	8,095	481	30,918	2,427	59,392	7,552
Federation of South Africa	17,886	1,031	28,906	2,529	38,961	5,780
Chile	835	22	12,442	465	7,659	934
Great Britain	4,263	376	9,200	1,051	6,256	905
China	592	67	1,395	129	4,929	841
Kwantung Province	10	1	100	13	—	—
Others	24,613	1,335	17,228	1,064	90,343	11,701
Total	1,543,992	87,559	1,805,842	164,191	1,372,860	186,455

As regards import of woollen yarn it has steadily decreased since 1931, and its figure in 1934 has become a negligibly small one. On the other hand, export of yarn has increased almost in inverse ratio with import. Compare the two in the following table:

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN YARN
(in 1,000 lbs.)

	Imports	Exports
1929	7,488	371
1930	8,010	617
1931	9,549	668
1932	3,219	1,289
1933	1,624	3,899
1934	912	6,685

PRODUCTION OF WOOLLEN TEXTILE GOODS

Year	Muslin Quantity in metre	Muslin Value in yen	Serge for Japanese clothes Quantity in metre	Serge for Japanese clothes Value in yen	Serge for foreign clothes Quantity in metre	Serge for foreign clothes Value in yen
1924	155,296,232	122,070,326	17,757,732	28,141,671	2,875,840	9,334,044
1925	108,880,066	82,320,800	18,441,078	28,030,180	3,729,172	13,186,425

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Year	Muslin Quantity in metre	Muslin Value in yen	Serge for Japanese clothes Quantity ie metre	Serge for Japanese clothes Value in yen	Serge for foreign clothes Quantity in metre	Serge for foreign clothes Value in yen
1926	148,761,608	87,568,887	18,212,026	26,604,964	5,400,150	16,133,503
1927	151,504,365	87,456,216	18,243,816	28,103,617	5,475,992	13,745,287
1928	167,767,956	96,128,166	18,278,821	26,006,532	11,241,774	25,983,480
1929	155,520,228	86,382,054	17,981,742	25,477,646	8,067,687	17,767,617
1930	144,761,911	59,238,243	19,191,778	20,509,696	8,584,950	14,454,176
1931	150,123,006	47,541,759	21,115,651	16,531,059	17,492,010	25,228,168
1932	160,905,369	48,245,070	19,221,832	14,963,040	18,759,694	30,804,390
1933	130,698,059	47,974,272	13,660,552	13,733,495	22,811,081	47,538,799

Year	Woollen cloth Quantity in yards	Woollen cloth Value in yen	Flannel Quantity in yards	Flannel Value in yen	Blankets (including travelling rugs) Quantity in pieces	Blankets (including travelling rugs) Value in yen
1924	6,337,860	15,932,280	3,203,294	5,413,221	948,408	1,112,189
1925	5,621,408	14,908,487	14,164,655	13,949,667	752,023	16,070,398
1926	6,338,701	19,512,850	14,529,252	14,469,609	512,027	2,746,512
1927	4,295,625	12,156,580	2,528,866	4,045,635	485,991	3,228,532
1928	9,707,449	29,362,162	2,445,326	4,249,922	479,084	3,109,202
1929	11,375,568	32,419,984	2,154,519	3,344,022	821,178	3,512,149
1930	8,916,418	21,546,853	2,510,269	3,039,433	743,293	3,066,618
1931	10,514,367	19,765,358	2,494,499	2,662,740	1,283,660	3,786,538
1932	12,104,818	21,641,679	3,180,952	2,944,488	1,492,742	4,307,015
1933	13,516,375	29,573,573	2,260,368	2,504,560	1,558,527	5,801,610

	Carpet in yen	Rug in yen	Plush and Velvet in yen	Others in yen	Total in yen
1924	—	87,040	867,939	7,077,913	193,925,556
1925	—	220,720	11,140,370	5,137,943	184,964,990
1926	585,259	326,010	121,014	4,692,037	172,755,585
1927	156,649	38,964	219,766	13,925,724	163,077,070
1928	493,504	97,106	452,848	4,585,363	190,418,285
1929	177,399	154,151	800,596	6,859,964	176,895,582
1930	215,696	204,146	590,269	9,674,332	132,539,962
1931	150,980	203,082	606,856	3,803,130	120,279,670
1932	199,939	163,054	565,167	4,176,248	127,910,049
1933	291,267	285,872	805,695	6,130,280	154,639,428

IMPORTS OF WOOLLEN TEXTILES

Year	Woollen Textiles Quantity sq. yds	Woollen Textiles Value yen	Woollen textiles mixed with cotton Quantity sq. yds	Woollen textiles mixed with cotton Value yen	Woollen textiles mixed with silk yen	Alpaca, orleans, & lustrah yen
1924	17,707,829	35,517,659	16,892,405	20,652,309	—	822,616
1925	14,428,574	38,494,809	11,443,479	17,741,884	—	397,449
1926	8,658,830	19,882,327	6,034,272	8,111,318	—	59,554
1927	8,040,570	21,388,486	8,241,129	10,263,072	—	429,563
1928	7,466,043	19,590,135	9,882,858	10,753,846	817,640	—
1929	4,483,434	12,327,519	6,430,154	7,019,004	539,096	—
1930	2,747,296	7,023,584	4,082,266	3,947,586	443,344	—
1931	2,513,512	6,033,119	4,615,505	3,540,769	407,732	—
1932	2,365,100	6,548,000	4,415,076	3,570,000	364,000	—
1933	817,467	3,365,558	3,720,173	3,682,373	161,596	—
1934	560,874	2,442,862	2,853,769	2,638,607	107,114	—

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Year	Velvets	Other woollen textiles	Total	Blankets	Carpets	Grand total
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	2,350,047	2,304,706	61,647,337	1,198,009	751,579	63,596,925
1925	70,684	777,545	57,481,862	132,897	159,493	58,415,252
1926	74,869	1,095,931	29,224,290	446,063	175,055	29,845,417
1927	49,967	2,519,503	34,660,683	331,331	172,243	35,164,257
1928	51,552	—	31,213,173	340,736	222,974	31,776,883
1929	55,757	—	19,941,378	304,164	209,376	20,454,918
1930	19,670	—	11,434,184	154,554	182,331	11,721,069
1931	11,781	—	9,993,401	129,869	107,181	10,230,451
1932	—	—	10,487,000	88,000	89,000	10,664,000
1933	3,076	—	7,212,603	53,229	88,213	7,354,045
1934	10,207	—	5,196,790	37,756	95,515	5,332,061

EXPORTS OF WOOLLEN TEXTILES

Year	Muslin		Worsted goods & serges		Blankets		Others	Total	Woollen yarn	
	Quantity sq. yards	Value yen	Quantity sq. yards	Value yen	Quantity pieces	Value yen	yen		Quantity lbs.	Value yen
1924	1,327,154	1,592,059	200,934	383,280	868	147,021	265,011	2,387,371	158,667	468,524
1925	2,119,864	2,789,161	284,289	502,444	1,456	183,451	272,936	3,697,992	287,867	806,588
1926	1,693,695	2,062,600	307,649	600,218	1,264	220,318	247,981	3,131,117	228,683	567,100
1927	1,653,558	1,628,251	406,947	686,960	663	133,133	214,366	2,662,690	295,733	685,992
1928	742,768	528,997	1,757,181	2,615,347	821	267,126	196,311	3,607,781	258,618	566,349
1929	1,178,197	751,901	2,200,762	3,119,032	640	153,699	282,359	4,306,991	371,220	802,622
1930	1,041,559	493,694	1,928,393	2,050,466	574	87,227	214,265	2,758,425	616,920	889,977
1931	660,114	280,880	727,016	696,389	517	93,982	419,426	1,395,695	698,280	861,360
1932	1,516,808	569,484	2,854,437	2,531,713	1,232	198,174	1,379,669	4,480,866	1,286,243	1,697,219
1933	2,559,643	1,199,692	7,654,277	8,020,142	2,534	391,895	8,157,142	12,768,871	3,157,629	5,292,911
1934	4,102,197	2,185,177	16,128,263	19,098,680	3,124	571,928	8,564,863	30,420,648	5,904,826	12,184,682

IMPORTS OF TOPS AND WOOL

Year	Tops		Wool		Goat's and camel's hair		Total	
	Quantity lbs.	Value yen	Quantity lbs.	Value yen	Quantity lbs.	Value yen	Quantity lbs.	Value yen
1924	10,785,601	26,280,727	59,513,335	61,759,887	448,246	256,786	70,747,182	88,297,400
1925	11,457,602	33,891,434	70,145,067	87,182,092	725,382	628,134	82,328,051	121,701,660
1926	8,547,866	18,004,578	73,054,134	68,019,582	317,998	184,844	81,919,998	86,209,004
1927	5,967,466	11,529,894	99,238,934	90,146,836	353,016	188,445	105,559,416	101,865,178
1928	1,715,601	3,438,584	115,696,934	108,433,709	500,752	841,168	117,913,287	112,213,461
1929	707,200	1,142,674	107,948,668	100,673,152	335,650	289,876	108,991,518	102,105,702
1930	57,867	60,412	115,560,001	73,609,916	381,243	313,209	115,999,111	73,609,916
1931	149,066	124,373	190,571,601	86,145,716	653,239	373,191	191,373,906	86,145,719
1932	41,000	25,000	205,824,000	87,559,000	993,000	761,902	206,858,000	87,559,423
1933	64,000	—	240,714,000	164,191,837	1,842,000	1,626,208	242,620,000	165,818,000
1934	66,000	—	182,981,000	186,455,960	1,321,000	1,212,485	184,368,000	187,668,000

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CHAPTER XIX

MACHINERY AND ENGINEERING

Machinery

Introduction

The manufacture of machinery in Japan started after the Restoration. The progress, however, was very slow, and it was only after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 that the public began to take any real interest in investment in this kind of industry. Progress was being made before the Great War, but with the outbreak of war the situation completely changed. Prior to the War, Japan had to import large quantities of machinery, but during the World War, imports were stopped, and a great stimulus was thereby given to the home manufacture of machinery. During the war years she became able to supply not only most of her own needs, but also some of those of foreign countries. Factories for manufacturing arms and various other kinds of machinery, as well as shipbuilding-yards, were established in many parts of the country, and these profited not only financially but in the experience they acquired in skilled mechanical work of various kinds. The great boom in shipbuilding stimulated the establishment of many new works for the turning out of engines and other equipment for steamers, while the difficulty of obtaining imported machines for spinning, weaving, paper-making, etc., caused a rapid establishment of new works for their manufacture. This cutting off of imports also served to encourage the manufacture of motors, electrical machinery, automobiles and aeroplanes. With the great post-war slump, naval disarmament, general depression the world over, embargo on gold, high tariffs, and all the other ills from which industry was suffering of late years, the machinery production industry was also heavily depressed. The outbreak of trouble in Manchuria, however, in September, 1931, and the military operations which followed, created a new demand for arms, while the reimposition of the gold embargo, and subsequent decline of the value of the yen served to revive the industry. The growth of the machinery manufacturing industry can be gathered from the following table:

GROWTH OF MACHINERY INDUSTRY

(Unit: ¥1,000)

Kind	1914	1919	1921	1926	1929
No. of mills	388	590	526	4,429	5,296
No. of operatives	80,862	195,227	162,724	273,269	190,154
Value of production	110,906	716,241	568,322	538,917	682,162

Kind	1930	1931	1932	1933
No. of mills	5,604	6,479	6,738	7,850
No. of operatives	205,308	—	230,896	249,323
Value of production	615,682	443,340	543,842	888,195

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The production of machinery in the factories where more than five persons are employed (exclusive of Government factories) for 1933 totalled ¥888,195,312, and compared with the figure of 1932, it showed an increase of over ¥287,000,000. This was the largest figure for the last decade, the previous recorded figure being ¥888,019,698 for 1912. Classified according to the size of mills, production by mills employing from five to thirty operatives amounted to about ¥125,000,000 or 14.1 per cent., by those employing from 30 to 100 operatives about ¥123,000,000 or 13.9 per cent., by those employing from 100 to 200 operatives about ¥86,000,000 or 9.7 per cent., and by those employing more than 200 operatives about ¥553,000,000 or 62.3 per cent. In examining the number of mills classified according to the number of operatives employed, those which employed from five to 30 operatives were 6,735 or 85.8 per cent. of the total, those employing from 30 to 100 operatives 817 or 10.4 per cent., those employing from 100 to 200 operatives 151, or 1.9 per cent., and those employing more than 200 operatives 147 or 1.9 per cent. Thus, the amount of production per mill differs extensively according to the class of mills. In the instance of mills employing from five to thirty employees the average production per mill was ¥18,560, in those employing from 100 to 200 operatives ¥573,081 and those employing more than 200 operatives ¥3,762,696.

The classes and kinds of machinery are so many and varied that it will take too much space to give an account of all of them. We have, therefore, divided them into the following classes for convenience:

Ordinary Machinery
Electrical Machinery
Locomotives and Rolling Stock
Aircraft
Automobiles
Shipbuilding

and a brief account of some of representative ones in each class will be given in the following columns.

Ordinary Machinery

Manufacturing Machinery The manufacturing machinery has made a rapid progress owing to big demand. All makers are very busy to enlarge their mills. But on account of difficulty in delivery of domestic makes within the time required, advantages are being taken by imported machineries. The large makers have formed an association for export, which promises future development.

Casting and Casting Machinery Castings which are related with service supplies industry and machinery for exorts are active, although those related with agricultural implements are still inactive

The tendency to perform casting by machinery has suddenly become strong in recent years along with the activities of service supplies industries. This tendency is especially noticeabe in automobile and aeroplane manufacturing plants. Though high-class castings are still imported from Germany and America, machines like sandblast, moulding machines, cupola, etc. are successfully made in Japan.

Air Machine Recently the demand for air machines has considerably increased and Japanese machine manufacturers quickly caught the opportunity so that most of air machines are now self-supplied. Especially pneumatic tools such as air-compressor, rock-drill, and pick-hammer, air motor and air hoist are manufactured in great numbers.

Machinery for Chemical Plants It is only in recent years that machinery

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used in chemical industry drew attention of large machine manufacturing mills. The progress and development of chemical industry, however, has been so great that the manufacture of chemical machinery now forms an important part in machine manufacturing industry. In foreign countries makers of chemical machines are at the same time contractors for the plants and are responsible for their success or failure, but the manufacturers of Japan have not attained that stage yet.

Wood-Working Machine Activity of shipbuilding and rolling stock industries has stimulated the manufacture of wood-working machines and the Japanese machines have almost expelled imported ones and are exported to America, South Sea Islands, India and Siam in a considerable amount.

Cranes Cranes made by Japanese factories went in a large number to iron, steel, cement and chemical mills and mines, and they are going to check the import of foreign machines in the near future.

Spinning Machine It is needless to say that spinning industry in Japan achieved a wonderful progress in recent years. One of the causes of the success is due to the excellent spinning machines invented in Japan. Almost all machines in spinning mills are now manufactured in Japan and it is rather difficult to find foreign spinning machines used in most of new advanced mills in Japan.

Pumps At present pump manufacturing is altogether independent of foreign technique. Pumps for public works are constantly improved to meet new demands and the manufacture of pumps made of materials acid-proof or alkali-proof which are used in chemical and rayon industries has made a great progress.

Engines and Boilers Great activities shown in new constructions and extension works of power houses and of various manufacturing companies would tell at once what would be the effect on engine manufacturing, the activities of which industry are unprecedented. Mills of Toyo Babcock Co., Ltd. and others have orders on hand to the fullest extent. This manufacturing is making new records in type, in capacity, steam pressure etc. Largest orders are coming from power houses, steamers and battleships for supplementary use, chemical industries, artificial silk mills, and other textile industries in the order named.

Agricultural Machinery and Agricultural Implements The demand for equipments for supplying water, for cleaning rice, etc. increased fifty per cent. in number as compared with that of two years ago. Owing to the high cost of raw materials, however, the profit of manufacturers is not so large.

Machinery for Mining Stimulated by the activities in the heavy industries, both coal and metal minings have been extremely active since 1932, and it is anticipated that there will be no depression in this industry for several years to come. Under the circumstances, manufacturers of mining machines are enjoying almost unprecedented boom. These machineries are classified into mining, selecting and smeltering machines, of which the latter are more important and vary to a great extent in kinds, etc.

Machinery for Building and Public Works The Government's policy to undertake public works as relief measures for farmers has naturally opened a way for big demand on machinery for building and public works. The purchase of road rollers, locomotives, crushers, etc. has been considerable.

Printing Machines As to printing machinery high speed and high

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grade machines are in vogue. To meet the requirement of high speed printing the use of rotary press has developed while the increase of demand on the gravure and offset machines shows that the higher grade machines are popular. Manufacturing of high speed and high grade printing machines has now so advanced that not only import of these has come to be negligibly small, but domestic makes are exported to Manchoukuo, South China, the South Sea Islands, and India to a great extent.

Gauges and Optical Machinery Of all gauges those that have the greatest future prospect are perhaps electric gauges, to which optical and mechanical gauges will follow in the order named. At present the study is being directed mainly on gauges for aeroplanes, and there is a very keen competition among makers for their successful manufacturing. Gauges, which require exactness, are optical ones, and the authorities concerned seem to be directing their attention for the production of high-class optical instruments. In the past the manufacture of gauges was carried out by various makers in their own ways, no unified control on production was possible, and seriously hampered its development. The Department of Commerce and Industry appears meditating to impress upon the makers with the advisability of instituting an organ whereby to control the production and sales of gauges.

Various Tools and Implements The demand for various tools and implements in recent years has been very strong. Due to the lower exchange rate of yen, the price of imported tools and implements became very high which served as a great stimula for development of domestic manufacture. Technique of manufacturing these tools and implements has made a great advance, and most of imported ones are replaced by domestic makes. Demand on imported ones is restricted to those of superior class. Many new mills have sprung up, and tool and implement industry appears enjoying its golden age.

In addition to the above there are numerous other machines, instruments and tools, which are enjoying boom with more or less degree due to general industrial activities. Some of the more important ones are:

Welding and cutting appliances, dyeing machinery, conveyors, gears and gear cutters, stokers, cleaners, ball bearings, steel balls, various musical instruments, scientific instruments, etc., etc.

Production Production of all machinery and tools which come under this class follows:

PRODUCTION OF ENGINES

Year	Steam engines		Steam turbines		Internal combustion engines					
					Gas engines		Light oil engines		Oil engines	
	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value
		yen		yen		yen		yen		yen
1924	163		707,527			8,698			12,385,598	
1925			280,995			10,406			13,981,662	
1926	370		294,506			18,778			18,017,677	
1927	234		1,251,466			15,307			13,982,015	
1928	313		897,036			19,644			19,118,828	
1929	931	2,615,111	15	754,858	128	104,545	965	9,660,598	23,828	9,900,571
1930	74	298,341	42	2,220,460	575	340,416	1,337	11,852,363	104,854	9,671,130
1931	97	80,769	17	1,458,889	10	8,800	778	5,008,217	15,295	5,228,870
1932	77	150,006	86	1,022,760	103	76,472	2,371	20,587,362	16,558	4,420,307
1933	162	580,519	51	7,269,146	142	116,780	5,546	32,360,597	17,229	4,049,818

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Year	Internal combustion engines: Heavy oil engines No. produced	Internal combustion engines: Heavy oil engines Value yen	Internal combustion engines: Total yen	Water wheels: Turbine water wheels No. produced	Water wheels: Turbine water wheels Value yen	Water wheels: Pelton water wheels No. produced	Water wheels: Pelton water wheels Value yen	Water wheels: Total yen	Production of fittings yen	Grand total yen
1924			12,285,598	1,052			668,189	668,189	1,160,506	14,921,572
1925			13,961,662	992			999,390	999,390	922,692	16,184,748
1926			15,017,677	268			1,445,262	1,445,262	1,313,492	21,070,937
1927			13,982,015	625			2,008,930	2,008,930	7,154,090	24,296,503
1928			19,118,928	590			1,278,773	1,278,773	2,944,316	23,739,051
1929	1,579	7,557,746	27,123,260	261	2,031,407	23	221,580	2,253,087	1,189,408	33,935,624
1930	2,274	6,759,923	29,723,832	115	1,890,568	17	35,811	1,926,376	2,207,825	36,877,837
1931	2,002	8,248,660	18,494,447	111	765,540	7	81,521	847,063	1,333,930	22,215,098
1932	1,783	5,790,541	30,874,682	173	575,847	1	1,492	577,339	1,493,765	34,118,552
1933	3,961	11,618,068	48,147,263	91	183,076	57	318,189	501,265	2,867,389	59,365,582

PRODUCTION OF BOILERS

Year	Water-tube style: No. produced	Water-tube style: Value yen	Cast iron: No. produced	Cast iron: Value yen	Others: No. produced	Others: Value yen	Fittings and accessories yen	Total yen	Machinery for producing gas yen
1924		535		1,329,365				1,329,365	328,990
1925		888		1,647,994				1,647,994	471,894
1926		869		1,630,391				1,630,391	328,506
1927		762		1,221,052				1,221,052	160,841
1928		1,482		3,028,145				3,028,145	108,198
1929	179	2,375,285	295	42,032	1,529	1,968,055	1,264,520	5,649,962	106,443
1930	143	2,573,598	374	249,798	844	1,097,475	1,283,860	5,169,731	952,585
1931	86	2,388,832	89	50,330	1,180	1,197,505	2,724,523	6,369,190	727,929
1932	86	1,185,444	264	178,000	1,257	2,384,306	701,659	4,449,409	586,440
1933	120	2,071,541	281	217,976	2,020	5,617,207	3,647,849	11,554,573	1,210,160

PRODUCTION OF PUMPS, COMPRESSORS AND FANS

	Pumps: No. produced	Pumps: Value yen	Hydraulic compressors: No. produced	Hydraulic compressors: Value yen	Gas compressors: No. produced	Gas compressors: Value yen	Blowing machine (Fans): No. produced	Blowing machine (Fans): Value yen
1924	129,993	7,146,051	—	—	3,130,779		80,100	
1925	95,464	6,810,845	—	—	3,241,005		91,948	
1926	97,692	77,689,72	—	—	2,327,097		60,001	
1927	94,100	7,863,534	—	—	1,407,917		35,508	
1928	114,450	9,812,981	—	—	1,551,576		2,602	
1929	170,258	8,608,986	756	439,835	1,244	1,535,262	12,004	838,693
1930	515,642	8,002,940	1,084	452,580	9,239	3,152,991	1,475	599,142
1931	398,632	6,837,801	686	358,938	2,230	1,627,198	13,266	748,891
1932	290,480	6,510,822	1,102	720,903	2,199	1,123,213	28,433	755,241
1933	290,477	9,669,019	833	810,502	1,969	1,721,220	4,152	1,143,718

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PRODUCTION OF METAL MANUFACTURING MACHINES AND MACHINE TOOLS

Year	Metal manufacturing machines		Machine tools		
	No. produced	Value	Drills, cutters, etc.	Others	Total
		yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	—	8,907,707	—	—	—
1925	—	6,892,416	—	—	—
1926	—	7,045,657	—	—	—
1927	—	8,259,271	—	—	—
1928	—	7,671,887	—	—	—
1929	464,252	5,585,895	942,269	3,398,818	4,348,087
1930	32,737	4,436,549	1,167,163	3,179,858	4,347,021
1931	114,756	3,944,928	1,280,939	2,530,871	3,811,810
1932	33,654	8,198,267	879,924	3,081,695	3,961,619
1933	50,103	15,403,826	1,504,395	3,963,961	5,468,356

PRODUCTION OF OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS

Year	Lenses, including prisms	Microscopes	Telescopes	Field-glasses	Glasses
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1928	—	—	—	—	—
1929	543,059	49,561	18,118	193,163	260,100
1930	402,739	94,172	16,470	2,955,885	317,550
1931	433,338	72,076	20,885	98,741	230,338
1932	572,961	54,750	182,302	227,525	360,114
1933	787,249	261,727	1,433,169	3,304,068	126,050

PRODUCTION OF MEASURING AND WEIGHING INSTRUMENTS

Year	Rules	Measures	Scales	Gas meters	Water meters	Accessories and fittings	Total
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	762,926	735,863	3,529,318	1,644,569	1,008,297	263,896	7,949,869
1925	1,149,510	499,039	3,503,236	1,462,095	407,451	313,832	7,335,163
1926	806,309	363,948	4,782,282	397,736	612,435	198,755	7,161,465
1927	1,371,711	807,119	3,224,781	3,353,941	59,500	215,927	9,032,979
1928	1,150,781	714,147	3,210,425	1,791,125	844,280	372,705	8,083,963
1929	1,027,579	849,754	3,239,202	5,202,256	576,789	477,360	11,372,946
1930	794,776	298,269	3,033,458	2,998,262	1,379,397	411,724	8,915,886
1931	581,717	248,705	2,443,134	1,998,534	1,345,382	264,173	6,881,645
1932	705,516	175,568	2,228,220	1,870,250	1,485,165	466,348	6,931,071
1933	869,288	298,100	3,692,690	2,042,099	1,391,487	467,937	8,761,607

PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS METERS

Year	Thermometers		Clinical thermometers		Electric meters		Others	Total value
	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value		
		yen		yen		yen	yen	yen
1924		986,085				4,655,165		5,641,250
1925		1,038,780				3,369,214		4,408,003
1926		1,484,508				4,720,281		6,204,789
1927		1,069,946				4,785,048		5,854,994
1928		923,156				7,933,606		8,856,764
1929	732,099	425,584	912,172	795,286	184,181	2,128,677	2,890,857	6,240,404
1930	745,307	331,415	1,046,500	841,766	209,287	2,772,177	2,984,421	6,979,779
1931	676,743	310,924	1,237,192	777,377	213,011	2,657,049	3,066,257	6,811,607
1932	511,786	273,356	1,388,889	883,335	395,298	3,997,290	2,622,110	7,776,091
1933	750,742	431,194	1,518,544	839,151	439,268	7,312,489	4,696,288	13,279,122

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PRODUCTION OF CLOCKS AND WATCHES

Year	Electric clocks		Stand clocks		Clocks		Watches		Fittings etc.	Total
	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value	No. produced	Value		
		yen		yen		yen		yen	yen	yen
1924	—	—	224,470	961,881	501,125	3,181,913	329,784	1,209,493	970,265	6,323,052
1925	—	—	577,622	1,790,758	550,736	2,897,435	28,003	202,482	7,509,031	7,399,706
1926	—	—	844,550	2,377,272	576,926	3,921,602	399,566	1,928,334	1,349,070	9,576,278
1927	—	—	1,079,542	2,535,241	590,464	2,921,621	104,771	976,043	2,445,318	8,878,413
1928	—	—	1,135,958	2,612,744	425,257	2,606,781	78,097	866,169	3,318,187	9,403,881
1929	6,870	303,946	1,232,269	2,664,390	506,504	2,176,758	238,236	1,865,932	2,555,567	9,066,593
1930	11,699	579,919	1,155,988	2,055,593	474,565	1,911,182	181,233	1,013,042	5,846,179	11,405,915
1931	11,250	366,148	993,287	1,350,822	362,011	1,390,718	169,358	657,528	2,310,248	6,075,464
1932	6,151	216,019	857,594	1,552,177	436,513	1,629,130	160,288	681,156	2,590,187	6,668,669
1933	7,614	240,388	1,270,467	2,047,417	514,626	2,122,065	153,247	794,183	3,160,690	8,364,743

PRODUCTION OF CRANES, ELEVATORS, etc.

Year	Cranes		Hoists, conveyors, etc.	Elevators	
	Quantity	Value		Quantity	Value
		yen	yen		yen
1924		2,182,262		11,366	
1925		3,199,333		5,055	
1926		8,727,437		9,847	
1927		4,369,902		2,325	
1928		6,757,231		7,777	
1929	2,538	4,052,380	4,157,486	502	1,408,330
1930	3,138	5,834,200	3,254,024	815	1,800,499
1931	396	1,828,835	2,174,962	519	1,502,950
1932	637	2,303,674	2,269,622	691	1,509,437
1933	1,278	5,402,508	4,607,460	614	1,238,638

PRODUCTION OF VARIOUS MACHINERY FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES

Year	Machinery for agriculture	Machinery for building and civil engineering work	Instruments for farming, etc.	Machinery for mining	Machinery for the spinning and textile industries	Machinery for the cement industry
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	4,310,603		2,729,438	3,178,640	17,508,680	937,031
1925	5,683,775		1,839,846	2,547,304	19,360,226	1,373,985
1926	6,126,536		4,389,531	2,241,981	18,883,435	997,926
1927	6,491,882		4,436,543	3,335,031	21,344,424	1,461,975
1928	6,595,176		3,854,062	5,221,161	28,804,281	1,221,839
1929	4,418,756	1,278,047	4,181,265	3,557,658	30,058,863	2,774,032
1930	3,589,150	751,150	3,016,369	3,124,345	21,221,689	1,387,210
1931	2,914,996	981,111	2,459,796	2,047,128	22,756,086	709,668
1932	4,297,720	898,830	3,187,430	3,060,091	27,478,898	1,044,278
1933	4,756,029	1,559,468	5,023,786	6,190,028	44,151,201	4,351,629

Year	Printing machinery	Machinery for sawmills	Machinery for paper manufacturing	Machinery for various chemical industries	Machinery for food manufacturing	Printing type	Miscellaneous machinery
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	3,257,527	2,726,189	1,331,984	2,137,714	5,239,806	1,139,239	2,040,118
1925	2,588,489	2,680,409	1,621,282	940,658	4,567,018	656,773	1,657,896
1926	2,440,522	1,397,646	2,100,520	1,825,134	3,362,918	1,113,687	7,736,500
1927	4,018,304	1,842,597	1,872,688	1,617,056	3,395,474	1,435,545	3,827,681
1928	4,826,703	1,890,320	2,020,132	2,117,131	3,900,812	1,453,085	3,488,396
1929	7,076,059	1,625,210	1,409,687	3,875,862	4,930,476	2,681,617	4,319,305
1930	6,006,587	1,034,264	957,295	2,895,738	5,887,896	1,903,982	3,151,624
1931	5,320,524	1,419,285	695,861	2,638,421	3,443,043	2,462,696	3,696,522
1932	6,615,661	1,354,372	509,207	4,869,055	3,563,442	1,855,639	5,271,977
1933	6,992,743	1,976,830	1,642,611	14,841,447	5,495,501	2,085,210	6,788,473

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PRODUCTION OF MISCELLANEOUS INSTRUMENTS

Year	Safes	Gas utensils	Water-service apparatus	Valves, cocks, etc.	Fly wheels, gears, axles, etc.	Fittings and accessories other than those already given	Others
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	3,290,419	691,783	1,477,609	—	1,329,859	—	—
1925	2,797,223	911,755	728,352	—	5,218,128	—	—
1926	2,981,981	1,078,575	589,726	—	10,626,359	—	—
1927	2,585,416	407,042	1,223,757	—	12,104,986	—	—
1928	2,131,932	880,300	2,274,056	—	10,628,650	—	—
1929	1,935,008	940,621	2,724,438	3,929,240	8,497,804	21,253,630	42,687,650
1930	1,025,262	317,309	1,478,908	2,227,996	6,565,132	20,002,974	32,278,969
1931	1,200,092	406,968	1,136,255	1,641,080	5,962,705	11,660,398	32,121,271
1932	1,264,764	723,906	2,019,744	2,369,581	7,714,205	29,484,929	48,954,102
1933	1,486,533	1,049,967	1,610,242	3,623,998	14,310,795	38,256,100	72,104,704

PRODUCTION OF MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, etc.

Year	Pianos	Organs	Violins, mandolins, etc.	Others	Total	Gramophones	Arms
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924		4,453,756			4,453,756	4,821,555	14,967,105
1925		3,638,169			3,638,169	1,543,473	20,561,419
1926		3,087,683			3,087,683	1,433,578	15,536,865
1927		4,507,583			4,507,583	888,073	16,000,494
1928		5,187,348			5,187,348	837,390	22,294,332
1929	2,254,873	1,048,930	166,123	1,554,083	5,024,018	1,939,877	18,646,292
1930	1,878,800	1,016,210	119,188	1,147,472	4,161,670	2,096,489	13,141,067
1931	2,078,406	1,199,649	77,464	910,694	4,266,213	2,811,850	13,443,520
1932	1,907,456	914,951	52,184	994,383	3,868,974	3,110,657	23,185,829
1933	2,325,781	961,622	96,027	1,421,028	4,804,458	4,657,102	32,217,961

PRODUCTION OF SCIENTIFIC AND MEDICAL INSTRUMENTS AND TESTING MACHINES, etc.

Year	Experimental and testing machines	Scientific instruments	Surgical, or orthopædic instruments	Surveying and drawing instruments	Registers, typewriters, counting machines, etc.	Cameras, magic lanterns, movie cameras, etc.
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	136,416	849,415	1,397,253	138,514	—	444,797
1925	209,436	751,000	1,090,725	296,430	—	301,940
1926	365,491	1,505,410	1,405,402	421,685	—	121,300
1927	569,452	798,785	1,827,135	299,541	—	1,113,697
1928	666,431	874,240	1,826,025	759,336	—	933,354
1929	736,400	7,175,891	2,295,556	904,369	1,529,458	769,608
1930	496,019	918,322	2,284,228	564,193	1,274,223	746,914
1931	481,364	476,407	1,902,771	427,924	1,388,942	1,126,227
1932	428,942	585,089	2,372,813	978,680	2,021,363	917,335
1933	1,414,604	871,644	4,572,566	778,229	2,157,272	1,085,272

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Electrical Machinery

Introduction The general economic prosperity increased the demand on electric power to a tremendous extent, which stimulated the construction of big thermal power houses, and extension and completion of power cables. An epoch-making improvement has also been effected in the construction of electric machinery which use high voltage, such as thermal electric dynamo, transformer, rotary converter, switch-board, frequency changer, induction voltage regulator, etc., many of which have an astonishing large capacity and produce a high revolution such as never have been imagined before. The same sort of development has been attained in electric machinery and instruments which use electricity of smaller power. The following are some of domestic electric machinery which deserve attention:

Description	Capacity
Water Wheel Dynamo	40,000 KVA
Thermal Dynamo	50,000 K.W.
Synchronous Advancer	30,000 KVA
Non-Synchronous Advancer	30,000 KVA
Frequency Changer	15,000 KVA
Rotary Converter	6,600 K.W.
Self-Cooling Transformer	22,000 KVA

Thermal Dynamo Domestic makes are now replacing the imported ones. To cite only a few examples of those recently manufactured: five units of 53,000 k.w. installed for Kwansai Kyodo Kwaryoku, one unit of 12,500 k.w. for Hokkaido Dento, one 30,000 k.w. unit for Yawata Seitetsusho, and one 35,000 k.w. unit for Toho Denryoku are notable ones.

Turbine (thermal) Owing to rapid increase in the number of thermal power houses, manufacturing of turbines is showing a great activity.

Mitsubishi and Ishikawajima received orders for a turbine of 53,000 k.w. from Kwansai Kyodo Thermal El. Co., while the latter installed a 58,000 k.w. turbine for Tokyo Electric Light Co., Ltd. at their Tsurumi Plant. Hidachi Seisakusho accepted also an order from Yawata Iron Works of the Japan Iron Mfg. Co. for 30,000 k.w. turbine.

Hydraulic Dynamo Hydraulic dynamo manufacturing is controlled exclusively by domestic makers and is in its most prosperous stage, showing a great progress both in art and in volume of production as compared with its status of a few years ago. Three units of 40,000 KVA manufactured by Shibaura Seisakusho for Chosen Hydro-electric Co., one 52,000 k.w. unit manufactured by the same company for Yahagi Hydro-electric Co. one unit of 60,000 k.w. manufactured by Hidachi Seisakusho for Japan Electric Power Co., Ltd., are good examples. Since almost all the electric power companies are enthusiastic for building larger power houses, this manufacturing work promises a further development.

Direct Current Dynamo The demand for the direct current dynamo has increased rapidly for charging, experimenting, for steamers and wireless telegraphy. Dynamos of both large and small capacities are selling well. It deserves a special notice that small mills of various manufacturing concerns and cotton goods plants are installing dynamos of small capacity for lighting purpose.

Electric Motor The demand for electric motors has become very strong on account of activities in the industrial world, especially in spinning, munitions and cement industries. Kinds and types of motors manufactured vary to a great extent. One motor capable of producing 23,000 HP. which is considered as one of the largest in capacity in the world and a synchronous motor of 1,100 HP. have been manufactured by domestic makers. Special motors of high ef-

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ficiency which are required in cotton spinning mills, agricultural districts, etc. are successfully manufactured.

Water Wheel Manufacturers of water wheels have considerable difficulty due to the fact that different wheels must be made for high and low heads. For instance, Koguchigawa No. 3 power house of Nihonkai Hydro-electric Co., Ltd. has a head of 118 metres which is considered the highest head in Japan. On the other hand, the study on turbines, etc. for a power house built for the purpose of raising water is being made by companies like Chūō Electric Co., Ltd.

Transformer Great demand for electric power has naturally caused the increased manufacture of transformers, both large and small in size. Study has been made as to location and capacity of transformers and as the result transformers of various types and kinds are being manufactured. Some transformers with a capacity of 43,000 KVA or others with voltage regulators, etc. are manufactured successfully.

Converter or Phase Advancer Condenser converters of comparatively large capacity are being manufactured by large electric machinery makers. Recently, a rotary converter which generates 6,000 k.w. and 10,000 amperes, synchronous converters which produce 6,600 k.w. and mercury arc rectifier which generates 2,000 k.w. have been manufactured. Some of the smaller converters use oil filled cables, and there are many kinds and types of the latter.

Cable and Wire The firm of Sumitomo has done much research work on the GP submarine cable, but now the subject of research has been shifted to the lead-covering. Not only three large firms, viz. Sumitomo, Furukawa, and Fujikura, but also Nihon Densen and the Tokyo Cable Manufacturing Company are also undertaking the work, and such high-class cables and wires are produced in great quantities that the import of these articles has now become an old story. Among the manufacturers are included not only those big firms mentioned above, but also over a hundred of those which rank with Dainippon Densen or Tsuda Densen.

Electric Furnace The demand for electric furnaces has recently become very strong along with the development of the metal industry. Electric furnaces having capacities of as large as 1,500 KVA and 2,000 KVA are produced.

High Speed Oil Circuit Breaker Along with the increase of voltage, the increase of speed of breaking circuit becomes a resultant requirement. Both physical and chemical researches have been made and the perfection of making a breaker which cuts the circuit at an exceedingly high speed is amazing. As to its size, a circuit breaker, the capacity of which is as large as 2,000,000 KVA is manufactured.

Automatic Voltage Regulator The voltage regulator is now being installed independently or with a converter by power houses in various places, and these regulators are showing excellent results. Recently regulators have been freely installed with 22,000 volt and 150,000 volt pressures in power cables and proved their 100 per cent. efficiency in each case. They are of superior makes, and are being manufactured only by large makers.

Electrode The rise of electrochemistry and the activities of electrolysis industry have brought about an amazing development in the electrode manufacturing industry. Electrodes of large size and of good quality are now produced in Japan and import of this article has become negligibly small. Principal makers are the Tokai Electrode Co., Ltd., and

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the Nippon Carbon Co., Ltd., and companies other than these are merely making raw materials for the same.

Current Limiter In order to rationalize the charge for electric light and also to restrict the abuses of electricity an electric current limiter has been invented and it is actually used by the Osaka City Electric Bureau, the Hanshin Electric Railway Co., the Hanshin Express Electric Railway Co., Ltd., and other electric power supply companies. There are many kinds and types of current limiters, some of which are of very high quality.

Broadcasting Apparatus In any of Japanese broadcasting stations no broadcasting apparatus of domestic make was installed in the past. They were those manufactured by the Marconi Co., Ltd., the International Electric Company, G. E., etc. However, the situation has now been completely reversed, and apparatus of large capacity are being manufactured by the Nippon Denki Co., Ltd. and the Tokyo Denki Co., Ltd. The Nippon Denki manufactured 100 kilo one for the Hsinking Broadcasting Station in November, 1934.

Dry Cells This industry has made a great progress in these years, and its production now reaches ¥10,000,000 a year. The domestic products not only fulfill the total demand in the country, but they are also being exported to Manchoukuo, China, the South Sea Islands, etc. It was prescribed as one of the principal industries of the country and is controlled as such. It is also now under consideration to include it as one of the principal export articles.

Production Production of electric machinery and instruments in Japan in recent years are as follows :

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL MACHINERY

Year	Dynamos		Electric motors		Rotary converters		Frequency changers	
	No. produced	Value yen	No. produced	Value yen	No. produced	Value yen	No. produced	Value yen
1924			86,626				13,533,719	
1925			44,393				29,142,595	
1926			51,080				23,661,235	
1927			61,131				21,299,433	
1928			66,900				20,421,677	
1929	13,949	7,913,875	77,039	16,032,609	6,610	1,714,285	9	52,151
1930	10,914	4,415,105	115,420	14,795,641	186	1,578,456	8	109,278
1931	8,953	4,865,869	88,083	10,369,400	1,161	1,082,559	6	22,251
1932	9,748	4,638,302	99,809	9,886,162	1,461	599,177	11	12,184
1933	58,600	7,720,547	195,005	21,553,794	1,269	1,470,000	3	14,006

Year	Transformers		Rectifiers		Electric fans		Electric utensils		Insulated wires	Cables
	No. produced	Value yen	No. produced	Value yen	No. produced	Value yen	No. produced	Value yen	yen	yen
1924									54,691,792	
1925									49,628,679	
1926									78,025,372	
1927									77,611,760	
1928									92,808,367	
1929	329,388	12,330,728	2,393	189,520	79,834	1,719,114	255,848	1,904,604	36,651,108	21,315,991
1930	387,333	9,307,652	3,628	160,218	88,047	1,855,294	218,797	989,583	27,134,916	18,051,756
1931	341,561	5,883,660	275	315,327	44,019	761,538	535,869	1,130,569	21,441,985	10,421,985
1932	290,887	6,618,334	2,881	156,547	35,828	610,008	542,766	1,311,409	26,329,442	10,189,503
933	324,167	9,976,642	1,097	278,657	46,041	866,070	733,819	1,415,757	39,487,609	17,850,301

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PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS

Year	Instruments for wireless communication	Instruments for telegraphic & telephonic comm'n	Electric batteries: Storage batteries No. produced	Storage batteries Value	Dry cells No. produced	Dry cells Value	Total	Other electrical instruments
	yen	yen		yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924					20,386,706			
1925					22,574,011			
1926					26,241,262			
1927					33,149,629			
1928					25,231,644			
1929	4,714,704	9,111,019	793,456	6,480,389	25,881,277	5,940,331	12,420,720	39,624,228
1930	6,357,315	9,109,054	205,753	4,144,403	70,576,043	9,658,359	13,802,762	29,294,850
1931	9,582,428	6,284,448	206,278	3,337,901	23,552,992	4,242,700	7,580,601	21,929,808
1932	11,552,221	7,034,435	281,980	3,425,373	33,032,783	5,172,392	8,597,765	24,167,829
1933	19,293,426	7,696,588	358,871	4,819,752	41,729,522	6,636,878	11,456,635	39,175,928

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRIC BULBS, SEARCH LIGHTS, etc.

Year	Electric bulbs: No. produced	Electric bulbs Value	Search-lights: No. produced	Search-lights Value	Others	Total
		yen		yen	yen	yen
1924	55,123,022	17,277,494	—	—	—	—
1925	57,063,338	17,089,352	—	—	—	—
1926	63,630,842	15,225,423	—	—	—	—
1927	87,254,705	26,315,412	—	—	—	—
1928	97,549,985	24,327,175	—	—	—	—
1929	134,183,114	17,763,744	10,344	2,464,676	2,507,385	22,736,805
1930	114,811,775	15,192,805	20,752	2,400,744	3,539,177	21,132,225
1931	202,054,444	18,038,888	—	968,606	3,459,829	22,467,323
1932	286,653,068	19,685,338	169	831,379	4,692,485	25,209,302
1933	340,392,875	21,970,879	174	679,973	6,942,939	29,593,791

Locomotives and Rolling Stock

Of all the mechanical industries, few compare with that of the manufacture of locomotives and rolling stock in largeness of amount of production and value. Nearly 90,000 locomotives, passenger cars, freight cars, electric cars, etc., are owned by the Department of Railways of the Imperial Government, and most of them were manufactured in the Department's works in Omiya, Oi, Hamamatsu-cho in Tokyo, Takatori in Kobé, Kokura, etc. In addition they are manufactured by a few private companies.

When the first railway was constructed, in 1872, between Tokyo and Yokohama, locomotives were imported from Great Britain, so in the beginning nearly all the locomotives were of English-make, but later they were replaced by locomotives imported from America.

The first locomotive to be manufactured in Japan was turned out by a Kobé mill, now belonging to the Department of Railways, in 1893, and the Kisha Seizo Kaisha turned out its first in 1896. Later, in 1910, the Hyogo mill of the Kawasaki Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., started manufacturing locomotives on a large scale, and about the same time the Department of Railways also began to do the same. From that time locomotive manufacturing developed at a great pace and since 1912 their importation has practically ceased. During the World War, the Nippon Sharyo Kaisha, Ltd., and the Kasado

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mill of the Hidachi Seisakusho were established, and in 1924, the Mitsubishi Shipbuilding Co., Ltd. entered the industry, and at present Japanese works are not only filling home requirements but are exporting to Korea, Formosa, Manchoutikuo and China.

The manufacture of passenger cars has also advanced, four and six wheel bogie-cars being made. The highest speed of passenger trains has been increased to 64 m.p.h. and as the Japanese gauge is a narrow one of 3' 6" it has been necessary to make intensive studies to reduce rolling. As the result of the studies, new devices have been applied and good results achieved.

Electric locomotives were imported from Germany in 1912, and since then, with the exception of 14 locomotives which were manufactured at the Omiya Works of the Department of Railways, only imported ones have been used.

Situation in 1934 Through the popularity of cars and locomotives of so-called "streamline form" and the attempt to make higher-grade cars, locomotive and rolling stock manufacturing is showing a great activity, especially in the works which have orders from Manchoukuo. Making of higher grade cars has a direct bearing upon makers of parts and trucks. On account of increased demand for Diesel and gasolene locomotives, the demand for small-sized steam locomotives has somewhat slackened. But on the other hand, the demand for trucks for electric tramway, etc. has increased.

Steam Locomotive Owing to electrification of private railways and the advance made by gasolene cars, it is now very seldom that private railway companies use steam locomotives. Accordingly makers have now hardly any orders coming to them except from the Department of Railways. Only a few makers are manufacturing small-sized locomotives for mining and public works. Even these are now being driven out by small-sized gasolene or Diesel locomotives. Some makers have, therefore, totally given up the manufacture of steam locomotives and are employing their efforts for the manufacture of locomotives using Diesel engines.

Electric Locomotive On account of the increased electrification of railways, new ideas are constantly put into the improvement of electric locomotives. Important points in improvement are the application of electric arc welding method and lightening of weight. In future, the centre of gravity of locomotives will be lowered and the "streamline form" will be adopted in order to increase the speed. New improvements such as equipments for sprinkling sands to prevent racing, or those to recover lost electric power, will perhaps be made in near future.

Rolling Stock Orders coming from private railway companies on rolling stock are very small, being limited to a few gasolene or ordinary passenger cars. However, makers are well satisfied with orders coming from electric tramway companies, and especially with orders coming from Manchoukuo.

Electric Car Electric cars are divided into those having motors on them and other ordinary cars, which are again subdivided into passenger, freight and emergency cars. Private railway companies want to keep pace with further electrification of the government railways, and intend to electrify their lines and increased distribution of cars and replacement of old cars with new ones will inevitably increase the demand, and the prospect of this industry can be said to be very bright.

Aerial Cable As the safety of aeri-

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al cable has come to be recognized, the fever for its construction has become very intense. For the carriage of goods, various mining and cement companies are now changing means of transportation from ground railways into aerial cables, which is making this industry very active. This activity is beng further stimulated by construction of aerial cables in Manchoukuo.

Various Appliances Controller, brake, brake shoe, pointer, separator, etc. are successfully manufactured and mills are active to a greater or less degree.

PRODUCTION OF LOCOMOTIVES AND ROLLING STOCK

Year	Steam locomotives No. produced	Steam locomotives Value	Electric locomotives No. produced	Electric locomotives Value	Gas locomotives No. produced	Gas locomotives Value	Fittings, etc.	Total
		yen		yen		yen		yen
1924	243			13,921,439			—	13,921,439
1925	218			10,294,412			—	10,294,412
1926	231			13,453,346			—	13,453,346
1927	257			13,091,554			—	13,091,554
1928	287			18,893,325			—	18,893,225
1929	229	13,629,665	36	1,285,567	78	484,280	2,681,372	18,080,884
1930	233	9,400,067	41	884,035	129	1,192,624	270,255	11,748,481
1931	109	5,029,536	47	1,506,247	163	1,454,003	216,223	8,206,009
1932	60	2,976,606	47	503,464	223	1,333,485	298,250	5,111,805
1933	167	6,270,177	29	609,386	288	1,486,822	1,340,408	9,706,793

Year	Coaches and freight cars No. produced	Coaches and freight cars Value	Fittings for coaches and freight cars	Electric cars No. produced	Electric cars Value	Fittings for electric cars	Rikisha No. produced	Rikisha Value	Waggons
		yen	yen		yen	yen		yen	yen
1924	5,360	19,577,804	—	868	6,774,094	—	2,316	258,770	—
1925	4,556	12,349,533	—	643	6,186,726	—	1,536	153,510	—
1926	3,936	12,122,955	—	828	7,418,375	—	1,277	85,900	—
1927	3,558	12,769,427	—	582	5,236,179	—	363	46,775	—
1928	5,597	16,873,994	—	845	7,564,572	—	950	92,100	—
1929	3,996	14,532,052	919,049	535	5,882,521	1,618,233	1,668	107,750	184,914
1930	3,331	9,306,425	1,582,700	355	3,607,416	3,672,732	947	75,610	161,005
1931	1,508	3,881,066	221,088	180	2,019,861	1,492,455	1,448	72,060	165,710
1932	1,106	3,980,922	181,345	178	1,259,789	213,153	489	50,400	458,515
1933	1,452	8,064,776	853,179	129	1,663,722	501,857	550	58,220	341,099

Aircraft

Introduction Captain Tokugawa was the first pilot to fly a heavier than air machine in Japan. This was in 1910. The manufacture of aircraft was commenced in the Army and Navy arsenals and, furthermore, many arms of the service from private companies. The manufacture of aeroplanes was greatly encouraged in this way and military and naval aircraft can now be satisfactorily manufactured at home.

History Dr. Ichita Kishi, a physician, constructed at his own expense various workshops in his own residence at Tsukiji, Tokyo, and, in 1914, with the help of several expert engineers, succeeded in constructing an aeroplane engine, the first to be manufactured in this country. A trial flight of the aeroplane using this engine was very successful, so he manufactured his second aeroplane in 1916. In 1917 Mr. Nakajima, who was an engineer captain in the Navy, manufactured various kinds of aeroplanes with the help of Messrs. Mohei Ishikawa and Sei-

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bei Kawanishi. In 1920, the Aichi Tokei Denki Kaisha, Ltd. (Aichi Clock Electric Machinery Co., Ltd.) established an aeroplane department and in 1920 turned out a seaplane. From that time this department has developed rapidly. In 1921, the Kawanishi Machine Company established an aeroplane factory in Hyogo and started the manufacture of seaplanes in 1923. Also, in 1921, the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., had nine experts in aeroplane manufacturing called from Great Britain and began to manufacture both aeroplanes and engines on a large scale. The Kawasaki Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., following in the steps of the Mitsubishi Aircraft Co., Ltd., began manufacturing aeroplanes in 1922.

Present State of the Industry Aircraft manufacturing industry showed considerable activity in 1934. Aside from requirements of the military circle, manufacturers received good orders from the public owing to the fact that many contributions of aircrafts were made to the army and navy by different bodies of people. As regards manufacturing of light aeroplanes for transportation purpose, one manufactured by the Tokyo Gas & Electric Co., Ltd. towards the latter part of the year proved a great success. Other aircraft manufacturers received orders on aircrafts of the same type. Manufacturers of aircrafts at present are as follows:

MANUFACTURERS OF AIRCRAFTS

Year	Makers of Bodies	Makers of Motors	Makers of Balloons and Airsihps	Total
1924	6	3	2	11
1925	6	3	2	11
1926	6	3	2	11
1927	6	4	2	12
1928	6	4	3	13
1929	6	4	3	13
1930	6	4	3	13
1931	7	4	2	13
1932	7	5	2	14
1933	8	5	2	15

Automobile Manufacturing

History The first automobile to be manufactured in Japan was by the Tokyo Motor Car Works, under the management of Mr. S. Yoshida, in the year 1909, but since then progress has been very slow. In 1910, several military motor cars were manufactured for the Army in the Osaka Arsenal, and in 1911, the Tokyo Automobile Factory commenced the manufacture of "DAT" cars.

The Tokyo Gas and Electric Co., Ltd., began to manufacture military automobiles "T. G. E." in 1916, and trucks in 1917. In 1918, the Military Automobile Subsidy Act was put into force and this company was the first to get a subsidy from the Army Department under the act. Then the Tokyo Ishikawajima Shipbuilding Co., Ltd., began to manufacture passenger cars in 1920. Companies other than the above which are making automobiles are Hakuyo-sha, Ltd., and the Orient Automobile Co.

Present State of the Industry Motor car industry is perhaps the only one in all the heavy industries in Japan which the country has not anything to feel proud of to-day. While there are more than 135,000 cars, buses and trucks of all kinds which are running throughout the country, almost all of them are imported, about 80 per cent. of which being Chevrolet of the General Motors Co. and

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Ford. The balance of 20 per cent. consists of those of Chrysler line and a small number of European makes. However, inasmuch as the motor car industry is entirely undeveloped in Japan yet, it can be said that there is a great future for Japan's automobile manufacturing industry.

Passenger Car There are no passenger cars manufactured in Japan which are worthy of mention, except "Atsuta-go" which are modeled after Nash and White and aside from the small model cars of "Datsun" there are no other domestic cars.

Bus and Truck Bus and truck manufacturing by domestic works is slightly better than passenger car making. Each "Chiyoda" manufactured by the Tokyo Gas and Electric Co. and "Sumida" made by the Jidosha Kogyo Kaisha has a long history. The companies are also jointly making "Isuzu" designed by the Department of Commerce and Industry. These three classes of buses and trucks are supplied to the market in considerable numbers. Kyodo Kokusai Jidosha which was established in 1933 by these two companies is selling domestic trucks and buses of five classes. Aside from this, the Mitsubishi Heavy Industry Co., Ltd. is making large-sized bus "Fuso-go" at its Kobé plant, the Kawasaki Sharyo Kaisha, Ltd. truck and bus "Rokko," and Tokyo Association of Dealers of Motor Cars is planning to make another kind for trial.

Miniature Motor Car and Motor Cycle The so-called miniature motor cars are those the dimensions and power of which are limited by the "Regulations of Motor Cars" and include such small-sized cars as "Datsun" car, rear cars, etc. Rear cars have made a marvelous development in Japan as a means of carrying small parcels. Their production totalled 15,000 a year, and they are not only in use throughout Japan but are exported to Manchoukuo, the South Sea Islands, etc. Its manufacturing is showing activity due to low exchange rate and increased demand. The sales of small-sized cars like "Datsun", too, are rapidly increasing in number in late years.

Accessories and Parts Accessories and parts of motor cars in Japan were almost exclusively of American makes before replacement of the embargo on gold in 1931. Owing to low exchange rate which followed thereafter import became very difficult and domestic makes came to the front. At present, even parts of Chevrolet or Ford are being replaced by domestic makes. They are now also exported abroad. Countless parts and accessories are made in domestic works, and the quality of these makes is rapidly improving.

PRODUCTION OF AUTOMOBILES AND MOTOR CYCLES

Year	Imported parts assembled		Others		Accessories and parts	Total	Motor cycles	
	No.	Value in yen	No.	Value in yen	Value in yen	Value in yen	No.	Value yen
1924		771						982,235
1925		4,092						7,436,435
1926		32,665						18,624,309
1927		10,789						25,256,332
1928		23,347						43,049,420
1929	11,221	12,484,951	18,058	71,177,299	6,219,850	89,884,750	204	112,925
1930	20,596	34,903,822	1,254	3,626,252	4,493,958	43,024,032	793	413,808
1931	19,935	32,099,506	971	2,576,231	6,535,494	41,211,231	1,451	826,320
1932	13,853	28,869,297	710	4,748,608	6,095,992	39,703,897	2,113	1,619,279
1933	14,373	37,690,059	5,600	11,673,754	10,996,149	60,318,962	2,278	1,705,405

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Import of Automobiles Due to the backwardness of the automobile industry in Japan, the country has largely relied on the import for their supply in the past. In 1914 the import barely amounted to ¥500,000, but this rapidly increased and in 1929, it amounted to ¥30,000,000. Owing to depression it dropped to ¥20,000,000 in 1930, and to ¥14,000,000 in 1933, which was the bottom. The figure took an upward course again and rose to ¥33,000,000 in 1934.

IMPORTS OF AUTOMOBILES & ACCESSORIES

Year	Number of automobiles	Value yen	Value of accessories yen	Total values yen
1924	4,063	8,772,851	12,413,272	21,186,123
1925	1,762	4,630,009	7,062,433	11,692,442
1926	2,362	5,324,535	10,397,666	15,722,201
1927	3,895	8,063,063	10,218,909	18,281,971
1928	7,978	13,770,655	18,474,167	32,244,822
1929	5,018	9,545,870	24,062,513	33,608,383
1930	2,591	4,896,992	15,178,000	20,773,000
1931	1,887	3,378,000	12,951,000	16,329,000
1932	997	2,894,000	11,927,000	14,821,000
1933	491	1,864,392	12,517,753	14,382,145
1934	896	3,357,061	29,456,076	32,813,137

Bicycle Manufacturing

History A bicycle was first introduced into Japan in 1881 by an Englishman. In 1889, an American brought a bicycle with him from America. In 1904, frames and other accessories were imported from Great Britain, and the making of bicycles at a lower cost became comparatively easy. In 1906, accessories were imported from the U. S. A. and this time, bicycles became very popular.

Before 1913, accessories other than saddles, rims, and chains were being manufactured at home. Factories capable of manufacturing these latter articles on a large scale did not exist and it was impossible for small scale producers to compete against foreign products. From 1913 on, however, the demand for bicycles increased at great speed, and as the manufacturing of each of the above parts on a large scale became possible, bicycles came to be produced at a very low cost, though until the World War, those manufactured in Japan could not compete with European-made ones. During the War, the art of manufacturing advanced so much that domestic bicycles could well compete in both quality and price with imported ones, and not only were home demands satisfied, but the Japanese product was exported to China, Russia, India and other countries.

Bicycle in 1934. Bicycles which are used in Japan number 7,000,000, which means that every nine persons own one bicycle. This fairly compares with Holland where the ratio is one bicycle to every seven persons. Moreover, the quality of bicycles made in Japan is so good that no country in the world can compete with her in this respect. To-day export of bicycles and accessories amounts to ¥25,000,000 a year, and bicycles made in Japan can be seen in every country except in Soviet Russia. The industry is now carried out in a perfect division of labour, and manufacturers number 800, who are located in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kobé, etc.

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Conditions Suitable for Bicycles Conditions in this country are well suited to the use of this vehicle. The factors which have made for the increased demand are:

(1) Individual wealth is comparatively small and the use of automobiles has not yet become universal.

(2) Roads are mostly too narrow, though greatly improved of late, to take automobiles.

(3) The making of bicycles, especially accessories like rims, is purely artisans' work, and is a type of work in which the Japanese people excel.

PRODUCTION OF BICYCLES IN JAPAN

Year	No. produced	Value	Value of accessories produced
		yen	yen
1924	92,172	2,751,270	—
1925	88,229	864,796	—
1926	41,832	1,112,621	—
1927	89,629	3,093,083	—
1928	125,588	3,323,999	—
1929	90,285	2,593,051	16,138,063
1930	136,985	2,790,331	12,206,274
1931	105,088	2,022,018	13,747,235
1932	63,968	1,315,748	20,666,605
1933	118,405	2,164,804	26,396,495

These figures do not include production in factories employing less than 5 persons.

The principal places of production are Tokyo, Osaka, Aichi, Hyogo, and Ishikawa prefectures. Production in each of these prefectures in recent years is as follows:

Prefectures	1931	1932	1933
	yen	yen	yen
Tokyo	5,532,820	7,927,974	9,818,150
Osaka	4,666,797	6,830,222	10,567,187
Aichi	2,687,949	2,858,530	3,663,442
Hyogo	1,615,353	2,325,811	2,386,320
Ishikawa	357,023	580,133	661,228

Imports and exports of cycles and accessories since 1923 are as follows:

Year	Imports	Exports
	yen	yen
1924	7,673,000	745,000
1925	6,216,000	2,295,000
1926	5,923,000	1,959,000
1927	3,527,000	1,879,000
1928	1,634,000	2,557,000
1929	1,280,000	3,429,000
1930	1,563,000	5,274,000
1931	1,153,000	7,119,000
1932	795,000	6,028,000
1933	619,000	12,114,000
1934	73,308	18,904,257

Tyres are not included.

Import of Machinery

Import of machinery in 1934 totalled ¥143,590,180, which showed a gain over that of 1933 which was ¥106,574,614. This was due to lower exchange rate and increase of imports of some special machinery on which the demand was strong on account of the general industrial activity in the country. However, this figure was smaller than the 1929 figure of ¥186,832,556. The import as a whole has a declining tendency. This is perhaps due to the following reasons:

(1) The machine manufacturing industry has made a great progress, and,

(2) The depression has reduced the demand for machinery.

The rapid development of industries of many kinds which has taken place since the Restoration has created a great demand for machinery, but as it takes a long time to train experts and workers to produce machines of superior grade, Japan has had, in the past, to import most of her machinery. Now, with careful study and training on the part of her engineers, it has become possible to turn out machines which are not inferior to any imported ones, and Japan can now buy these at comparatively low prices. The depression which started in 1920 has become very acute in late years, and has brought about a great falling

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off in the demand for machinery. These two reasons account for the falling off in imports.

Imports of machinery by Japan, excluding automobiles and their accessories, from 1919 to 1928, was somewhere between ¥100,000,000 and ¥140,000,000. There was a sharp reduction in 1930, and in 1931 it reached the bottom. The latest two years are gaining again. (See Chapter XI.)

IMPORTS OF MACHINERY (unit ¥1,000)

Articles	1928 yen	1929 yen	1930 yen	1931 yen	1932 yen	1933 yen	1934 yen
Watches and parts thereof	7,900	6,369	4,888	2,161	2,853	2,094	2,684
Clocks and parts thereof	627	616	434	205	140	147	112
Microscopes, etc.	342	456	324	166	255	126	230
Ammeters, voltmeters, etc.	280	328	215	141	101	78	64
Wattmeters	693	907	367	401	211	99	63
Other meters	1,957	2,063	1,465	1,030	1,074	1,526	1,479
Electric batteries, and parts thereof	354	422	259	176	176	106	134
Surgical or orthopædic instruments	403	484	388	277	311	156	200
Surveying and drawing instruments	667	449	349	422	363	812	97
Registers, calculating machines, typewriters, etc.	1,850	1,924	794	738	590	574	1,020
Scientific instruments	2,524	2,998	2,429	1,017	1,039	1,049	1,003
Cameras, and parts thereof	1,013	1,088	1,423	1,419	966	765	1,419
Gramophones, etc.	376	591	268	240	98	38	41
Musical instruments	929	940	576	375	296	185	183
Telegraphic and telephonic instruments	3,982	3,871	1,832	1,223	1,664	2,989	1,468
Other scientific instruments	—	—	—	—	1,681	2,140	1,265
Fire-arms	2,408	1,967	837	777	5,826	6,451	1,081
Railway carriages, etc.	2,091	1,420	234	132	74	47	66
Boilers	3,849	2,376	3,124	2,237	1,192	1,790	4,091
Locomotives, etc.	905	1,062	544	59	70	156	6
Steam turbines	244	825	1,024	695	182	58	430
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 250 kg.)	5,526	7,354	4,460	4,206	2,296	1,826	3,253
Internal combustion engines (weighing not more than 2,500 kg.)	5,108	5,224	3,897	5,486	9,507	13,954	17,277
Internal combustion engines (others)	2,207	5,535	6,119	1,237	667	366	248
Water-turbines and Pelton wheels	559	1,095	36	—	9	—	150
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 100 kg.)	1,813	1,926	1,491	1,126	1,405	1,372	829
Dynamos, motors, etc. (weighing not more than 5,000 kg.)	2,389	1,599	664	285	233	192	146
Dynamos, motors, etc. (others)	2,218	3,306	1,382	587	4	166	248
Transformers	1,015	653	354	162	111	64	85
Dynamos combined with motive machinery	349	1,325	1,199	161	47	112	2
Cranes	279	479	300	284	4	58	13
Capstans and other winding machines	584	1,347	1,215	142	34	117	35
Gas compressors	1,979	2,539	2,024	642	809	669	1,742
Sewing machines and accessories	5,404	9,501	4,066	2,924	3,265	2,183	5,866
Pumps	1,241	1,883	2,017	740	370	726	1,000
Blowing machines	565	1,464	1,436	541	161	145	232
Hydraulic presses	329	133	227	106	6	4	54
Pneumatic tools and machines	1,030	981	453	264	276	256	639
Metal or wood-working machines	4,380	5,622	4,849	3,069	5,8071	16,246	21,433
Spinning machines	10,431	14,486	6,365	3,515	7,998	3,520	6,395
Weaving looms	427	637	279	55	106	12	40
Tissue-finishing machines	292	411	375	161	342	116	62
Knitting machines	178	222	814	145	75	82	1,773
Paper-making machines	379	346	127	88	37	9	—
Printing machines	1,577	1,631	690	195	291	20	225
All other machinery	19,190	24,486	20,767	11,908	12,463	11,440	11,510

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Export of Machinery

In 1934 Japan witnessed the highest record in the export of machinery of her own making. The volume of export was ¥124,982,223 which was about double of the preceding year's export of ¥67,622,067. In addition to this the export of tools and other metal manufactures was ¥59,054,665 as against the 1933 figure of ¥42,604,224. The future of Japan's machinery manufacturing depends upon the degree to which her export of machinery expands, and especially upon the development of Manchoukuo market. The invasion of Japanese products into the Dutch East Indian, Indian and other foreign markets is a matter for future prospects. The export of Japan-made spinning and weaving machines is very promising. Especially the Toyoda Automatic Weaving Machines are very much demanded abroad, where the spinning industry prospers. These machines used to be exported to China, mostly Shanghai, to be used by Japanese spinning mills in Shanghai. Last year 25 machines each equipped with 400 spindles were sent to Ahmedabad spinners in India. Diesel-engines to be fitted with fishing ships are built in Japan and shipped to the Dutch East Indies. A British firm purchased the Toyoda patent for ¥1,000,000, but when the machines were installed in England, a vigorous protest was raised by British mill hands. Japan-made machines exported during the last three years follow :

	1932	1933	1934
	(In ¥1,000)		
Spinning and weaving machines	3,650	4,878	8,378
Electric machines	1,414	2,724	10,055
Printing machines	871	900	1,128
Pumps	344	909	1,572
Boilers	343	577	2,652
Metal and wooden machines	216	566	1,189
Others and total	34,510	67,622	124,982
Destination			
Manchoukuo	394	1,038	5,214
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,953	14,197	65,287
China	3,848	4,951	16,623
Hongkong	107	119	693
British India	900	2,104	8,069
Dutch East Indies	123	312	10,500
Soviet Union	1,179	1,328	2,016
Brazil	73	104	369
Australia	41	81	676

Factories and Operatives

Factories in which various kinds of machinery were manufactured were, in 1933, 7,850 ; workers and operatives numbered 249,323. These figures include persons engaged in the shipbuilding industries. Factories showed an increase of 1,112 over the previous year and the number of operatives also increased by 18,427.

Details of the number of mills, operatives, etc., in 1933 were as follows :

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Kind of Machinery	No. of mills	Total No. of employees	Officials Males	Officials Females	Total
Boilers	68	1,663	168	10	178
Appliances for gas production	6	258	46	2	48
Motors	454	9,715	1,141	58	1,199
Steam engines and turbines	11	122	11	—	11
Internal combustion engines	438	9,181	1,044	46	1,090
Water wheels	5	412	86	12	98
Electrical machinery and instruments	407	26,835	3,583	202	3,785
Cables and insulated wires	86	6,667	960	66	1,026
Telegraphic and telephone instruments	164	3,982	1,653	155	1,808
Electric batteries	52	3,847	458	18	476
Agricultural implements	293	3,332	318	7	325
Machinery for building and public works, etc.	66	1,331	139	4	143
„ „ mining	89	2,247	287	22	309
Spinning and textile machinery	603	21,605	1,651	119	1,770
Manufacturing machinery and instruments	493	11,379	985	34	1,019
Machinery for cement industry	52	943	79	—	79
„ „ paper making	25	663	102	3	105
Machinery for chemical industry	85	3,397	431	20	451
„ „ foodstuff industry	141	2,861	344	21	365
Printing machinery	278	3,894	404	23	427
Other machinery and instruments	233	2,809	226	4	230
Elevators	11	308	64	4	68
Cranes	43	1,206	196	2	198
Pumps	116	2,331	300	29	329
Hydraulic press, air compressors, etc.	33	1,713	203	10	213
Rules, measures, scales, gauges, etc.	144	4,098	525	20	545
Meters, etc.	76	4,014	772	58	830
Clocks, watches, etc.	77	5,625	248	15	263
Testing machines, scientific instruments.	31	1,249	162	4	166
Surgical instruments	106	1,198	113	5	118
Surveying and drawing instruments	23	312	23	—	23
Calculating machines, registers, typewriters, etc.	22	1,027	122	6	128
Cameras, projectors, kinetoscopes	27	1,113	110	1	111
Electric bulbs, etc.	373	12,502	1,008	96	1,104
Optical instruments	50	3,376	587	57	644
Glasses	6	100	6	1	7
Musical instruments	31	2,185	206	4	210
Gramophones	7	1,306	191	19	210
Arms	67	9,861	717	49	766
Locomotives, rolling stock	53	11,393	863	35	898
Automobiles	475	13,027	1,817	98	1,915
Bicycles	545	12,806	812	32	844
Other vehicles	91	845	67	1	68
Shipbuilding	360	45,692	4,545	201	4,746
Tackles	14	80	8	—	8
Aircrafts	81	16,780	1,076	123	1,199
Safes	45	790	68	2	70
Appliances for gas	45	650	58	7	65
Appliances for waterworks	46	498	43	—	43
Valves, cocks, etc.	109	1,743	131	1	132
Flywheels, gears, etc.	139	3,070	349	14	363
Other machinery and instruments	1,059	18,881	1,910	61	1,971
Government plants for machinery and instruments	340	81,208	4,275	62	4,287
Total	8,190	372,863	34,550	1,785	6,258

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Kind of Machinery	Operatives			Others		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Boilers	1,400	56	1,456	26	3	29
Appliances for gas production	201	—	201	4	3	7
Motors	7,970	310	8,280	205	31	236
Steam engines and turbines	111	—	111	—	—	—
Internal combustion engines	7,561	307	7,868	192	31	223
Water wheels	298	3	301	13	—	13
Electric machinery and instruments	18,493	2,794	21,287	1,250	513	1,763
Cables and insulated wires	3,571	1,669	5,240	272	129	401
Telegraphic and telephonic instruments	5,012	1,946	6,958	163	53	216
Electric batteries	2,340	843	3,183	145	43	188
Agricultural implements	2,900	58	2,958	43	6	49
Machinery for buildings and public works	1,135	23	1,158	26	4	30
Machinery for mining	1,862	13	1,875	52	11	63
Spinning and textile machinery	17,401	1,530	18,931	812	92	904
Manufacturing machinery and instruments	2,807	167	359	4	1	5
Machinery for paper making	544	—	544	9	5	14
Machinery for chemical industry	2,771	71	2,842	93	11	104
Machinery for foodstuff industry	1,863	5	1,868	121	7	128
Printing machinery	3,021	350	3,371	84	12	96
Other machinery and instruments	2,425	83	2,508	65	6	73
Elevators	232	3	235	3	2	5
Cranes	957	6	963	43	2	45
Pumps	1,873	5	1,878	116	8	124
Hydraulic press, air compressors, etc.	1,428	1	1,429	63	8	71
Rules, measures, scales, gauges, etc.	3,084	297	3,381	155	17	172
Meters	2,778	318	3,094	77	13	90
Clocks, watches, etc.	3,903	1,233	5,136	168	58	226
Testing machines and scientific instruments	1,008	71	1,079	3	1	4
Surgical instruments	1,002	48	1,050	26	4	31
Surveying and drawing instruments	283	2	285	3	1	4
Calculating machines, registers, typewriters, etc.	794	50	844	38	17	55
Cameras, projectors, kinetoscopes	776	213	989	11	2	13
Electric bulbs, etc.	5,989	5,186	11,172	162	64	226
Optical instruments	2,386	202	2,588	128	16	144
Glasses	72	8	80	10	3	13
Musical instruments	1,584	338	1,922	43	10	53
Gramophones	861	216	1,077	17	2	19
Arms	8,446	406	8,852	175	68	243
Locomotives and rolling stock	9,859	71	9,930	498	67	565
Automobiles	10,416	131	10,550	468	94	562
Bicycles	10,913	770	11,683	239	40	279
Other vehicles	762	9	771	6	—	6
Shipbuilding	38,758	310	39,068	1,527	351	1,878
Tackles	72	—	72	—	—	—
Aircrafts	14,716	531	15,247	220	114	334
Safes	644	1	645	74	1	75
Appliances for gas	572	7	449	5	1	6
Appliances for waterworks	442	7	449	5	1	6
Valves, cocks, etc.	1,561	30	1,591	18	2	20
Flywheels, gears, etc.	2,533	61	2,594	100	13	113
Other machinery and instruments	16,274	319	16,593	229	38	269
Machinery and instruments for Government plants	59,128	549	59,677	16,306	938	17,244
Total	287,668	21,332	309,000	24,640	2,938	27,578

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Shipbuilding

Introduction

The mercantile shipbuilding industry in Japan developed with the shipping business, while the development of warship building was mainly due to the urgent demands created by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars.

Owing to the construction of new vessels to be placed on subsidized lines, easy money and low interest rates, the shipbuilding industry which had been depressed since the close of the World War, revived and boomed temporarily in 1928. Tonnage output, which in 1919 amounted to as much as 674,000 tons, dropped to 53,000 tons in 1926. This was increased to 112,583 tons in 1928, and to 167,365 tons in 1929. However, as the improvement was brought about artificially and not by general improvements in economic conditions, the industry soon became dull again, and was further depressed by the enforcement of the conditions of the London Disarmament Agreement. Naval orders to private shipbuilding companies were reduced by 30%, which, together with the decreased orders from private transportation companies reduced the 1931 output to 84,004 tons and in 1932 to 58,763 tons.

Shipbuilding in 1934

Owing, however, to the subsidies granted by the Department of Communications since 1932 for the improvement of steamers, shipbuilding industries have shown some activities since. The subsidies were granted with an aim of constructing 200,000 tons of new steamers, and closed at the end of March, 1935. The second subsidies will follow and the shipbuilding industry will be more than ever busy. Furthermore, the supplementary plan of the Navy is benefiting authorized dockyards, while orders on cruisers, destroyers, torpedo boats, submarine sweepers, etc. are making other shipyards very busy and prosperous. In addition to this, due to the low exchange rate, enquiries for steamers are forthcoming from Brazil, Siam, Italy, France, Sweden, Soviet Russia, Manchoukuo, China, etc. Statistics as of August 1, 1934 shows that those steamers, the displacement of which is over 100 tons, and which were on keel on that date numbered 104 with total displacement of 143,016 tons, which is the highest record shown since April, 1930. It must not be overlooked that the tendency since 1933 is that small and medium-sized steamers with fast speed are in great demand. On August 1, 1934, the number of steamers whose displacement was less than 1,000 tons numbered 84, which was 80 per cent. of the total order. In 1933 there were 360 shipbuilding yards of which 55 build steel vessels while the remaining 305 yards other kinds of vessels. The statistics on various phases of the industry follow:

PRODUCTION OF VESSELS

Year	Steel Vessels		Ships of Other Classes		Total Value	Fittings of ships
	No.	Value	No.	Value	In yen	In yen
1924			1,901		74,322,898	3,712,782
1925			1,443		66,497,022	4,084,449
1926			1,956		62,608,381	2,386,822
1927			1,433		65,930,642	1,583,123
1928			1,890		48,894,095	1,872,064

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Year	Steel Vessels No.	Steel Vessels Value	Ships of Other Classes No.	Ships of Other Classes Value	Total Value in yen	Fittings of ships in yen
1929	846	45,108,579	2,611	79,600,721	52,709,300	1,090,042
1930	269	111,590,488	2,376	3,547,239	115,137,722	807,727
1931	245	34,991,786	1,840	3,184,897	38,176,683	638,378
1932	509	44,224,579	1,987	1,880,400	45,104,979	475,363
1933	336	35,666,717	2,558	2,767,288	38,434,005	316,170

NUMBER OF OFFICIALS, TECHNICIANS AND WORKMEN IN DOCKYARDS EMPLOYING MORE THAN 5 PERSONS

End of	Officials	Technicians	Workmen	Others	Total
1924	2,436	3,459	96,109	2,355	104,359
1925	2,316	3,323	81,920	2,685	90,244
1926	2,507	3,393	86,391	2,192	94,283
1927	2,281	3,380	93,807	2,142	101,610
1928	2,628	3,464	91,237	3,110	100,439
1929	2,546	3,376	49,855	3,762	59,539
1930	2,224	3,002	38,036	3,675	46,937
1931	2,053	2,805	33,449	1,207	39,514
1932	1,832	2,495	33,611	1,262	39,200
1933	2,069	2,677	39,068	1,878	45,692

NUMBER OF GRIDIRONS AND WORKMEN EMPLOYED IN DOCKYARDS CAPABLE OF BUILDING VESSELS OVER 1,000 tons

	Workmen No.	Workmen Percentage %	Gridirons No.	Gridirons Index (1919 as 100)
At the end of Sept. 1919	81,823	100	89	100
„ „ 1920	77,798	95	90	101
„ June 1921	72,893	89	94	106
„ „ 1922	53,603	66	90	101
„ Dec. 1923	42,330	52	83	93
„ June 1924	43,986	54	84	94
„ „ 1925	45,711	55	82	92
„ „ 1926	37,413	46	79	89
„ „ 1927	37,491	46	77	87
„ „ 1928	40,443	49	75	84
„ „ 1929	42,568	52	77	87
„ Dec. 1930	33,077	40	75	84
„ „ 1931	33,449	40	75	84
„ „ 1932	33,611	41	75	84

VESSELS OVER 100 tons LAUNCHED IN JAPAN

Year	No.	Tonnage	Index (1919 as 100)	Year	No.	Tonnage	Index (1919 as 100)
1919	356	674,479	100	1927	35	58,390	8
1920	198	460,108	68	1928	53	112,583	17
1921	81	227,792	34	1929	79	167,365	25
1922	71	73,243	11	1930	60	154,231	23
1923	57	76,784	11	1931	49	84,004	12
1924	45	72,808	11	1932	66	58,763	8
1925	39	55,949	8	1933	67	79,820	11
1926	32	52,922	8				

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CHAPTER XX

UTILITIES

Electricity

Historical Survey

The electric light and power industry in this country dates from November, 1887, when the Tokyo Electric Light Company undertook to light 75 incandescent lamps, using a home-made generator installed at the first commercial plant at Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

Hydro-electric power production was started in 1891 in Kyoto in connection with Lake Biwa canal works. Two motors with 80 kw. each were installed.

The electric railway industry began with the establishment of the Kyoto Electric Railway Co., Ltd., in 1895, followed by the Nagoya Electric Railway Co., Ltd., in 1898. With respect to long distance transmission of electric power, Koriyama Kenshi Boseki Kaisha, Ltd. (Koriyama Silk Spinning Co., Ltd.) succeeded, in 1889, in transmitting 10,000 volts 15 miles. In 1907, Tokyo Electric Light Co., Ltd., completed the hydro-electric power station of 15,000 kw. in Komabashi, Yamanashi prefecture, and succeeded in transmitting 55,000 volts for a distance of 50 miles. This marked a new era for the hydro-electric industry.

The Hydro-Electric Industry

For over 15 years after the electric power industry was first started, coal produced electric power was supreme, and the development of the hydro-electric industry was very slow. In 1903, of the total electric power of 44,000 kw., 31,000 kw. were produced by coal, the remaining 13,000 kw. were generated by water. However, after the Russo-Japanese War, the hydro-electric industry developed very quickly.

About that time, in view of the success in transmission of power for long distances, the Temporary Investigation Bureau of Hydro-Electric Power was established under the direct supervision of the Minister of Communications, and investigations as to the available water power were made throughout the country. As the result of these investigations and encouragement from the Bureau, hydro-electric power production quickly developed and by 1912 had increased to 233,000 kw. exceeding the thermally produced power by 4,500 kw. Development during and after the World War was rapid, especially after the great earthquake in the Kanto District in 1923. In 1933 the hydro-electric power developed totalled 3,168,705 k.w., while the thermal power amounted to 1,827,131 k.w. The rapid increase in production finally resulted in an over-supply of power, a factor which later became the weakness of the industry. However, a combination of factors has aided the industry to regain prosperity. After some years of practical idleness it has resumed construction of hydro-electric plants, and according to the Electric Bureau, Communications Ministry, work was in progress on 22 sites at the end of 1934 on the erection of plants with a combined capacity of 428,360 kilo-

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watts, of which 420,000 kilowatts will be hydro-electric. Most of the work is expected to be completed by the end of 1935.

Present Position of Hydro- and Thermal Electric Industry

During 1931, the price of coal declined, and the cost of thermal electric power became lower than hydro-electric power, and from that time on thermal power began to draw attention. In 1934, owing to an increased demand for electric power, new plans for obtaining the source of power were contemplated, in which thermal power came to occupy an important position, inasmuch as it was then considered as an independent source, and not as a supplementary source to water power. In the same year the Kwansai Kyodo Kwaryoku Co. (thermal power), which was established to facilitate the plan of control of power, began to operate. The demand for power was so large that it exceeded the supply, and the company is obliged to increase its capacity to 250,000 k. w. before the end of 1935. In Kyushu districts, the Kyushu Kyodo Kwaryoku Co. was established in December, 1934. So also in Kwanto districts, a plan to establish the Kwanto Kyodo Kwaryoku Co., with a view to unifying the work of control of power, was advanced.

The Tokyo Electric Light has completed a plan to get 100,000 k. w. from the thermal source at Tsurumi before the end of 1935. The Daido Electric Power and the Toho Electric Power are each following suit in increasing about 45,000 k. w. through thermal source, and thermal electric industry is changing its position as from a supplementary to an independent one.

COMPARISON OF ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED (in k.w.)

Year	Hydro-electric	Thermal	Total
1907	38,622	76,288	114,910
1912	233,339	228,864	462,203
1917	511,090	364,474	875,563
1918	597,124	386,842	983,966
1919	710,929	422,314	1,133,243
1920	825,387	552,159	1,377,546
1921	914,744	611,974	1,526,718
1922	1,070,060	709,113	1,779,173
1923	1,307,706	755,079	2,062,785
1924	1,474,357	763,146	2,237,503
1925	1,813,508	954,633	2,768,141
1926	1,965,970	1,236,644	3,202,614
1927	2,111,087	1,356,044	3,467,131
1928	2,290,351	1,531,703	3,822,054
1929	2,581,949	1,611,674	4,193,623
1930	2,797,637	1,601,677	4,399,314
1931	3,056,936	1,599,588	4,656,524
1932	3,105,930	1,827,131	4,933,061
1933	3,168,705	1,912,037	5,080,742

The quantity of power generated in Japan proper according to the report of 96 electric suppliers, who supply 95 per cent. of the total electric power in Japan, classified according to hydro- and thermal sources, and also by month, since December, 1933, follows :

QUANTITY OF POWER CONSUMED BY MONTH

(in 1,000 K. W. H.)

Districts	Honshu			Shikoku			Kyushu		
	Hydro	Thermal	Total	Hydro	Thermal	Total	Hydro	Thermal	Total
Dec. 1933	1,001,609	320,215	1,331,824	27,301	9,014	36,315	132,740	83,173	215,915
Total 1933	12,020,726	2,056,328	14,077,054	330,354	27,285	357,639	1,814,341	611,085	2,425,426
1934									
Jan.	856,447	410,320	1,266,767	28,515	9,402	37,917	115,007	89,035	204,042
Feb.	709,610	438,728	1,148,338	25,914	5,409	31,323	105,510	82,391	187,901
March	946,527	338,036	1,284,563	30,206	5,296	35,502	127,534	77,529	205,063

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Districts	Honshu			Shikoku			Kyushu		
	Hydro	Thermal	Total	Hydro	Thermal	Total	Hydro	Thermal	Total
April	1,145,620	109,808	1,255,428	31,971	23	31,994	147,758	63,316	211,074
May	1,176,157	120,417	1,206,574	32,662	944	33,606	136,607	79,558	216,165
June	1,072,645	158,688	1,231,333	29,515	4,417	33,932	120,125	81,855	201,980
July	1,095,045	158,506	1,253,551	33,334	3,770	37,104	114,506	77,208	191,714
Aug.	1,065,826	176,367	1,242,193	21,878	14,894	36,767	107,361	86,709	194,070
Sept.	1,065,579	129,907	1,195,486	33,487	1,783	35,270	150,282	63,470	213,752
Oct.	1,221,223	174,491	1,935,714	36,483	817	37,300	172,250	65,747	237,997
Nov.	1,189,063	193,657	1,382,720	25,624	3,765	29,389	132,507	87,359	219,866
Dec.	1,146,430	347,870	1,494,300	33,310	8,837	421,147	123,843	100,976	224,819
Total 1934 1935	2,690,172	2,756,795	15,446,967	372,894	59,357	432,251	1,553,290	1,555,153	2,508,442
Jan.	1,063,961	350,515	1,414,476	28,573	13,936	42,509	122,263	96,872	219,135
Feb.	932,457	357,124	1,289,581	29,449	7,541	36,990	109,118	94,222	203,340
Mar.	1,179,082	262,846	1,441,928	35,898	4,986	40,884	142,486	85,377	227,863

Districts	Hokkaido			Total of the country	Total of the country (Unit: 1,000 k.h.w.)	
	Hydro	Thermal	Total	Hydro		
Dec. 1934	58,222	804	59,026	1,229,872	413,208	1,643,080
Total 1933 1933	534,977	8,430	543,407	14,700,398	2,703,128	17,403,526
Jan.	53,653	1,921	55,574	1,053,622	510,678	1,564,300
Feb.	49,468	2,630	52,098	890,502	529,158	1,419,660
March	48,561	3,534	52,095	1,152,828	424,395	1,577,223
Apr.	54,197	1,154	55,351	1,379,546	174,301	1,553,847
May	56,765	717	57,482	1,402,191	201,636	1,603,827
June	55,010	658	55,668	1,277,295	245,618	1,522,913
July	55,584	5,814	61,398	1,298,469	245,298	1,543,767
Aug.	55,998	1,001	56,999	1,251,058	274,440	1,530,029
Sept.	55,203	897	56,100	1,304,551	196,057	1,500,608
Oct.	60,208	1,099	61,307	1,490,164	242,154	1,732,318
Nov.	61,296	1,536	62,832	1,418,490	286,317	1,704,807
Dec-	62,116	1,951	64,067	1,365,699	459,634	1,825,333
Total 1934 1935	668,059	22,912	690,971	15,284,415	3,794,217	19,078,632
Jan.	54,791	5,097	59,888	1,269,588	466,420	1,736,008
Feb.	43,389	5,931	54,320	1,119,413	464,818	1,584,231
March	51,942	5,276	57,218	1,409,408	358,485	1,767,893

Trend of Demand

For Lighting In 1933 the number of electric-lighted households reduced by 147,205 as compared with the previous year. In the number of lamps, however, the ever advancing tendency was kept unchanged.

In 1933 the average consumer had 3.39 lamps and the average lamp used 21 candle power. These figures contrast with 2.4 lamps and 11.9 candle power in 1917. Of the total number of electric lamps which amounted to 38,382,771 in 1933, demand in the 122 cities comprised 57 per cent. or 21,864,282 in number, and the average number of lamps used in an urban household was 5.0.

The growth of the demand for power for lighting purposes in the country as a whole and in the prefectures, in 1933, is as shown in the following two tables:

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GROWTH OF DEMAND FOR POWER FOR LIGHTING

Year	No. of consumers	No. of lamps	Candle-power for these lights	Electric power for these lamps kw.
1923	8,305,218	21,687,810	334,162,383	430,014
1924	8,976,991	24,447,632	404,210,635	556,211
1925	9,652,058	27,320,740	461,073,576	574,268
1926	10,165,739	30,159,042	547,918,369	683,584
1927	10,547,235	32,322,991	605,604,846	736,169
1928	10,847,432	33,909,420	656,348,698	797,458
1929	11,170,618	35,893,353	704,634,862	863,046
1930	11,352,372	36,839,607	728,869,987	887,703
1931	11,446,589	37,413,988	782,840,943	959,144
1932	11,530,440	38,048,413	799,183,116	978,846
1933	11,383,235	38,382,771	810,000,000	990,000

ELECTRIC LIGHTING IN THE VARIOUS PREFECTURES AT THE END OF 1933

(Number of lights per 100 persons)

Prefecture	Number	Prefecture	Number	Prefecture	Number	Prefecture	Number
Tokyo	115.4	Yamanashi	49.0	Osaka	89.9	Hiroshima	59.9
Kanagawa	74.8	Aichi	66.4	Kyoto	115.8	Tottori	46.1
Saitama	38.0	Miyé	49.8	Hyogo	68.1	Shimané	46.4
Gumma	44.2	Gifu	51.5	Nara	62.9	Okayama	58.0
Chiba	38.9	Nagano	45.8	Shiga	58.2	Yamaguchi	36.4
Ibaraki	30.0	Fukui	70.0	Wakayama	51.8	Kagawa	47.7
Tochigi	34.2	Ishikawa	63.6	Tokushima	42.8	Ehimé	43.2
Shizuoka	53.5	Toyama	56.3	Kochi	42.0	Kumamoto	48.8
Nagasaki	36.1	Miyazaki	38.3	Niigata	48.5	Yamagata	35.2
Fukuoka	55.2	Kagoshima	25.6	Fukushima	29.9	Akita	29.0
Oita	52.4	Okinawa	6.1	Iwaté	23.0	Hokkaido	36.2
Saga	45.3	Miyagi	38.1	Aomori	36.2	Average	57.1

For Power Purposes The increase of demand for electric power is even more marked than that for light. At the end of 1931, the number of motors obtaining power from electric power suppliers was 390,000 and the power supplied 1,320,000 h.p. The number of motors getting supplies from their own plants or from Government official plants was 129,000, the amount of power drawn being 2,513,000 h.p. This made a total of 519,000 motors and 3,833,000 h.p. and when compared with figures of 1922, the number of motors had trebled, while the h.p. had doubled.

Electric power supplied for purposes other than lighting or motive power, i. e., power supplied to the electro-chemical industry or for family use, amounted, at the end of 1932, to 951,412 kw., four times as much as that supplied in 1922. The increase of demand for electric power for private purposes deserves special notice and the following two tables show the growth of demand for electric power, since 1922, and the chief consuming industries.

AMOUNT OF ELECTRIC POWER SUPPLIED TO VARIOUS KINDS OF INDUSTRIES IN 1933

(in 1,000 k.w.)

Textile industry	516
Metal ,,	258
Machinery industry	147
Ceramics ,,	170
Chemical ,,	562
Saw mills and wood-working industry	135
Printing and bookbinding industry	21
Foodstuff industry	291
Mining ,,	366
Agricultural and aquatic industries	69
Others	715
Total	3,255

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INCREASING DEMAND FOR ELECTRIC POWER

Year	Electric motors		No. of kw. supplied for other electrical equipment
	No. of motors	Horse-power	kw.
1923	204,954	1,726,737	232,604
1924	243,756	1,823,235	274,367
1925	261,592	2,087,008	303,983
1926	298,956	2,292,690	341,981
1927	339,737	2,404,569	446,366
1928	412,156	3,050,390	685,054
1929	456,793	3,319,217	689,811
1930	497,757	3,577,410	864,095
1931	519,765	3,832,517	929,510
1932	565,602	3,834,462	951,412
1933	—	4,364,257	—

Manufacturing Industries Using Electric Power

Electrical Machinery and Apparatus Electric power is consumed, in addition to running electric motors and illuminating electric lamps, for manufacturing various electrical machinery and apparatus, electric bulbs, electric wire and cables. Electrical machinery and apparatus were originally mostly imported from abroad, but a manufacturing industry has gradually developed in this country, the development during the World War being particularly remarkable, and now large quantities of electrical equipment are being exported. The production in the last ten years is as shown below. In 1927 there were but 54,600 motors in the textile and dyeing industries, with an average capacity of 6.2 h.p. At the end of 1932 there were 123,200 motors, and the average horse power was 6.6 h.p. In the mechanical industries the gains have been even more pronounced. There the corresponding figures are 21,500 motors and 18.3 h.p. for 1927 and 75,200 motors and 8.03 h.p. for 1932. Over that six-year period the number of motors expanded 66 per cent. and horse power 59 per cent. and the average size of motor has fallen 57 per cent. The decline in the average size of motor is no reason of discouragement. On the contrary, it is a sign that electricity is finding its way into the smaller factores, into the machine shops, in other words, into the plants where it can save the most money.

Figures on the output of electric equipments during 1924-33 follow:

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRICAL MACHINES AND APPARATUS

Year	Electric machines and apparatus	Electric bulbs	Electric wires and cables	Total
	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	88,764,000	18,030,000	87,738,000	194,331,000
1925	98,919,000	17,586,000	104,620,000	221,125,000
1926	105,202,000	16,106,000	113,551,000	234,859,000
1927	94,002,000	25,685,000	107,287,000	226,973,000
1928	125,395,000	26,817,000	109,742,000	261,954,000
1929	126,738,000	29,088,000	110,543,000	266,369,000
1930	106,840,000	23,216,000	73,725,000	203,781,000
1931	73,435,000	17,811,000	51,424,000	142,670,000
1932	76,310,000	15,577,000	47,281,000	141,168,000
1933	112,080,000	23,446,000	79,774,000	215,300,000

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Electro-chemical Industry Stimulated by the development of various other industries there has been much progress in the electro-chemical industry, especially during the World War. The industry received a heavy blow when the reaction set in after the War, but as the variety of commodities produced by electricity expanded recovery was soon achieved. Production was originally confined to electro-copper, calcium carbonate and nitrogenous fertilizers, but of late years many new lines, as seen from the following table, have been added.

PRODUCTION OF ELECTRO-CHEMICAL INDUSTRIES

(in ¥1,000)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Carbonate of lime, nitrogen and sulphate of ammonia	35,816	39,147	37,004	25,757	22,583	33,851
Phosphorous	696	208	562	575	680	1,247
Tin	1,422	1,362	1,822	1,179	1,890	3,026
Caustic soda	4,111	3,984	4,642	2,874	3,430	10,465
Electro-copper, gold, silver and alum	73,751	89,799	66,025	52,642	63,242	87,068
Iron, copper and alloyed iron	6,273	5,067	6,913	3,449	7,692	18,038
Electro-zinc and bismuth	2,832	2,564	3,159	1,047	927	—
Bleaching powder	4,320	3,855	4,168	1,399	1,318	3,775
Solidified oil	590	711	1,292	1,125	3,018	3,104
Others	13,570	5,259	6,429	4,174	3,086	10,847
Total	143,383	152,011	131,516	94,221	106,866	171,421

Electric Railway

The first electrification of railway was in 1904 on a part of the Kobu Railway, but since then great developments have been witnessed. The Communications Ministry was none too pleased with the multitude of applications for electric transportation permits. There is a feeling that the time has come to stop expansion of the electric lines of the country and to endeavour to restore a modicum of sense to the business. Private lines have almost doubled in number and more than doubled in mileage in the past 10 years. But the number of passengers has risen relatively little. In fact, ever since 1929 the passengers have been declining and in 1932 and 1933 there were fewer than in 1926.

This loss has been due to duplication of services, to bus lines and to the increased efficiency of the Government lines.

In 1932 there were 208 electric railway companies who supplied electric power to their own business and others, and the total power generated by them was 627,302 k. w. As to the results of the electric railway business both Governmental and private see Chapter XXV.

Electric Power Suppliers

The following tables show the number of suppliers of electric power and power supplied in 1933. Among the industries, many electric railways are operating their business on power purchased from power suppliers 30 per cent. of whom are themselves obtaining supplies from others. In the case of private, semi-private and Government-owned plants, most of them are buying about 65 per cent. of their requirements from electric companies.

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The tables show also that the upward movement in the number of power supplying companies has practically come to an end. This does not mean that there no longer is any expansion, but that mergers are almost keeping pace with the establishment of new suppliers. Between 1932 and 1933 the number of operating concerns rose by but two. At the same time, operating companies which buy power rose from 391 to 417, so that the number of those generating dropped from 425 to 401.

POWER SUPPLY COMPANIES

Year		Generating Water	Steam	Purchasing	Total
1928	Opened	449	52	263	764
	Unopened	15	8	55	78
	Total	464	60	318	842
1931	Opened	305	45	385	733
	Unopened	5	7	28	40
	Total	310	52	411	733
1932	Opened	366	59	391	816
	Unopened	8	5	21	34
	Total	374	64	412	850
1933	Opened	345	56	417	818
	Unopened	7	3	15	25
	Total	352	59	433	843

POWER SUPPLIED BY DIFFERENT CLASSES OF SUPPLIERS IN 1933

(in k.w.)

Suppliers of power	In operation	To be operated	Total
Power supply companies	3,094,282	951,605	4,045,887
Electric railway	71,178	52,452	123,630
Electric supply and electric railway	1,347,344	772,119	2,119,463
Total	4,512,804	1,776,176	6,288,980
Semi-private	29,765	35,942	65,707
Private	527,579	109,308	636,887
Governmental	10,594	1,166	11,760
Total	567,938	146,416	714,354
Grand total	5,080,742	1,922,592	7,003,334

POWER SUPPLIED CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SOURCES OF ELECTRIC POWER IN 1933

(in k.w.)

Sources of power	In operation	To be operated	Total
Water power	3,168,705	1,504,098	4,672,803
Steam power	1,861,647	413,622	2,275,269
Gas power	50,390	4,872	55,262
Total	5,080,742	1,922,592	7,003,334

Electrical Power Establishments and Increase of Power

In the eleven years 1922-33 both the number of establishments and power generated increased by from one-and-a-half to two times. Along with the great development in hydro-electric power stations a noteworthy increase in the number of thermal power stations took place. Hydro-electric power is generated on a very large scale and can be supplied at a much lower cost, so many industries have found it more profitable to operate machinery by purchasing power from large suppliers rather than generate their own or buy from small thermal producers.

In 1933 there was a sharp gain in the number of companies generating electricity. Constrasted to the 1932 advance of 302 companies making their own power, the 1933 figure was 767. Practically all the gain was in private companies, 731 to be exact, against 216 in 1932.

Installations which are being made are mostly small. In 1930 the average size of the 5,661 private plants was only 131 k.w. In 1932 the 6,226 private plants averaged 74 k.w. In 1933 the average for 6,957 installations was 75 k.w. Electrification is obviously spreading to the small factories.

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INCREASE OF ELECTRIC POWER ESTABLISHMENTS (1923-1933)

Year		Power supply and Electric Railway Companies				Private and Government owned			
		Hydro	Thermal	Purchasing	Total	Hydro	Thermal	Purchasing	Total
1923	In operation	466	72	164	702	785	1,575	1,760	4,120
	To be operated	38	17	31	86	161	23	72	256
	Total	504	89	195	788	946	1,598	1,832	4,376
1924	,,	438	63	228	729	768	1,409	2,020	4,197
		27	19	47	93	169	23	83	275
		465	82	275	822	937	1,432	2,103	4,472
1925	,,	413	62	263	738	954	1,276	2,382	4,612
		24	12	40	76	205	19	93	317
		437	74	303	814	4,159	1,295	2,475	4,929
1926	,,	428	60	244	732	991	1,106	2,658	4,755
		20	12	46	78	161	19	76	256
		448	72	290	810	1,152	1,152	2,734	5,011
1927	,,	398	57	273	728	1,046	977	3,200	5,223
		19	5	43	67	202	27	128	357
		417	62	316	795	1,248	1,004	3,328	5,580
1928	,,	405	52	263	720	1,064	954	3,358	5,376
		15	8	155	78	128	12	80	274
		420	60	318	798	1,246	966	3,438	5,650
1929	,,	371	49	312	732	1,070	884	3,588	5,542
		14	6	38	58	151	19	138	308
		385	55	350	790	1,221	903	3,726	5,850
1930	,,	358	41	334	733	1,093	844	4,038	5,975
		6	5	35	46	138	13	116	267
		364	46	369	779	1,231	857	4,154	6,242
1931	,,	305	45	333	733	1,118	871	4,363	6,352
		5	7	28	40	116	40	275	431
		310	52	411	773	1,234	911	4,638	6,782
1932	,,	366	59	391	816	1,148	1,326	4,508	6,582
		8	5	21	34	98	37	153	288
		374	64	412	850	1,246	263	4,661	6,870
1933	,,	—	—	—	818	—	—	—	7,347
		—	—	—	25	—	—	—	251
		—	—	—	843	—	—	—	7,598

Year		Total			
		Hydro	Thermal	Purchasing	Total
1923	In operation	1,251	1,647	1,924	4,822
	To be operated	199	40	103	342
	Total	1,450	1,687	2,027	5,164
1924	,,	1,206	1,472	2,248	4,926
		196	42	130	368
		1,402	1,514	2,378	5,294
1925	,,	1,355	1,338	2,644	5,350
		229	31	133	393
		1,596	1,369	2,778	5,543
1926	,,	1,419	1,166	2,902	5,487
		181	31	122	334
		1,600	1,197	3,024	5,821
1927	,,	1,444	1,034	3,472	5,951
		221	32	171	424
		1,665	1,066	3,644	6,375
1928	,,	1,479	1,006	3,621	6,106
		197	20	135	352
		1,676	1,026	3,756	6,458
1929	,,	1,440	933	3,901	6,274
		165	25	176	366
		1,605	958	4,077	6,640

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Year		Hydro	Thermal	Purchasing	Total
1930	"	1,451	885	4,372	6,708
		144	18	151	313
		1,595	903	4,523	7,021
1931	"	1,423	916	4,757	7,096
		121	47	147	315
		1,544	963	4,904	7,411
1932	"	1,514	985	4,899	7,398
		106	42	174	322
		1,620	1,027	5,073	7,720
1933	"	1,534	1,119	5,512	8,165
		124	24	128	276
		1,658	1,143	5,640	8,441

INCREASE OF CAPACITY TO GENERATE POWER (1923-1933)

Year		Water power	Thermal power	Total
1923	Developed	1,307,706	755,079	2,062,785
	Under construction	850,021	199,195	2,049,216
	Total	2,157,727	954,274	3,112,001
1924	"	1,474,357	763,146	2,237,503
		1,021,963	250,832	1,272,295
		2,496,320	1,013,478	3,509,798
1925	"	1,813,508	954,633	2,768,141
		1,076,526	397,937	1,474,463
		2,890,034	1,352,570	4,242,604
1926	"	1,965,970	1,226,644	3,202,614
		1,426,611	222,438	1,649,049
		3,392,581	1,459,082	4,851,663
1927	"	2,111,087	1,356,044	3,467,131
		1,764,334	152,825	1,917,159
		3,875,421	1,508,869	5,384,290
1928	"	2,290,351	1,531,703	3,822,054
		1,693,270	146,882	1,840,152
		3,983,621	1,678,585	5,662,206
1929	"	2,581,949	1,611,674	4,193,623
		1,325,788	246,747	1,572,535
		3,907,737	1,858,421	5,766,158
1930	"	2,797,637	1,601,577	4,399,214
		1,385,454	275,466	1,660,920
		4,183,091	1,877,153	6,060,234
1931	"	3,056,936	1,599,588	4,656,524
		1,392,099	475,192	1,867,291
		4,449,035	2,074,780	6,523,815
1932	"	3,105,930	1,827,131	4,933,061
		1,426,310	439,069	1,865,379
		4,532,240	2,266,200	6,798,440
1933	"	3,168,705	1,912,037	5,080,742
		1,504,098	418,494	1,922,592
		4,672,803	2,330,531	7,003,334

The Industry in 1934

Trend in General Electric industry was recovering from depression with 1931 as its bottom. Towards the close of 1933, a plan to control electric power was completed and the year 1934 derived benefit from it. Owing to great industrial activities as well as the control which came to show its efficiency, the declining tendency of power rates stopped in 1933, and in 1934 it took an upward turn. The control by the Government made

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one step further in 1934, for it began to look over both generation and transmission of power. It succeeded in perfecting a plan of control over three principal districts of Kanto, Chubu and Kinki. On the other hand, electric power companies reopened works of constructing power houses, the continuation of which was suspended or postponed for some reasons, and increased capacities of the old plants to meet the increased demand, and the industry in 1934 displayed great activities.

Improvements in Conditions of Loans The total loan of power companies amounted to ¥900,000,000, most of which were to mature between 1934 and 1936. With the adoption of open-end mortgage system, the interest rate has been reduced from 0.5 to 1 per cent. on average, and the big five companies succeeded in reducing interest rate for ¥550,000,000, so that if the total loan of all the power companies whose interest rate was reduced were taken into consideration, it would become a vast sum. On account of the comparatively firm tone of foreign exchange, foreign loans were also reduced through purchasing them.

With the improved monetary situation, shareholders of power companies became more lenient toward the latter, and many companies such as Nihon and Toho Power succeeded not only in increasing dividend, but also in extending capitalization. Ujigawa and Daido Electric Power are going to follow suit.

Business Result Business results of electric power companies showed great improvements, Nihon and Toho Electric Power increased dividend by 1 per cent., Tokyo Electric Light revived 4 per cent. dividend, and Daido and Ujigawa Electric Power are going to revive dividends. Power companies other than these are going to do the same, some having already succeeded in increasing capitalization.

Changes in 1934 New electric enterprises, new business opened, power stations completed, mergers, transfers, etc. in 1934 as investigated by the Communications Department follow:

1934	New enterprises	Business opened	New power stations	Mergers and transfers
Jan.	—	—	3	3
Feb.	—	1	3	2
March	—	—	4	4
Apr.	—	1	4	1
May	1	—	—	4
June	—	—	5	2
July	—	—	2	—
Aug.	—	—	3	—
Sept.	1	—	1	1
Oct.	1	—	1	5
Nov.	1	—	1	2
Dec.	2	—	2	6
Total	6	2	29	30

Electric Power Generated in 1934 Changes made in electric power generated classified according to principal districts follow:

CHANGES IN ELECTRIC POWER GENERATED

in k.w.h.

District	In 1933	In 1934
Mainland	14,077,054	15,446,967
Shikoku	357,639	432,251
Kyushu	2,425,426	2,508,443
Hokkaido	543,407	690,971
Total	17,403,526	19,078,632

Foreign Loans Foreign loans of the big five power companies stood in February at $84,000,000 for Tokyo Light, $10,825,000 for Toho Power, $19,426,000 for Daido Power, $7,568,000 for Nihon Power, and $8,900,000 for Ujigawa Electric. Of these, holdings of Tokyo Light amounted to $6,004,000, Toho Power $4,835,000, Daido Power $1,800,000, Nihon Power $2,950,000, while the amount held by Ujigawa Electric is unknown. At the end of April, the Finance Department permitted the

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purchase of foreign debentures for redemption to the amount of ¥22,300,000 (¥15,000,000 for Tokyo Electric, ¥3,000,000 for Toho Power, ¥2,500,000 for Ujigawa Electric, and ¥1,800,000 for Nihon Power) as an exception to Capital Flight Prevention Law. However, owing to the rise in value of the debenture bonds on account of low interest rate at home and inflation policy in America, little interest was shown for the purchase of the loans. Moreover, the power companies did not feel the necessity to do so on account of stability of exchange at about $28 or $29. The fact that these companies needed funds for development of new sources of power made them appropriate more money for those and the amount of foreign loans obtained in 1934 was small.

In reviving dividend of 4 per cent. in the latter term of 1934, Tokyo Light announced its inability to adhere to the gold clause in its indentures, which drew an attention. However, apart from the development of the question of gold clause in America, electric power companies resolved not to adhere to the gold clause. The foreign loans which once threatened the possibility of management of electric companies came to show that they no longer act as heavy burdens to the companies. They, therefore, came to take it wiser to appropriate funds in other directions than to make haste in redeeming the loans.

The Big Five

Five leading power companies, whose authorized and paid-up capitals, profits, etc. are given in the table below, supply electric current to 33% of the total number of lamps, besides 55% of the total other power. They practically dominate the electrical industry at present.

FORMATION OF CAPITAL, ETC. OF FIVE LEADING POWER COMPANIES AT THE END OF THE FIRST TERM, 1934

(In ¥1,000)

Companies	Head Office	Auth'd capital	Paid-up capital	Loans	Div'd
Tokyo Electric Light	Tokyo	429,562	429,562	369,434	—
Nihon Electric Power	Osaka	120,955	120,955	88,182	5%
Toho Electric Power	Tokyo	130,000	130,000	123,644	6%
Daido Electric	Tokyo	176,000	130,973	100,488	—
Ujigawa Electric power Co.	Osaka	92,500	92,500	86,494	—

Capitalization and Profits

The total authorized capital of different companies in 1933 amounted to ¥4,511,663,000 of which the paid-up capital was ¥3,494,202,000. Debenture and other loan accounted for ¥2,301,268,000, while the total fixed capital was ¥5,194,702,000. The establishment of great power stations, and transmission of power for long distances were the chief causes of the increase of capital.

TABLE SHOWING INCREASE OF CAPITAL, DEBENTURE AND OTHER LOANS, 1922-1932

Years	Authorized capital	Paid-up capital	Fixed capital	Debenture and other loans
	yen	yen	yen	yen
1922	2,124,047,000	1,507,946,000	1,686,463,000	415,325,000
1927	3,524,199,000	2,677,153,000	3,667,387,000	1,506,040,000
1932	4,174,738,000	3,326,834,000	4,888,175,000	2,494,049,000
1933	4,511,663,000	3,454,202,000	5,194,702,000	2,306,268,000

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The rate of profit earned is as shown in the following table:

PROFITS OF ELECTRIC INDUSTRY 1922-1932

Year	Paid-up capital	Profit	Rate of profit against paid-up capital
	yen	yen	yen
1922	1,507,949,000	188,295,000	12.0%
1923	1,703,195,000	192,212,000	11.0
1924	2,012,205,000	217,249,000	11.0
1925	2,218,649,000	252,977,000	11.0
1926	2,453,588,000	279,331,000	11.0
1927	2,677,153,000	279,541,000	10.5
1928	2,868,717,000	282,880,000	10.0
1929	3,019,222,000	301,900,000	10.0
1930	3,180,810,000	255,800,000	8.0
1931	3,234,181,000	227,061,830	7.0
1932	3,326,534,000	195,997,000	5.9
1933	3,494,202,000	183,100,000	5.2

Gas Industry

Introduction

When compared with the electric industry, the gas industry has been very slow in its development. The introduction of gas took place in 1885, when it was used in Yokohama for street lighting purposes. Later in the same year Tokyo adopted it for the same purpose. The capital invested in 1885 was ¥54,000, and a slow but steady increase took place until 1925, when the invested capital stood at ¥276,373,000. After that year the industry made great strides as the following figures show:

End of	Material Consumed	Supply			Consumption	Motors	
	Coal	Output	Amount Supplied to Consumers	No. of Consumers	No. of Lights and Burners	Number	Horse-power
	Metric ton	Thousand cubic metres	Thousand cubic metres				
1917	658,530	226,209	229,501	549,565	2,455,241	1,703	531,885
1918	735,161	259,892	261,371	505,401	2,364,394	1,531	414,815
1919	718,574	277,096	275,212	530,061	2,182,307	1,469	13,141
1920	727,705	293,414	294,544	492,214	2,195,782	1,184	11,455
1921	718,271	305,666	306,470	502,828	2,234,623	966	9,938
1922	761,262	345,240	347,261	552,367	2,353,674	867	9,415
1923	707,226	329,017	326,517	463,745	798,032	699	7,058
1924	727,314	353,266 * 37,288	352,952	568,477	1,606,096	559	6,616
1925	781,911	354,362 * 36,605	408,418	683,087	1,865,183	497	6,648
1926	904,087	444,390 * 42,580	423,032	795,226	2,043,829	429	6,638
1927	1,036,552	496,810 * 68,096	486,911	953,688	2,234,722	358	6,524
1928	1,191,007	576,140 * 88,884	578,493	1,212,024	2,623,257	308	6,162
1929	1,243,137	639,972 * 88,566	653,337	1,462,221	3,057,487	265	6,023
1930	1,305,297	668,329 * 103,088	700,249	1,622,962	3,438,194	224	4,712
1931	1,229,869	691,222 * 89,742	740,081	1,716,662	3,704,090	193	3,807
1932	1,283,216	734,188	712,717	1,785,205	3,921,620	186	3,287
1933	1,402,000	770,447	709,967	1,866,000	4,145,000	—	—

Note: * Aqueous Gas.

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Present State of the Business

General Aspects The difficulty of disposition of by-products which was a stumbling-block to the development of the gas industry disappeared along with activities in heavy and chemical industries, and the industry's policy to increase demand through lowering the price of gas came to reap its fruits. In fact, the gas industry may be said to be developing with the prosperity in cities which is caused through inflation. On the other hand, the higher prices of coal and steel are making both production and construction costs higher.

Demand on Gas The demand for gas is making a steady increase every year. Working results of five large companies in 1933 and 1934 were as follows:

PRODUCTION OR SALES OF GAS BY FIVE LEADING COMPANIES

Name of Co.	(In 1,000 cu.m.) 1933	1934	Percentage of increase in 1934
Tokyo Gas	402,248	415,500	4.3%
Toho ,,	85,970	86,421	1.3%
Kyoto ,,	39,354	40,522	3.0%
Osaka ,,	115,243	133,235	15.6%
Kobe ,,	40,255	43,715	8.6%
Total	633,070	669,397	5.7%

Figures show 5.7 per cent. increase over 1933. The abrupt increase in Osaka and Kobé in 1934 is due to ordinary increase in number of consumers as well as to the damages caused by the typhoon of that year. Owing to improvements in various gas appliances, gas is now used in a very economic way so that the consumption of gas per meter is decreasing. The increase in demand is therefore solely due to increase in number of consumers.

Higher Cost of Production The biggest problem for gas producers in 1934 was the higher prices of coal and steel, the former having relations with the cost of gas production and the latter with expansion of the industry. The price of coal rose from ¥8.10 per ton in 1932 to ¥12.32 in 1934. As the contract for the purchase of coal runs generally a year, the result of the purchase generally appears in the following year. From the above figures, therefore, the production cost of gas in 1935 will be about 50 per cent. higher than that for 1933, and the price of coal has now become a subject of great importance to the gas industry.

Fortunately the prices of coke and other by-products rose owing to increased demand on these from heavy and chemical industries, and this enabled producers to make good in 1934 the disadvantages caused by the higher price of coal. However, the income from gas which occupies about 70 to 80 per cent. of the total income is fixed and cannot be increased under the present system. Though the increase in the price of coal may also increase the price of the by-products, whether the latter can cover in 1935 the loss caused by the former remains still to be seen.

The average price of bar steel in 1932 was ¥67, which went up to ¥96 in 1933, and to ¥100 in 1934. The burden which came from the higher price of steel materials was not as serious as that of coal. Especially as this came about after most of the producers had completed new expansion works, the degree of pressure which it brought to bear upon the business of producers was comparatively small.

Industry in 1933 According to figures published in 1934, the number of gas enterprises in 1933 was 102 opened and 14 unopened. As compared with the previous year, the number opened increased by 2 while the number unopened decreased by 1.

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95 of the opened are private enterprises while 7 are the city-managed. Again, 87 of them are exclusively engaged in gas while those jointly engaged with electric industry numbered 15, of which 10 were of private, 1 the city-managed and 4 managing with various kinds of enterprises. The formation of capital of the industry in 1933 and 1934 is as shown below. The reason that the capital increased in 1934 was due to establishment of new companies and payment of unpaid capital. In the capitalizatidn columns the investment in the electric enterprises is included and the real capital invested in purely gas industry is estimated to run from ¥273,000,000 to ¥280,000,000.

BUSINESS RESULTS OF GAS COMPANIES

(In ¥1,000)

March	Paid-up Capital	Fixed Capital	Profit	Percentage of profit against Fixed Capital	Dividend rate
1930	350,282	459,686	48,874	9.2%	9.6%
1931	382,980	555,614	50,896	9.0	8.7
1932	395,632	571,564	51,452	8.7	8.3
1933	400,908	580,053	50,317	9.1	8.0
1934	419,096	584,328	53,029	9.1	7.8

Warehousing

History

Since warehousing depends on the storing of large quantities of goods, transportation facilities are the factors which influence its success, an expansion of one calls for an expansion of the other and, in Japan, it was the development of transport facilities in the days of Meiji which gave rise to the modern warehousing business.

Warehouses of kinds have always existed. Emperors in olden times kept rice and cereals in warehouses for military purposes. Later, cereals were kept to provide for relief of the people in case of poor crops, but in either case, the warehouses were used for military or political, not commercial, purposes. When the Tokugawas came to rule the country as Shoguns about three hundred years ago, both Yedo (present Tokyo) and Osaka became great cities where trade and commerce flourished. Transportation by sea developed, and many feudal lords came to reside in these cities, bringing with them, or having sent to them, the agricultural products of their country districts. The produce was stored at the lords' residences, which became, in a sense, public warehouses. The produce was sold by public tender and to the successful bidder a memorandum was given against receipt of payment in cash. This memorandum was equivalent to the warehouse receipt of the present day, and the holder of the memorandum was authorized to keep his cereals in the warehouse for the time stipulated on it. Loans were often raised with memoranda as collaterals.

After the Restoration, owing to development of commerce and activity in the movement of goods, many warehouse businesses were started, the first company, to operate on a modern basis being the Soko Kaisha in Fukagawa, Tokyo, established in 1881 with a capital of ¥65,000. Dissolution took place 3 years later. In Osaka, the Konoiké family organized the Osaka Soko

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Kaisha with a capital of ¥200,000 in 1882. In 1883, the Sanbashi Kaisha in Kobé, and in 1884, the Otsu Soko Kaisha in Otsu in Miyé prefecture, were established. In 1886, the Tokyo Soko Kaisha, Ltd., was founded by the Iwasaki family. After that year there was no great change until after the Sino-Japanese War, when, with increased foreign trade and improved transportation facilities by land and sea, the number of warehouse companies rapidly increased. In 1906, there were 536 people engaged in the warehouse business, either on private account or on an incorporated basis.

Present State of the Business

The Area At the end of 1934 the number of warehouse managements which belong to the Japan Warehouse Association and which are located in principal cities is 107, and the total area covered by them is about 189,000 tsubo, with the commodities valued at ¥661,809,000. However, there are many warehouse managements, incorporated or otherwise, which do not belong to the Association. According to an investigation made by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the number of warehouse managements in the country totalled 578 in 1933, which owned 4,934 warehouses covering an area of 681,966 tsubo, besides renting 1,310 warehouses, the area of which totalled 136,012 tsubo. These warehouses are of various types, some of them being of reinforced concrete, some of brick or stone, some of iron frame and tin plates, some of storehouse type, while others are merely zinc sheet covered or of wood.

Value of Commodities The values of commodities stored in the 107 warehouses above mentioned were as follows:

VALUE OF BALANCE OF STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES

(unit ¥ 1,000)

	1921	1931	1932	1933	1934
Balance at the beginning of the year	855,260	356,844	409,988	485,987	585,085
Balance at the end of June	545,471	458,917	546,683	629,965	775,846
Increase or decrease during the half-year	*309,789	102,073	145,690	143,978	190,761

* Decrease

The figures for 1921 are given here to show that the stocks accumulated after the great slump in 1920 have been cleared away. Scarcely any stocks are kept for the purpose of speculation. When studied in conjunction with the following table the decrease in value indicates that not only has the quantity of goods decreased, but the price level in general is lower.

BALANCE OF STOCKS IN WAREHOUSES IN NUMBER OF PARCELS

(unit 1,000 pieces)

	1921	1931	1932	1933	1934
Balance at the beginning of the year	23,125	21,270	22,299	35,509	28,892
Balance at the end of June	28,901	22,113	24,866	20,509	40,208
Increase or decrease in June over Jan.	5,776	843	2,567	(−)13,969	11,316

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Stocks of various commodities warehoused as from November of 1933 until March, 1935, and the value of parcels warehoused in leading cities follow:

STOCKS OF VARIOUS COMMODITIES WAREHOUSED

(In ¥1,000,000)

Commodities	Nov., 1933	Dec.	Jan., 1934	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July
Rice	67.0	122.3	181.0	212.3	235.2	242.9	239.0	228.7	238.7
Other cereals	8.6	9.5	9.8	9.6	8.6	8.0	7.3	6.7	7.4
Sugar	51.5	39.5	35.4	49.6	75.6	82.3	77.6	68.8	60.0
Foodstuff	18.8	18.1	15.1	13.0	12.1	12.6	14.8	15.9	17.2
Cocoons	20.6	13.2	15.3	13.1	9.4	6.2	3.1	9.9	8.9
Cotton	62.1	68.1	70.9	70.7	73.5	80.5	93.0	101.9	107.3
Wools, etc.	33.3	43.9	51.6	59.6	68.4	80.9	86.7	82.3	72.3
Yarns	116.4	123.3	129.2	128.2	126.9	127.6	122.5	121.4	122.5
Textiles and manufactures thereof	37.6	44.2	44.4	41.7	38.6	37.2	35.5	40.4	45.1
Papers and raw materials	24.0	22.2	22.1	22.0	21.2	22.7	22.1	22.6	22.9
Fertilizers	8.4	7.6	7.7	7.7	72.3	7.2	5.8	6.8	7.2
Iron and metal manufactures	26.9	27.4	27.3	28.8	29.5	30.0	28.1	25.0	23.3
Medicine, dyestuffs, oils and tallow	14.1	13.7	13.5	12.9	13.3	13.2	12.7	14.3	13.9
Others	26.9	26.5	27.9	26.9	26.4	26.2	28.5	30.3	31.3
Total	516.7	585.0	652.0	696.8	746.6	777.0	777.3	775.8	778.8

Commodities	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan., 1935	Feb.	Mar.
Rice	226.3	204.5	192.2	182.0	198.2	214.7	222.7	225.5
Other cereals	10.3	10.7	11.7	12.3	15.3	16.0	16.8	16.8
Sugar	46.9	38.4	27.4	17.1	12.4	19.4	36.6	61.5
Foodstuff	24.1	30.4	32.7	31.5	30.7	26.2	23.2	20.5
Cocoons	8.1	7.7	11.5	10.7	9.6	8.3	6.8	4.5
Cotton	118.7	114.4	97.3	74.7	82.7	107.1	128.5	133.8
Wools, etc.	58.8	44.4	37.1	37.8	35.1	37.1	37.1	32.9
Yarns	119.4	115.1	111.3	114.2	115.8	110.0	106.6	105.8
Textiles and manufactures thereof	41.0	38.0	37.6	40.9	45.1	43.4	40.7	41.4
Papers and raw materials	24.2	25.0	25.3	24.8	25.5	25.8	25.8	27.1
Fertilizers	7.8	7.9	6.9	6.9	6.6	7.7	6.9	6.7
Iron and metal manufactures	23.9	23.7	24.5	26.8	32.6	34.9	36.9	32.1
Medicine, dyestuffs, oils and tallow	13.8	14.1	11.6	11.2	12.9	13.1	13.3	13.7
Others	35.7	37.1	36.6	39.2	38.7	39.1	38.7	48.0
Total	757.3	712.1	664.5	630.8	661.8	703.5	741.2	770.8

WAREHOUSED COMMODITIES (Japan Warehouse Ass'n)

Date	All Japan (a)		Six leading cities (b)					
			Number of Parcels (in 1,000)			Value (in 1,000 yen)		
	No. of Parcels (in 1,000)	Value (in 1,000 yen)	Receipts	Withdrawals	Balance	Receipts	Withdrawals	Balance
1933 Nov.	22,905	516,767	3,745	4,393	17,131	164,050	173,567	458,221
„ Dec.	28,893	585,086	8,852	4,884	21,013	208,639	158,346	506,874
1934 Jan.	34,706	652,066	8,515	5,147	24,381	214,741	168,146	553,466
„ Feb.	38,603	696,817	7,893	5,353	26,917	205,121	171,361	587,226
„ Mar.	42,361	746,637	7,478	4,537	29,858	209,017	168,384	627,859
„ Apr.	43,582	777,085	5,794	4,588	31,065	180,183	151,672	656,370

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Date	All Japan (a)		Six leading cities (b)					
			Number of Parcels (in 1,000)			Value (in 1,000 yen)		
	No. of Parcels (in 1,000)	Value (in 1,000 yen)	Receipts	Withdrawals	Balance	Receipts	Withdrawals	Balance
„ May	42,425	777,376	4,555	5,297	30,323	173,694	168,586	661,479
„ June	30,208	775,847	3,817	4,562	29,579	161,202	156,675	666,006
„ Jul.	38,979	778,819	4,483	4,947	29,115	178,934	171,053	673,887
„ Aug.	37,503	757,334	4,275	5,172	28,218	171,414	191,206	654,095
„ Sept.	35,332	712,122	3,636	5,033	26,821	142,421	178,770	617,745
„ Oct.	32,036	664,519	4,059	7,270	23,611	171,918	216,981	572,682
„ Nov.	30,859	630,889	4,159	5,588	22,182	147,541	182,246	537,977
„ Dec.	33,017	661,809	6,305	5,364	23,123	197,495	175,237	560,235
1935 Jan.	34,534	703,536	5,815	4,892	24,046	196,950	161,642	595,543
„ Feb.	36,288	741,293	6,827	4,798	25,576	198,341	162,856	631,028
„ Mar.	38,273	770,837	6,652	5,423	26,806	211,402	185,669	656,760

(a) 108 storage plants in Mar. '35. (b) 42 storage plants in Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe, Yokohama Shimonoseki-Moji and Nagoya. Figures for July, 1933, and thereafter include those for Nagoya.

Insurance All warehoused goods are insured against fire. At present, the custom in Japan is that the warehouse companies become, on their own account, insurers of the goods for the customers, who, therefore, get the benefits of insurance without going to the trouble of insuring them themselves, a custom which differs from that in Europe and America. According to the Japanese system, therefore, when the warehouse companies issue warehouse receipts, they are required by law to insert the fire insurance clause in the receipts. Accordingly, transactions made through warehouse receipts will also settle questions connected with fire insurance, a system not followed in Europe and America.

Without the insurance system it would have been next to impossible to give such adequate statistics as are contained in the above tables, which are the balances of outgoing and incoming goods as entered in the account books of the above-mentioned 96 warehouses and published as totals by the Association of Japanese Warehouse Companies.

Storage Charges Storage charges are calculated on a combined ad valorem and weight basis. Therefore, when the price of an article declines, the storage charge declines also. Different ad valorem rates exist for different classes of goods and the same is true of the charges by weight, the extent of responsibility of the warehouse company and the importance of any particular goods to the public at large being taken into consideration. For instance, rice is a necessity of life for the Japanese, so the rate is very low. For weight or measurement goods are divided into 60 classes.

Characteristics of the Business

In Japan, there are numerous warehouses called "producers' warehouses." Actually, such warehouses are agricultural produce storehouses, places where seasonal commodities can be collected and stored until the market can absorb them at fair prices. The farmers are thus protected and assistance can be rendered them through the arrangement of credits, a duty undertaken by the warehouses. Besides protecting farmers from severe economic competition the warehouses are valuable nationally for promoting the policy of self-support and sufficiency in foodstuffs. Rice and cocoons are the chief commodities handled,

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Warehouse Business in 1934

Owing to great industrial activities, movement of commodities by railways was very brisk, which was also reflected in receipt and forwarding of commodities by warehouse companies. According to an investigation made by Japan Warehouse Association, the receipt and forwarding of commodities by warehouse companies in six leading cities in 1934 showed 14 per cent. increase in units in receipts as compared with 1933 (value decreased by 1 per cent.), while outgoing commodities increased 17 per cent. (value decreased by 0.2 per cent.). The following table shows the conditions of business :

AMOUNT OF COMMODITIES WHICH WERE RECEIVED AND FORWARDED BY WAREHOUSE COMPANIES IN SIX LEADING CITIES

(In 1,000 units and ¥1,000,000)

Year	No. of units		Value	
	Warehoused	Forwarded	Warehoused	Forwarded
1933	57,025	53,751	2,176	2,105
1934	64,970	62,863	2,154	2,100
Increase or decrease	13.9%	17.0%	(−)1.0%	(−)0.2%

Chief Warehouse Companies

Companies	Year established	Authorised capital	Paid-up capital	Places where warehouses are located	Head office
Mitsubishi Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1886	10,000,000	10,000,000	Tokyo, Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka and Moji	Tokyo
Toshin Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1909	15,000,000	12,500,000	Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka, Kobé & Moji	,,
Sumitomo Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1925	15,000,000	15,000,000	Osaka, Kobé and Tokyo	Osaka
Toyo Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1926	6,000,000	3,500,000	Nagoya, Toyohashi, Ichinomiya and Tsushima, all of which are in Aichi prefecture	Nagoya
Teikoku Zanshi Soko Co., Ltd.	1926	3,000,000	750,000	Yokohama	Yokohama
Shibusawa Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1909	2,000,000	2,000,000	Tokyo, Otaru and Moji	Tokyo
Koa Kogyo Co., Ltd.	1919	10,000,000	5,000,000	Tokyo and Yokohama	Tokyo
Tokyo Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1904	750,000	625,000	Tokyo	Tokyo
Teikoku Soko Unyu Co., Ltd.	1907	2,000,000	2,000,000	Tokyo	Tokyo
Yokohama Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1906	3,800,000	1,748,000	Yokohama	Yokohama
Naniwa Warehouse Co., Ltd.	1921	3,000,000	3,000,000	Osaka, Yokohama, Kobé and Shimonoseki.	Osaka

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CHAPTER XXI

FOODSTUFFS

Wheat Flour

Historical Survey

Before the Russo-Japanese War It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) that the wheat flour industry made any progress in Japan. Prior to the war there was a fairly large consumption, but manufacturing was only in the infant stage, most of the production being with the help of water-wheels. The daily output by this method was only 10 to 50 or 60 bags; the quality was poor and not uniform and, being packed in straw bags, the product was not at all satisfactory. It was only in the year 1895 that wheat flour was first produced on a modern basis by machinery. In that year, the Nippon Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., began to operate mills with a capacity of 200 koku per day, and gradually, mills with capacities of 50 to 100 koku a day were established, but progress was very slow. However, the demand for flour increased and as production could not keep pace with it imports naturally increased. In 1895, imports were 280,000 bags, valued at ¥400,000, ten years later imports had increased to 4,990,000 bags, valued at ¥9,950,000. Imported and water-mill produced domestic flour together satisfied practically the whole of home consumption, while domestic flour made by machinery formed but a very small part of the supply. The imported flour coming chiefly from the United States of America, was of a far superior quality to the home product.

Yield of Wheat Before 1901, the land used for wheat planting averaged between 440,000 and 480,000 cho, and in 1905, it was 450,000 cho. The yield of wheat gradually increased up to 1901, when it was 4,370,000 koku, but during the next few years there was a gradual decrease until in 1905 the yield was 3,600,000 koku.

As regards imported wheat, the amount imported usually depended upon the domestic wheat crops, but showed in general a gradual increase. In 1895 imports were only 1,600 koku with a value of ¥7,500. In 1902 they had increased to 38,000 koku, valued at ¥240,000. The year 1903 proved to be a lean year for domestic wheat, and imports suddenly increased to 560,000 koku, of a value of ¥4,760,000. After that, owing to the prosperity which visited Japan after the war with Russia, wheat continued to be imported in large quantities. In 1904 it was 170,000 koku, valued at ¥1,530,000, and in 1905, 450,000 koku, valued at ¥4,000,000.

After the Russo-Japanese War Many flour mills were established on a modern basis during the time of the great boom which followed the Russo-Japanese War, and production capacity was greatly expanded, but a contraction was brought about by the closing down of many of the newly established mills when the reaction later set in. In 1914, when the World War started the capacity of production by machinery was 9,060 barrels and this, by 1922, had increased to over 20,000 barrels.

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During those seven years the industry experienced unprecedented prosperity, and with this development on modern lines, domestic producers who make flour in the old-fashioned way have lost nearly all their customers and, further, imported flour has been practically shut out of the country.

The Industry at Present

Production and Imports of Wheat After 1918 the demand for wheat flour, keeping pace with the advance in the standard of living, greatly increased. The extended westernization of the country in recent years largely accounts for this and has brought about a consequent heavy demand for wheat. Home production has not increased to meet the demand, the result being, as the following tables show, heavy annual importations of wheat. An attempt, therefore, has been made by the Government to increase domestic production through tariff and increase of wheat acreage, in which they were highly successful. The production increased very much in 1933 in proportion to the increased acreage, which was further accelerated in 1934, as the following table shows :

PRODUCTION OF DOMESTIC WHEAT AND ITS ACREAGE AFTER 1924

Year	Production koku	Acreage cho
1924	5,268,000	469,000
1925	6,121,000	468,000
1926	5,897,000	467,000
1927	6,059,000	473,000
1928	6,389,000	489,000
1929	6,323,000	494,000
1930	6,124,000	491,000
1931	6,405,000	501,000
1932	6,497,000	508,000
1933	8,013,000	616,000
1934	9,450,700	648,400

QUANTITIES OF WHEAT IMPORTED

Countries from which imported

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	China	Kwantung Peninsula	U.S.A.	Canada	Australia	Others	Total
1924	21,567	6,126	4,566,850	2,194,354	4,900,557	—	11,689,454
1925	8,406	8,478	2,839,678	1,513,904	3,354,246	2,298	7,727,044
1926	—	—	3,257,855	4,177,409	4,269,521	11,563	11,716,549
1927	261,959	62,958	2,608,611	2,879,710	1,953,867	6,973	7,774,068
1928	224,974	440,452	2,439,587	6,649,680	2,402,582	74,282	12,231,557
1929	224,974	440,452	2,439,587	6,649,680	2,402,582	74,282	12,231,557
1930	204	34	3,398,999	2,957,510	1,706,306	22	8,063,078
1931	28	0	884,210	2,597,625	8,554,294	3,379	12,039,531
1932	—	0	195,634	1,983,110	10,264,635	54	12,443,434
1933	—	0	49,367	1,874,606	6,593,331	3,165	8,520,470
1934	17,820	0	2,220,803	1,325,549	4,455,025	135,864	8,155,061

The United States anticipated a crop failure in 1934, which was undoubtedly a bullish factor for the wheat market. Moreover, President Roosevelt's efforts to bring back prosperity had a good effect on wheat price. But the stock of wheat was so large that it still acted to check the rise of price. Accordingly the United States made an agreement with China to sell wheat and cotton, which was not, however, carried into effect on account of anxiety felt as to the payment. Thereupon, the United States sold the wheat in Japan. The quantity so dumped totalled about 100,000 tons, the shipments of which arrived toward the end of May and thereafter. Owing to great increase of domestic produc-

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tion of wheat, the import of wheat from countries other than the United States decreased to a considerable extent.

The Export of Wheat Flour . The export of wheat flour in 1917 was as large as 4,410,000 bags, and 2,560,000 bags in 1918, but this was only a temporary war-time phenomenon. After the latter year exports fell away sharply and it was not until 1925 that exporting on a steady basis really began.

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FLOUR

Countries to which exported

(Quantities in piculs)

Year	Manchoukuo	China	Kwantung Province	Dutch Indies	Asiatic Russia	Others	Total
1923	—	—	—	—	10,480	163,020	173,500
1924	—	79,903	6,875	3,833	30,155	12,875	187,641
1925	—	405,841	518,299	8,408	10,102	206,158	1,148,803
1926	—	907,565	653,947	48,536	4,413	78,111	1,692,572
1927	—	938,934	200,234	30,156	7,250	75,113	1,251,687
1928	—	1,763,898	536,245	24,538	23,647	24,001	2,372,329
1929	—	1,786,880	1,086,880	16,571	153,068	19,979	3,063,378
1930	—	1,337,437	378,057	21,595	229,625	32,044	1,998,758
1931	—	1,684,775	490,162	14,068	19,390	33,616	2,252,011
1932	858,103	1,049,163	2,572,327	5,998	—	27,395	3,694,883
1933	1,427,036	482,700	803,963	14,068	—	63,006	5,304,249
1934	1,402,032	17,183	2,899,819	8,988	31,081	68,320	4,427,819

Exports in 1932 showed the highest figure up to that time, exceeding the figure of 1931 by 1,443,000 piculs. The Tsurumi Mill of the Nisshin Seifun Kaisha, Ltd., the largest mill in the Orient, was destroyed by fire in 1931. In 1933, aided by the fall in yen exchange and the Tsurumi Mill again coming into operation, the year showed even better results than 1932. In 1934, however, the figure showed a slight decline owing to the sales by the Australian exporters at Dairen, which checked the export of Japanese flour to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula.

FLOUR PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, ETC.

(in bags)

Year	Production	Import	Export	Home Consumption and in stock
1923	30,098,000	921,000	470,000	30,500,000
1924	32,676,000	392,000	508,000	32,560,000
1925	36,483,000	205,000	3,101,000	33,588,000
1926	38,349,000	338,000	4,551,000	34,216,000
1927	36,701,000	897,000	3,379,000	34,220,000
1928	42,478,000	374,000	6,433,000	36,420,000
1929	43,159,000	314,000	8,271,000	35,203,000
1930	40,962,000	877,000	5,896,000	36,443,000
1931	42,088,000	258,000	6,080,000	36,266,000
1932	41,989,000	112,000	9,976,000	32,125,000
1933	41,395,892	40,246	14,321,472	26,114,666
1934	—	45,400	11,966,000	—

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Wheat Encouragement Policy

The great development of flour milling industry and the shortage of domestic supply of wheat increased the import of foreign wheat to a tremendous extent. For a long time it was studied to check the import of wheat. It was proposed later that to attain the purpose, the best way would be to increase domestic production through increase in wheat acreage, with the goal of making Japan self-sufficient as to the supply of wheat. With this in view, when tariffs were revised in general in 1932, that on wheat was raised from ¥1.50 to ¥2.50 and that on flour from ¥2.90 to ¥4.30 per 100 kin each. Moreover, it was estimated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry that Japan's annual requirement of wheat was about 9,000,000 koku, 5,000,000 koku of which was used as flour while balance of 4,000,000 koku for brewing and other purposes. The Government, therefore, determined to increase wheat production to this figure. They encouraged rice farmers in 1932 to turn over their land to wheat production, figuring on a five year drive, and the Government's goal was reached in three years instead of five. Wheat crop amounted in 1934 to 9,450,000 koku against 8,006,000 koku of 1933, and showed an increase of 41.6 per cent. over the average of preceding five years. The acreage was 648,400 cho against 615,888 of 1933. Its increase over the average of preceding years was 24.4 per cent.

The fact that tariff was raised and Japan has become self-sufficient in wheat gives a new advantage to Japan. In the past, Japan had to buy most of wheat in foreign markets. Prices always were subject to fluctuations according to conditions in foreign markets, and it was not always convenient to hedge purchase made in this country. In fact, for many years the business of flour milling was handled as if it were a speculation and the near-failure of the Nihon Flour Company, Ltd. (in the days before the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, Ltd. assumed control of it) was entirely due to gambling in wheat. Now this danger of speculation has been entirely wiped away from the business. Domestic wheat, most of time, is well within the tariff walls, and is not very much affected by foreign influences now.

1934 Business

Trend in General The flour industry passed a prosperous year in 1934. Due to general anticipation of crop failure the price of wheat was high the world over, along which the price of flour also. On the other hand, owing to the higher price of rice, the domestic demand on flour was good, while in the latter half of the year the export to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula increased. The increase in demand resulted in the increase of wheat production and flour mills made a good business.

Wheat Market Owing to the short crop of wheat the world over, quotation at Chicago market was strong, which was reflected in the domestic market. Though the price declined temporarily during the spring due to the sales of wheat by America, the market soon picked up and the price was firm in general.

Production and Consumption Production of flour gradually increased throughout the year, and in the latter part of the year, over 3,000,000 bags a month was produced. Owing to record making increase of export in the period, mills operated at full capacity. The causes of these increases are not far to seek. The demand on flour increased due to the higher price of rice, and export expanded in the latter half of the

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year. As the result of this, the stock of flour which was more than 100,000 bags was at the beginning of the year reduced to about 50,000 bags. The total production in 1934 is estimated at 45,966,000 bags.

Though the price of wheat was high next to 1933, flour mills were able to make profit on account of increased demand and higher price obtained for flour. The average wholesale price of wheat flour per bag (5.9 kwan) both in Tokyo and in the whole country was ¥3.28 against ¥3.50 of 1933.

Decrease in Export Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula are two principal markets for Japanese wheat flour. Owing to the sales by Australian millers at Dairen, which amounted to from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000 bags a month, export by the domestic mills to these markets were curtailed by that much. The Japanese millers cannot compete against foreign flour if the domestic wheat is used as raw material. They, therefore, store the imported flour in bond and use it as raw material for export purpose. On account of the higher price of foreign wheat in earlier period, this was impossible to do and hence the decrease in export.

However, in the latter half of the year, the Australian sales at Dairen were over, while the shipment of American wheat arrived, and the domestic mills recovered what they lost in the first half by milling these low-priced American wheat and exporting it. With the export of 29,000,000, kin in July as the bottom, export steadily gained, that in December amounting to as large as 59,000,000 kin. The total export during the latter half amounted to 260,000,000 kin and showed a gain of 20,000,000 kin as compared with the corresponding period of the year before. But owing to the severity of competition of the Australian exporters at the earlier period, the total export to these markets in the whole year was 440,000,000 kin which showed a decrease of 87,000,000 kin.

Sugar

History and Development

The art of making sugar was imported from China about two hundred years ago, but no great progress is recorded in its manufacture until after the Restoration, and even then it remained as a farmers' sideline until the end of the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when Formosa, well-known for its sugar production, was ceded to Japan by China. This marked a new era in the sugar industry. In 1896, a sugar refining company was organized in Osaka and from that time the industry began to develop.

The Government undertook to levy a duty on raw sugar in 1899, and, by successive steps, this duty has reached the present rate. In 1911, a tariff of a similar nature was imposed, for the first time, on refined sugar.

In view of the fact that Formosa is ideal both in temperature and rainfall for cane growing the Government decided to encourage the establishment of sugar mills in the Island. With this in view it established the Temporary Sugar Bureau as a branch of the Government of Formosa. The Bureau subsidized sugar companies in establishing sugar mills and pur-

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chasing required machinery. It imported cane seedlings and distributed them to cane growers. It gave, too, subsidies for the purchase of fertilizers, and in various other ways succeeded in dispensing as subsidies, up to 1924, a sum amounting to more than thirteen million yen. As the result of these subsidies, the industry has developed to the present stage. In 1902, the production of raw sugar in Formosa was only about 600,000 piculs, but by 1931 this had increased to over 13,000,000 piculs.

In 1901, the Taiwan Sugar Co., Ltd., was organized. Raw sugar mills with all new machines were established and war was declared against the old-fashioned machines which were only able to produce poor red sugar. Development was destined to be slow, for the plantations and mills were subject to attacks from the native savages, but this difficulty was gradually overcome and during the prosperity that visited Japan after the Russo-Japanese War, many new companies were organized and the industry developed rapidly.

Present State of the Industry

The sugar industry in Shikoku, Kyushu, and the Loochoo Islands is making no headway, but that in Formosa, is rapidly progressing, and at present it is the Formosan sugar that controls the sugar market in Japan. Refining is making good progress in Japan proper.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR

(Unit 1,000 piculs)

Year	Formosa	Japan Proper	Hokkaido	Korea	South Sea Islands	Total
1918–1919	4,863	1,472	—	—	—	6,336
1919–1920	3,720	1,164	—	—	7	4,892
1920–1921	4,212	1,578	4	15	19	5,830
1921–1922	5,877	1,259	74	15	8	7,230
1922–1923	5,923	1,169	108	10	21	7,232
1923–1924	7,536	1,387	225	6	58	9,218
1924–1925	7,992	1,201	167	6	148	9,516
1925–1926	8,332	1,399	190	9	152	10,083
1926–1927	6,852	1,299	286	5	209	8,653
1927–1928	9,667	1,438	343	9	181	11,640
1928–1929	13,155	1,523	343	10	164	15,197
1929–1930	13,508	1,222	424	11	345	15,511
1930–1931	13,287	1,273	361	15	642	15,580
1931–1932	16,484	1,651	405	29	696	19,266
1932–1933	10,561	1,712	402	—	729	13,406
1933–1934*	10,771	1,609	383	—	699	13,463

* Estimate

Before 1926, the total production of sugar was only about 10,000,000 piculs. But after that year production rapidly increased, and in 1933-34, it had reached over 18,032,000 piculs, about twice as much as six or seven years ago. The increase came chiefly from Formosa, and is due to the advance in agricultural method, viz., the planting of superior canes, prolongation of the time of planting, improvements in ploughing, etc. As the result of this increase in yield, imports of sugar have been considerably reduced, but the balance between demand and supply has been destroyed which became the cause of anxiety for sugar

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industry. However, owing to restrictions placed on the output of sugar not only in Japan proper, but also in Formosa and the South Sea Mandated Islands, the output was curtailed. Moreover, import was reduced considerably so that the balance between the demand and supply was restored, and the industry was quiet until 1934. It is feared, however, that the 1934-1935 production, which is estimated as large as 18,880,000 piculs may nullify all these efforts in the past.

TABLE SHOWING CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR

(Unit 1,000 piculs)

Year	Japan Proper	Formosa	Korea	South Sea Islands	Total
1918	7,375	410	—	—	7,785
1919	8,148	302	170	—	8,621
1920	6,722	235	149	7	7,114
1921	10,199	326	291	19	10,837
1922	11,280	317	175	3	11,777
1923	10,562	363	276	21	11,223
1924	11,162	351	209	58	11,781
1925	11,690	520	262	148	12,621
1926	12,674	551	315	152	13,694
1927	12,093	519	402	209	13,225
1928	13,035	651	322	181	14,191
1929	13,596	622	432	164	14,815
1930	12,949	688	340	313	14,292
1931	13,461	662	333	1	14,459
1932	14,310	671	350	1	15,332
1933	13,936	684	350	1	14,971
1934 (estimate)	—	—	—	—	15,300

Japan's consumption of sugar showed an increase during the 1934 calendar year, reaching a figure which broke all records except that of 15,332,253 piculs set in 1932.

In the past Japan has been generally a self-supplying country, having either only a very small excess of import or export. Even 1934-1935 production, which is considered very large in Japan and is estimated to amount to 1,333,000 tons, will be only 4½ per cent. of the world total production, which is estimated at 25,165,000 tons. Her per capita consumption only slightly exceeds the international average of 22 kin per year, that in 1934 being 23.98 kin. The increase in Japanese consumption of sugar follows :

JAPANESE PER CAPITA CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR

(in kin)

Year	Annnual per Capita Consumption
1912	6.22
1917	10.49
1922	19.57
1927	20.07
1928	21.27
1929	21.86
1930	20.57
1931	20.59
1932	20.59
1933	20.73
1934 (estimate)	23.98

Tables for exports and imports of sugar are given below. In spite of all political troubles China has always been the best market for the Japanese production. The figures for 1932 declined abruptly, but this was due to the Manchurian Incident, and the loss of Manchuria

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which was itself a good market. If figures for Manchoukuo, Kwantung Peninsula and China are added together, it will be found that there has been no really great change as might otherwise seem indicated.

Imports from Java Since some of Japanese sugar companies are refiners rather than planters they buy crude sugar wherever they can get it at the lowest price. Often the Javanese sugar is more reasonable in price and hence usually the import of sugar from there. This was the situation in general until 1931. Domestic producers could not compete and had a hard time making profits, for the Javanese sugar kept entering the country at lower prices. The situation changed somewhat with the reimposition of gold embargo, which caused the decline of yen. The establishment of a new import tariff served to change the situation further. Since then the Japanese sugar was protected to a certain extent against the import, the producers were planning to curtail production. Prices soared remarkably. Plans to reduce production costs were taking effect. Per picul cost of the leading companies dropped from ¥7 in 1931 to ¥5 in 1932, while domestic sugar quotations rose from ¥7 in October, 1931, to ¥14 in September, 1932, elevating earnings per picul from zero to between ¥8 and ¥9 a picul, and in this manner the sugar industry experienced its boom in 1933.

The boom, however, does not seem to have been destined to last long. The international over-supply of sugar, the constant threat that the Netherlands may abandon the gold standard, public criticism against the sugar companies due to recent consumption tax evasion case and the resultant public cry for the abolition of the tariff protecting sugar are all unfavourable factors for the sugar industry. These causes acted to keep raw sugar prices from going up. Since the boom in 1933, the price has been steadily downward. It should be noted, however, that the conditions are not very bad ; only forebodings for the future are keeping down prices of sugar.

SUGAR EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF JAPAN

(Compiled by the Japan Sugar Institute)

(in piculs)

Year	Imports	Exports	Excess of imports (−) or exports (+)
1926	8,342,785	3,445,853	(−)4,896,932
1927	7,982,264	3,186,722	(−)4,745,542
1928	7,081,896	4,450,909	(−)2,630,987
1929	4,343,394	3,769,576	(−) 573,818
1930	4,569,617	4,101,426	(−) 468,191
1931	3,505,168	3,236,023	(−) 269,145
1932	711,060	2,598,219	(+)1,887,159
1933	2,485,343	2,750,402	(+) 265,059

IMPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY ORIGINS

(in piculs)

Year	Java	Philippines	Hongkong	China	Cuba	Others & Total
1915	1,664,001	324,626	4,490	8	209,373	2,077,393
1926	6,267,661	291,366	12,060	380	945,622	7,568,820
1927	5,879,517	134,416	28,344	69	936,594	7,022,826
1928	6,230,002	21,265	1,639	—	89,266	6,350,922
1929	3,673,640	7,266	—	8	112,686	3,795,281
1930	4,072,494	3,020	4	14	641	4,077,603
1931	3,304,251	10	9	—	—	3,305,275
1932	644,927	—	10	—	25,411	671,299
1933	2,134,499	—	4	—	35,348	2,210,124
1934	1,727,188	4,197	—	—	—	1,732,188

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EXPORTS OF REFINED SUGAR BY DESTINATION

(in piculs)

Year	China	Manchou-kuo	Kwantung	Soviet Union	Hongkong	British India	Others	Total
1924	1,779,075	—	98,687	3,259	688	—	—	1,881,709
1925	2,175,020	—	189,941	20,741	2,349	—	—	2,388,051
1926	2,682,153	—	253,746	64,999	398	—	—	3,002,132
1927	2,228,913	—	229,635	149,735	22,773	—	—	2,631,057
1928	3,119,488	—	374,154	221,851	77,591	4,589	2,346	3,799,969
1929	2,379,585	—	547,469	93,354	168,130	31,259	1,140	3,220,937
1930	3,007,528	114,804	326,541	31,796	154,132	1,015	1,482	3,637,298
1931	1,895,667	88,922	370,810	57,433	208,996	383	—	2,622,211
1932	466,877	54,790	799,840	15,552	10,535	37,895	4,518	1,389,507
1933	901,525	96,703	1,015,941	81,312	15,547	41,337	19,952	2,172,317
1934	1,041,527	162,255	715,093	40,904	—	—	60,089	2,019,863

Refined Sugar At present there are fifteen refineries in Japan proper and one in Korea. The total refining capacity is about 2,800 tons per day, so that if the average working days per year are 300, production will be about 14,229,600 piculs a year. Against this only a little over 6,900,000 piculs of refined sugar are produced, hence there exists a great surplus capacity.

1934 Sugar Business In looking over the condition of consumption in 1934, the stock at the end of the year was 828,000 piculs, which was one-third of 1933, and conditions of demand and supply remarkably improved. This was mainly due to the enforcement of curtailment of production in 1932-33 and 1933-34, and also the increased consumption in the early part of the year.

The record production in 1931-32 year destroyed the balance of demand and supply, and the situation was relieved through hard efforts to curtail production, sacrifice exports of surplus sugar, etc. as has already been explained.

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION

(in 1,000 pcls.)

Kinds	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34
Taiwan centrifugals	16,287	10,280	10,373
,, red sugar	196	281	209
South Sea Islands centrifugals	695	729	750
Loochoo ,, ,,	263	323	268
Daito ,, ,,	135	71	96
Loochoo black, and white lower grade	1,023	1,051	908
Others	233	263	250
Beet sugar (Korea)	29	—	—
,, ,, (Hokkaido)	405	402	383
Total	19,266	13,406	13,437

The market opened in 1934 rather weak, but after signing of sugar supply agreement October, 1934, its tone became stronger. When Japan-Dutch East India Conference was opened, the market became weak again as it was feared that the Conference would fail. Toward the close of the year the price rose due to the delay in marketing of new product.

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AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES OF SUGAR in 1934

(Quotated in yen for every 100 kin)

Month	Refined Sugar	Contrifugals
January	19.76	17.51
February	20.44	17.90
March	20.09	18.00
April	19.60	15.90
May	19.36	15.38
June	19.68	15.43
July	20.67	15,73
August	21.50	16.32
September	22.70	17.07
October	22.34	17.23
November	22.30	17.34
December	22.55	18.01
Average of the year	20.92	16.82

Belgium's departure from gold in the early months of this year created a sensation among sugar men of Japan, for all fear that the Netherlands will follow suit. If the Dutch should quit the gold standard the guilder would fall and the result would be that Javanese sugar could enter Japan more easily.

The yen-guilder rate on April 10, 1935, was 41.75 per ¥100. If the Dutch exchange should fall 25 per cent. the rate would drop to 55 guilders. A decline of 30 per cent. would make it 60 guilders. Prices of Japanese sugar are more or less controlled by the import prices of Javanese sugar and a drop of the guilder would automatically lower prices in Japan, which is a cause of apprehension in the country.

Various Sugar Companies

The following table shows capacities, standings, etc., of the principal sugar companies in Japan as of March, 1934:

CAPITAL, CAPACITIES, ETC., OF SUGAR COMPANIES

Company	Capital		Capacity		Production of Sugar (1933-34)
	Authorized	Paid-up	Raw sugar	Refined sugar	
	in yen	in yen	in long ton	long ton	pcls.
Taiwan Seito Co., Ltd.	63,000,000	43,080,000	10,548	430	2,800,000
Dai-Nippon Sugar Co., Ltd.	51,416,000	45,779,100	8,320	910	2,081,825
Meiji Seito Co., Ltd.	48,000,000	39,200,000	7,520	450	1,648,000
Ensuiko Seito Co., Ltd.	29,250,000	17,437,500	5,250	400	1,522,000
Niitaka Seito Co., Ltd.	28,000,000	10,750,000	2,932	80	524,750
Teikoku Seito Co., Ltd.	18,000,000	16,194,830	2,888	—	901,292
Hokkaido Seito Co., Ltd.	4,700,000	3,700,000	—	—	220,829

Brewing

Beer

Historical Beer was brewed in Japan about 80 years ago by a certain scholar, Mr. Ko Kawamoto, who, as he learned how to brew it when he visited Admiral Perry's fleet, on the latter's visit to Japan, tried to brew on his own private account. In 1870, beer was brewed for the first time on a modern industrial basis by an American, Mr. Gobland, in Amanuma, Yokohama. Four years later, Marquis K. Kuroda saw that the soil of Hokkaido was particularly suitable for barley, so he established a brewery in Sapporo, and soon others were built in Meguro, Tokyo, in Suita, Osaka, in Hodogaya, Yokohama, and other places, and the industry has so developed that at present Japan has six beer brewery companies and fourteen breweries with a total capacity of about 1,500,000 koku.

Production and Consumption In order to show how this industry has developed in Japan we give below figures of beer brewed during the last two decades.

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Year	Production of beer (in koku)
1912	196,404
1915	248,818
1918	511,525
1921	656,174
1923	805,905
1926	767,583
1927	795,385
1928	904,877
1929	895,945
1930	846,014
1931	797,544
1932	779,283
1933	959,762
1934	970,494

Consumption of beer in 1912 was only 3.25 go (one go is equivalent to 0.18039 hl., about one-third of a pint) per head, but this had increased to 10.16 go in 1923 and to 13.53 go in 1929.

As regards the capacities of different breweries, five of them brew more than 150,000 koku, 3 over 100,000 koku and 2 over 30,000 koku per year.

Though any hasty conclusion cannot be made, since the number of breweries is very small, it is presumed that in future a capacity of at least 100,000 koku should be made a unit for any establishment. The brewing of beer differs from the brewing of Japanese saké in that it does not require much personal skill. It can be brewed on a large scale in a mechanical way, and as the brewing is done in this country in the German style, it requires large mechanical equipment, hence, large capital. Judging from the past, the brewing of beer in Japan will in future be carried out on a very large scale.

The Japanese taste for beer originated in the taste for saké. Originally, people who were used to the Japanese liquor shifted their taste from saké to beer, or, drank both. Nowadays, beer has become so popular that the people go to it without the agency of saké, and this tendency will be accelerated in the future. In recent years the mode of living of the Japanese has been westernized to a very great extent, and especially with improvements in the heating arrangements of houses and the extreme westernization of food has the taste of the people for beer been intensified. Moreover, with the advance of knowledge about hygiene, the middle-class people seem to give a preference to beer, which contains a smaller percentage of alcohol than saké.

Japan as Beer Consuming Country In spite of the increase in consumption, Japan still occupies an insignificant position as beer producer and consumer in the world. Her production of about 1,000,000 koku in 1933 stands at the fourteenth in the list of beer producing countries with the U.S.A.'s 27,000,000 koku as the first. Also her per capita consumption of 2.77 litres was the twenty-eighth in the list of beer consumers with Belgium's 176.46 litres at the head. This is easy to explain. Most of her people take saké, the production of which is about 4.5 times as large as beer. Saké is the standard of drink, only a very small quantity of which is enough for average man. In other countries, beer is a staple, an article of food. But in Japan it is something of luxury, reserved for the people of middle and upper classes. A bottle of beer, which contains about one-fifth of a gallon of beer, sells about at 50 or 60 sen, which is too high for average Japanese farmers or wage-earners. If the Japanese of these classes take as much beer as the Belgians do they would spend greater portion of their income on beer.

Exports and Imports Exports of beer in recent years follow:

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EXPORTS OF BEER

(Quantity in koku and value in ¥1,000)

Destination	1931		1932		1933		1934	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	2,176	201	5,476	383	15,988	966	21,937	993
Kwantung	9,030	736	20,542	1,509	37,944	2,240	48,874	2,160
China	5,173	426	16,043	1,171	12,647	758	11,670	587
Hongkong	2,312	177	1,610	121	1,576	94	2,188	103
British India	7,551	641	10,875	694	16,255	901	11,176	528
Straits Stmts	1,501	118	1,292	96	1,317	73	2,033	92
Dutch India	2,828	234	8,856	535	29,944	1,639	4,209	225
Others and total	36,637	3,034	68,812	4,835	132,373	7,684	118,009	5,535

In spite of the fact that beer which was exported has been exempt from brewing tax since 1912, the export has not been very encouraging. During the Great War, export temporarily increased, due to England and Germany having neglected their Oriental markets, but with the return of peace their attention was again directed toward the East and Japan's export there fell off with it. Since then the export fluctuated between 23,000 and 53,000 koku. The decline of yen has given the export business an importance it never had before, and in 1933 the export totalled 68,812 koku, the largest since 1918. In 1933 the export amounted to 132,373 koku, valued at ¥7,684,000. Relegation in the U.S.A. gave a great spur, the export to that country including Hawaii amounting to ¥537,000. But the export to America proved but temporary; it sharply fell off in 1934. As a whole the 1934 export showed a slight decline as compared with 1933, which was due to the smaller British India and the Dutch East Indian markets. In the latter the Government took steps to end imports from Japan, which reduced the export to that country drastically. On the other hand, exports to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula increased, so far the latter proving as the best market for Japanese beer abroad. Demand in Manchoukuo is steadily gaining, but owing to the establishment of the Manchurian Beer Company, Ltd. export to that country is bound to decrease in future.

Production Capacity Production capacity of breweries was 1,090,000 koku in 1922, which steadily expanded. The increase of capacity was especially marked after the Great Earthquake of 1923, and consumption of beer could not keep pace with it. It increased to 1,700,000 koku in 1931, while actual production was barely 740,000 koku, and it was further increased up to 1,830,000 koku. When the industry was in chaotic conditions during the time of depression, which was made worse by the competition among brewers, this over-expanded capacity proved a great weakness of the industry. The production was curtailed then to the extent of 55 per cent.

Production of Raw Materials The principal raw commodity for brewing beer is barley. This, until recently, was mostly imported, but at present it is being grown in various parts of the country through the brewers making contract with village and town agricultural associations. In this manner about 300,000 koku, which is about the quantity required by the brewers, is being produced annually, and as most of the breweries have their own equipment for converting the barley into malt the necessity of importing either of these materials is obviated.

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However, the quantity of barley now raised yearly may prove insufficient if the demand for beer increases to any great extent and supplies will then have to be obtained from abroad.

Another important raw material is hops. Though several attempts have been made at different times to grow them in this country the yield has always been very small, and reliance has to be placed on foreign supplies.

The Beer Industry in 1934 The beer industry gives an evidence that not all the branches of industry were benefited by the expansion of the heavy industries and lower exchange. Production of beer showed but slight increase and its export declined. The loss was chiefly caused by election of mills in Korea, though the output of these mills was slightly smaller than the reduction in production in Japan proper. Beer did not clearly join the upward swing of other industries.

The beer industry was almost under complete control before 1930, prices until then being fixed by three influential mills, which were the Dai Nippon, the Kirin and the Nippon Beer Kosen. The last named withdrew from the agreement in the spring of 1930 with an intention to take a larger share of business through underselling, and for the time being the control was lost and the industry was in perfect chaos. In June, 1933, the Joint Sales Company of Beer was established with a view of establishing sales quotas and prices for the Dai Nippon and the Kirin. As a preliminary to this arrangement the Dai Nippon Beer absorbed the Nippon Beer Kosen.

The year 1934 was the first year after the Joint Sales Company of Beer was established. The influence of the cartel was evident. There was no competition ; sales was good, though somewhat smaller than 1933.

As regards exports, America did not buy as much as expected, while the Dutch East Indies which bought 30,000 koku in 1933 took only 4,000 koku due to import restriction. On the other hand, exports to Manchoukuo and Kwantung Peninsula increased and exports, as a whole, decreased 14,000 koku.

The Dai Nippon Beer Co., Ltd. established the Tokyo Beer Co., Ltd. capitalized at ¥1,500,000 on joint account with Kotobukiya Co. in January. In the same month sales agreement was arrived at with the Sakura Beer Co., Ltd. which was the only outsider to the cartel. In this manner, the domestic market was placed under complete control of the cartel. On the other hand, export is under control of Teikoku Beer Export Guild, so that the control came to be exercised in this field also and is now practically complete.

With the domestic market well under control, beer industry began to expand both abroad and in colonies. The Dai Nippon Beer Co., Ltd. established the Keijo Beer Co., Ltd. at Keijo with a capital of ¥6,000,000, one-fourth of which was paid up, and began brewing on January 6, its capacity being 100,000 cases a year. The Kirin Beer Co., Ltd., too, established the Showa Kirin Beer Co., Ltd. in the same city with a capital of ¥3,000,000, ¥1,200,000 of which was paid up. This mill has also a capacity of 100,000 cases a year. In this manner beer will be supplied in Korea by these companies, the sales of which will be controlled by the Keijo Branch of the Joint Sales Company of Beer in Japan proper. In Manchoukuo, the Manchurian Beer Co., Ltd. was established on a joint account of the Dai Nippon and the Kirin Beer Companies, with a capital of ¥2,000,000

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fully paid up, which will supply from 100,000 to 150,000 cases a year, beginning with 1935. Aside from this the Great Manchurian Hops Beer Co., Ltd. with a capital of ¥10,000,000 was also established in Mukden. This company intends to raise hops in Manchuria in addition to brewing beer. Five brewery companies which were around Harbin with two others in Mukden, the total capacity of which was 400,000 cases a year, were absorbed by this new company.

Beer Brewery Companies Capitalization, number of breweries, and capacity, etc. of principal brewing companies at the end of the second term of 1934 follow:

CONDITIONS OF PRINCIPAL BREWING COMPANIES

(in ¥1,000)

Companies	Authorized Capital	Paid-up capital	Profit	Breweries	Capacity (in koku)
Dai Nippon	94,000	60,000	6,027		
Ebisu group				7	880,000
Union group	—	—	—	8	350,000
Total	—	—	—	—	1,230,000
Kirin	10,800	8,300	1,682	8	400,000
Tokyo					
Cascade group	1,500	—	—	1	30,000
Sakura	4,000	—	—	1	120,000

Japanese Saké

History Japanese saké, brewed from rice, has been the principal alcoholic liquor of the Japanese from olden times. It is brewed everywhere in the country, but the most famous places are the "Nada Gogo," five villages in Hyogo prefecture, the climatic conditions of which are peculiarly suited for its production. In recent years, Hiroshima and Fukuoka prefectures have also begun to brew saké of superior grade. The best rice for saké brewing is raised in Kumamoto, Hyogo and Okayama prefectures.

As saké has been the chief drink of the people for many centuries it has been heavily taxed all along. In 1879, a tax of ¥2 per koku was levied and since then the rate has been gradually increased until it now amounts to ¥40 per koku and brings in an annual revenue to the Government of ¥200,000,000.

No study of brewing saké on a scientific basis was started until as late as 1895. In 1904, a Brewery Experimental Station was established by the Government, at Oji, a suburb of Tokyo, various experiments were made, and many good experts trained. The art of brewing has now advanced a great deal and the quality of saké brewed has become practically uniform. The quantity now brewed annually is about 5,000,000 koku, nearly all of which is consumed at home, only a negligibly small quantity being exported to China and several other countries.

Present Condition Production of saké in recent years is as follows:

Year	Production (hectolitres)	Value in yen
1922	6,151,385	272,453,996
1923	11,175,024	405,712,482
1924	10,942,672	339,269,684
1925	10,454,276	322,481,958
1926	10,460,587	313,419,561
1927	9,812,516	298,738,816
1928	9,305,899	293,386,838
1929	9,608,146	301,716,100
1930	8,676,989	275,599,803
1931	7,435,560	233,122,205
1932	6,908,842	269,215,545
1933	7,989,788	307,177,000

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The peculiarity of brewing saké is that large quantities of raw materials cannot be fermented at once. According to the growth of saccharomyces saké, steamed rice, yeast, and water are gradually added and fermentation is brought about slowly. If this method is adopted, with only a very small quantity of saccharomyces saké a large amount of raw materials may be fermented and saké of good flavour may be brewed. If, on the other hand, a large quantity of raw materials is fermented at one time by using a great deal of saccharomyces saké, the resultant saké will not taste good.

Consumption of Saké Nothing is more directly affected by prosperity or depression than the consumption of saké, and it can be quite well understood that consumption, owing to the economic depression, has considerably decreased during the last few years. The farming districts are now feeling the depression very severely, and as saké is consumed more in rural than in urban districts, the saké brewers have suffered in proportion.

The Saké Business in 1934 In anticipation of heavy industries and export boom, amount of saké brewed in 1933 exceeded that of 1932 by about 108,000 hl. But in 1934, depression in rural districts was so severe that the consumption of saké did not increase, and only toward the close of the year there was activity in sales.

Owing to higher price of 1933 rice crop it was anticipated that the price would be higher in 1934, which was impossible, however, due to dull demand. But, toward the close of the year, with the approach of demand season, market suddenly became very active, and sales increased. It is considered that saké brewed in 1934 was about 360,000 hl. less than 1933.

Saké Brewery in Manchoukuo Plans were under consideration to establish saké brewery in Manchoukuo, which materialized in 1934. The brewers of "Kiku-Masamuné" of Nada, near Kobé, established a company there, which has a capacity of 1,500 koku a year of saké newly branded "Manshu-Kiku-Masamuné", while the brewers of "Hakkaku" also established one with the same capacity, the saké newly brewed by this company being branded "Kinkaku". Both began brewing on November 15.

Soft Drinks

As Japan is geologically blessed with mineral springs, the people were not slow to study their medicinal effects, and hot springs were used as baths from olden times. As to the utilization of mineral spring water for drinking purposes, mineral water from Rokko Mountain in Hyogo prefecture was the first of its kind that was put on the market. This was as late as 1883, and the drink was named "Mitsuya Hiranosui". Three years later, some Englishmen taught the making of artificially aerated water and with the importation of Codd's bottles and syphon-bottles the manufacture of sweetened aerated water originated. These drinks soon became very popular and the industry made rapid development. After the Russo-Japanese War, "Champion" cider was put on the market to be soon followed by lemonade, citron, and different kinds of syrup, etc.

At present the total production of soft drinks amounts to 710,000 koku a year, of which sweetened drinks accounts for 93%, the rest being ordinary unflavoured aerated water or soda-water. Producers of soft drinks may be roughly divided into two classes. The first of these is composed of those who manufacture

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the drinks along with beer. These have good equipment and produce on a large scale. The second class is made up of those many who produce on a small scale and sell their products locally.

PRODUCTION OF SOFT DRINKS

Year	Lemonade	Cider	Soda water	Total
	koku	koku	koku	koku
1925	281,219	252,495	17,613	551,327
1926	384,741	238,940	23,195	646,876
1927	265,280	230,228	18,685	514,143
1928	219,425	246,344	16,410	482,679
1929	222,773	263,181	18,714	504,668
1930	176,835	218,629	17,022	412,486
1931[1]	136,826	212,436	15,460	364,722

	Lemonade, etc.		Soda water, etc.	Others and Total
1932 (in litre)[2]	22,954,172	73,047,750	7,119,783	161,218,950
1933	24,152,273	53,684,554	7,384,382	129,667,486

[1] Figures are for production between March 1,1931 and February 28, 1932.
[2] (See Chapter XXXII.)

Soft drinks which are now selling in Japan can be classified from the standpoint of water and gas used into the following:

(1) Those manufactured of natural spring water and natural carbonic acid.

(2) Those manufactured of natural spring water and artificial carbonic acid.

(3) Those manufactured of filtered or well-water and artificial carbonic acid gas.

Canning

Introduction

The canning industry in Japan was started as early as 1870, but the real impetus to its development was given by the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars as they created a great demand for canned provisions for the Army and Navy. The Treaty of Portsmouth also served to further encourage this industry by giving Japan fishing rights in Kamchatka and the Maritime Province of Siberia, and together with the development of can manufacturing and floating canneries, the above have been the cause of the great progress in the canning industry as a whole.

Present Conditions of the Industry

At present, the packing industry in Japan is in a fairly developed state in all of its branches. Canned meats have reached a stage where the quantity of production cannot be increased. The demand for meat in Japan has expanded so far that supply cannot keep pace with demand, a shortage of cattle is being felt and a plentiful supply for canning is not forthcoming. On the other hand, canned vegetables, such as canned bamboo shoots, are finding good markets in the U. S. A. and China. Of all the fruits procurable in cans pineapples are the most popular with the Japanese. They are produced in Formosa, and of the 450,000 cases or more that are pack-

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ed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Formosa, and only a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U. S. A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. In view of the fact that catches of salmon on the coast of the U. S. A. and Canada are decreasing the exportation of canned salmon is expected to increase, as also is the exportation of crab-meat, for the demand for it in the U. S. A. is increasing steadily.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS
IN 1933
(Quantity in 1,000 kg. value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	Quantity	Value
Canned meats	3,237	2,759
Canned fishes	57,219	42,358
,, fruit	3,576	2,103
,, vegetable	7,496	2,809
Other canned food	33,517	14,028
Total	105,045	64,057

The export of canned provisions from Japan for 1934 amounted to 110,417,000 kin in gross, worth ¥50,304,000, showing an increase of ¥3,320,000 over 1933. The low exchange rate was a potent factor to have caused the heavy gain in exports. Of the exports, 16,099,000 kin worth ¥11,170,000 was for the United States ; 43,526,000 kin, worth ¥24,711,000 for the United Kingdom; 4,566,000 kin worth ¥1,197,000 for the Kwantung Leased Territory ; 1,690,365 kin worth ¥828,000 for Hawaii ; 1,342,000 kin worth ¥797,000 for Australia ; and 43,194,000 kin worth ¥11,601,000 for others. Catches in Northern Waters in 1934 were almost unprecedentedly large, exceeding even those of 1929. The principal product, i. e., the canned red salmon totalled more than 1,000,000 cases, if products in the Northern Curile Islands were included, while product of canned crab totalled 417,000 cases. Export of canned salmon also proved good, as shown in the table attached at the end of this chapter. However, 1934 good catches in Northern Waters seem partly due to fishing ruthlessly carried out. In order to terminate ruthless way of fishing and to cultivate propagation of fishes, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry took steps to restrict, after 1935, the number of vessels engaged in fishing in Northern Waters to 30 per cent. less than the number engaged in 1934.

Export of Tunny Favoured by low exchange, export of tunny, especially to the United States, made a rapid development in recent years. It occupies the third position among fish products as export articles, the first and second being salmon and crab in the order named. Its amount exported in 1933 totalled ¥10,000,000, greater portion of which was sold in the U. S. A., where oiled canned tunny is highly valued as sea-chicken, which is produced almost exclusively in Shizuoka prefecture. The U. S. A.

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now began to bar import of tunny and in January, 1934, raised duty from 30 to 45 per cent. This led to a conference held at Los Angeles between exporters and importers.

A part of tunny is exported refrigerated and the balance as canned food. American importers proposed to restrict import of the two together to 10,000 tons a year which was one half of the quantity taken in 1933. This, however, Japanese exporters could not accept. The conference did not result in anything after all, it having finally failed in June. However, 1934 fishing of tunny was a poor haul, which naturally restricted the export of its product in that year.

Manufacturers

Of all the packing companies, the Nichiro-Gyogyo Kaisha, Ltd. (Japan-Russian Fishing Co., Ltd.) is the largest, in fact it is regarded as the largest of its kind in the world. The company is engaged in the manufacture of canned crab and salmon on the east and west coasts of Kamchatka and along the coast of the Sea of Okhotsk and the Maritime Province. The number of fishing districts of the company differs each year, but in 1931, the company had 135 fishing districts and 22 canneries. Besides these the company owns 9 cold storage vessels, the capacities of which are in total 13,156 tons, and several refrigerators in Aomori and Shibaura. The space in these refrigerators is 342,000 cu. ft., with a capacity to hold about 140,000 salmon.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED CRAB

Year	In Northern Waters		In Floating Canneries		In Other Places		Total
	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in kg.	Value in yen	Value in yen
1924	31,136	1,401,120	40,917	1,841,265	1,898,659	2,587,107	5,829,402
1929	105,780	4,231,200	346,813	14,487,322	785,696	1,157,297	19,875,819
1930	73,035	2,395,852	405,377	13,148,175	851,739	1,021,383	15,544,027
1931	63,947	1,905,843	240,207	7,302,961	986,756	1,065,915	10,274,719
1932	47,480	1,670,583	178,526	5,467,542	1,097,198	1,345,615	8,483,740
1933	25,129	1,168,965	153,712	7,476,267	4,549,909	4,686,704	13,673,308
1934	29,155	—	162,079	—	225,839	—	—

PRODUCTION OF CANNED SALMON

Year	In Northern Waters					
	Red Salmon		Salmon		Trout	
	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in cases	Value in yen
1924	522,707	12,819,088	61,683	864,582	191,111	2,574,544
1929	615,955	16,330,875	75,661	620,042	88,087	1,005,073
1930	601,933	12,504,247	102,905	912,064	569,630	5,035,112
1931	511,121	12,602,559	55,070	517,433	184,253	1,266,844
1932	416,164	13,771,888	40,186	659,716	713,091	5,469,149
1933	287,666	9,272,017	27,839	543,168	357,492	3,603,966
1934	460,062	18,530,401	45,687	802,902	837,306	8,929,175

Year	In Other Places Trout		Total				
	Qty in kg	Value in yen	Value in yen				
1924	465,281	228,312	16,486,526	1930	6,689,843	2,601,618	21,053,041
1929	15,887,077	5,697,016	23,953,006	1931	8,697,075	2,417,485	16,804,319
				1932	3,399,904	1,215,083	21,115,836
				1933	11,614,976	4,828,354	18,247,505
				1934	—	—	28,262,478

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EXPORTS OF CANNED CRAB AND SALMON

(Quantity in 1,000 cases, in 100 kin after 1928. Value in 1,000 yen)

Years		Great Britain		France		U.S.A.		Canada	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1922	Crab	5	31	—	—	28	183	—	—
	Salmon	25	90	—	—	—	—	—	—
1923	Crab	3	20	—	—	96	587	—	—
	Salmon	10	41	—	—	1	3	—	—
1924	Crab	161	979	8	47	575	3,567	3	12
	Salmon	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1925	Crab	293	1,838	5	33	1,186	7,503	10	60
	Salmon	12	48	—	—	—	—	—	—
1926	Crab	558	3,376	4	24	1,312	7,948	21	118
	Salmon	35	115	—	—	—	—	—	—
1927	Crab	877	4,554	21	101	1,515	8,238	28	176
	Salmon	419	1,274	—	—	—	—	—	—
1928	Crab	76,811	5,977	4,629	340	134,641	10,488	2,610	182
	Salmon	20,509	571	4,459	114	304	12	1	0
1929	Crab	41,330	3,713	6,081	533	113,162	9,821	3,036	254
	Salmon	73,924	1,797	71,822	1,735	46	1	—	—
1930	Crab	43,647	3,460	13,608	1,053	103,111	8,338	2,692	201
	Salmon	46,828	1,380	88,006	1,878	84	1	—	—
1931	Crab	48,701	3,623	13,409	975	93,607	6,760	1,783	127
	Salmon	33,173	949	119,050	2,196	2	—	—	—
1932	Crab	49,628	3,653	19,772	1,369	60,758	4,534	1,423	96
	Salmon	54,442	2,109	92,798	1,759	6,657	60	—	—
1933	Crab	69,347	6,574	30,114	2,832	76,367	7,385	778	69
	Salmon	86,522	5,415	180,969	4,463	115	2	—	—
1934	Crab	64,647	6,253	14,319	1,500	60,056	5,756	516	45
	Salmon	276,810	16,286	11,052	286	1,099	25	—	—

Years		Australia		Others		Total	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1922	Crab	—	—	600	4,216	633	4,374
	Salmon	—	—	25	105	80	195
1923	Crab	3	20	509	3,349	611	3,956
	Salmon	—	—	4	20	15	64
1924	Crab	17	92	42	118	796	4,885
	Salmon	—	—	3	11	3	11
1925	Crab	49	260	116	865	1,609	10,059
	Salmon	—	—	124	91	36	139
1926	Crab	74	396	112	655	2,081	12,517
	Salmon	—	—	6	19	41	134
1927	Crab	103	461	236	1,135	2,780	14,661
	Salmon	6	13	28	76	453	1,363
1928	Crab	7,684	553	13,391	1,033	23,836	18,578
	Salmon	1,351	38	14,359	333	40,983	1,098
1929	Crab	11,099	953	17,284	1,438	191,592	16,712
	Salmon	1,908	75	32,099	778	179,799	4,386
1930	Crab	8,840	662	10,825	755	182,223	14,477
	Salmon	3,576	133	26,482	690	164,976	3,982
1931	Crab	314	24	9,055	649	167,089	12,158
	Salmon	643	16	26,568	536	179,436	3,697
1932	Crab	2,909	184	13,143	914	147,633	10,750
	Salmon	553	24	57,242	1,087	208,672	5,039
1933	Crab	2,510	209	18,237	1,550	197,348	18,619
	Salmon	2,213	108	54,032	1,242	323,851	11,230
1934	Crab	5,833	487	14,335	1,379	159,806	15,420
	Salmon	5,103	263	82,416	2,050	376,480	18,860

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CHAPTER XXII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Paper, Cement, Ceramics, etc.

Paper

Historical and General

Paper-making in Japan remained a handicraft for over twelve centuries after a Korean priest, Doncho, introduced the technique in 610 A. D. (Some writers maintain that paper existed in this country prior to that date.) During this long period of time, various grades of paper were produced from fibres of certain shrubs such as "kozo[1]," "mitsumata[2]," "gampi[3]," etc.

Foreign-style paper was made for the first time in the 7th year of Meiji, 1874, in a small mill in Yukosha, Tokyo, through the assistance of an English engineer. Several more mills were established the following year, but the development of the industry was naturally slow on account of the small demand. In the beginning, the raw materials used for foreign-style paper were chiefly rags, but in 1889, wood pulp was used for the first time in a mill which belonged to the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. At first, the smallness of quantity required and competition from abroad made it that the industry had a very severe struggle, but as with all other industries, the wars with China in 1894-95 and with Russia in 1904-5 gave it a great chance of development. In 1910, the Tomakomai Mill of the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., which had been under construction since 1906 began operation. This was the turning point in the history of our paper-making industry, as Japan began to operate a mill in a place where she could get ample supplies of wood for pulp. With the establishment of the Tomakomai Mill Japan became self-supplying with respect to newsprint. Again, the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., took the initiative in establishing a pulp mill, in 1912, in Otomari, Saghalien Island, but was quickly followed by the Fuji Paper Mills, Ltd., and the Karafuto Industrial Co., Ltd. The industry was just getting well settled when the Great War broke out and prosperity was forced upon it. Importations of foreign-style paper was practically stopped. Demand at home advanced, exports increased and the industry expanded at a great speed. The production of foreign-style paper in 1881 was only 3,968,000 lbs., it increased to 327,614,000 lbs. in 1914, 519,141,000 lbs. in 1919, 817,383,000 lbs. in 1924, and 1,418,187,000 lbs. in 1929.

In 1932 the Oji Paper Mills, Fuji Paper Mills and Karafuto Industrial Company were merged into one firm under the name of the Oji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha (Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd.). It has a subscribed capital of ¥149,988,000, of which ¥112,661,475 is paid up, and is virtually monopolistic having control over 80% of the total paper production in the country and pro-

1 Paper mulberry. 2 Golden flowered Edgeworthia (Edgeworthia chrysantha). 3 An indigenous plant (Wikstroemia sikokiana).

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ducing about 85% of the total foreign-style paper. The real strength of the Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., Ltd. lies in its almost complete monopoly of pulp production. In 1933 it turned out 590,000 tons, which was equivalent to 95.2 per cent. of domestic production.

Production

The paper-making business in Japan was carried on for a long time as a side-line or cottage industry, and even to-day there are numerous families in local districts which are engaged in Japanese paper making. Foreign-style papers are produced on a modern industrial basis. Nine large companies form the Nihon Seishi Rengokai (The Paper-Makers' Association of Japan). They are the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd., Mitsubishi Paper Mills, Ltd., Hokuetsu Paper Mills, Ltd., Nihon Paper Industry Co., Ltd., Inui Paper Mills, Ltd., Nihon Paper Mills, Ltd., Nishino Paper Manufacturing Plant, Showa Co., and Asahi Co. These companies together produce 98% of the foreign-style paper in Japan. The chief functions of this organization at present are to make agreements for the limitation of production, for the joint control of stocked paper and for the maintenance of selling prices. Four of the member companies produce pulp in addition to paper, and the largest company, Oji, produces newsprint, the production of which is so large that they practically supply all domestic requirements, only a very small quantity being imported.

Production as well as sales broke previous records of 1,418,187,000 pounds and 1,379,231,000 pounds respectively in 1929. The chief cause for rise in volume of output and sales was a lifting of pressure from import paper because of a decline in the yen's exchange rate.

In 1930, the consumption of paper was reduced to an alarming degree and as a measure to dispose of surplus products, the Nihon Seishi Rengokai agreed to reduce production. During 1931, the curtailment was 35% from January to August, 45% from September to November, and 55% in December. The production of cardboard was also curtailed by 45%. In this manner, production in 1931 was reduced by 37,000,000 lbs. or 2.7% as compared with the previous year. The figures in the following tables show production since 1924.

PRODUCTION OF PAPER SINCE 1924

(Quantity in 1,000 kg. and value in ¥ 1,000)

Year	Printing paper		Copying paper		Drawing paper		Wrapping paper	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	285,926	72,084	536		240		17,848	3,601
1925	351,983	97,992	10,060		4,178		9,922	2,534
1926	366,572	98,835	3,943		1,869		12,649	2,867
1927	347,300	86,699	3,975		1,557		20,799	5,063
1928	355,056	90,172	4,331		1,411		17,704	4,007
1929	366,709	87,745	3,592	1,206	3,899	1,361	10,662	2,800
1930	369,523	74,055	4,661	1,587	731	243	14,557	2,559
1931	321,711	62,416	3,360	1,120	4,074	1,137	9,567	1,839
1932	217,196	54,566	2,366	818	3,374	1,127	22,655	4,369
1933	346,594	68,705	23,563	5,354	3,342	1,462	27,696	6,300

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Year	Match paper		Cigarette paper		Paper "renshi"		"Hanshi"	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	1,951	585	15,485	8,920	2,196	573	2,495	6,768
1925	2,753	841	2,515	554	2,066	705	2,258	6,496
1926	2,299	815	6,625	5,285	2,485	723	970	6,804
1927	1,964	560	7,373	5,186	5,511	1,458	2,819	8,073
1928	1,636	579	7,392	4,192	2,599	688	2,149	4,752
1929	732	212	7,564	7,382	1,813	453	6,927	11,640
1930	1,005	247	6,679	5,077	6,071	1,357	4,585	6,084
1931	812	176	4,210	2,452	7,624	1,302	4,394	5,849
1932	2,088	414	3,655	2,641	3,826	670	3,122	5,654
1933	1,952	501	7,656	4,633	4	1	1,347	5,091

Year	"Minogami"		"Torinoko," and imitation paper	Board		Others and total
	Quantity	Value	Value	Quantity	Value	Value
1924	471	2,490	2,904	102,756	11,571	150,440
1925	422	2,338	2,463	110,146	12,347	164,695
1926	269	1,932	4,842	114,962	14,151	179,630
1927	362	1,522	5,301	113,173	15,700	175,318
1928	194	883	7,278	135,149	17,194	182,476
1929	178	1,048	7,585	162,353	19,476	190,535
1930	128	845	4,368	150,215	15,469	154,574
1931	143	776	5,088	146,863	11,414	134,095
1932	168	954	7,120	130,253	11,646	132,170
1933	163	638	4,442	178,151	16,337	168,473

Cellophane

The monthly output of the Japanese cellophane industry, which has grown considerably within recent years, is approximately 6,000 reams produced by 11 manufacturing concerns, such as Nippon Cellophane, Tokyo Cellophane, Takasaki Cellophane, Fuji Glyphane and others. Ever since 1932 importing of the French product into Japan has been checked. Thus, the country's cellophane industry, having become self-sufficient, is today exporting this domestic product and the line is one of the most promising in the land. Cellophane exportation has been conducted since January, 1934. Orders keep coming from British India, the Straits Settlements, Hongkong and other points abroad. India is considered as an exceptionally worthwhile market for the product. Having become encouraged, many cellophane producers are expanding their products. The 1933 production reached 574,029 kg. valued at ¥2,000,000. This industry in Japan may outdistance the corresponding French industry, and places its products on the markets of various European countries. Cellophane was first imported into about 1923, but in the following year Japanese found how to manufacture it. The Tokyo Cellophane Company started the operation and then several other companies followed suit. Both imports and exports are hardly worth mentioning in quantity and value. Its production since 1929 rapidly expanded as the following table shows :

PRODUCTION OF CELLOPHANE

Year	Production	
	Qty in kg	Value in yen
1929	16,875	86,400
1930	—	85,400
1931	64,575	176,170
1932	147,000	473,634
1933	574,029	2,008,057

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Consumption of Paper

Foreign-Style Paper Looking at the figures of paper consumption, we find that until 1929 it kept increasing, but in the following year it decreased somewhat owing to the world-wide economic depression. It increased again in 1931, but we can safely presume that the stock was considerable, because imports increased considerably while exports decreased to an alarming degree. The following table indicates the trend of paper consumption during the past twelve years.

CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN-STYLE PAPER

(Quantity in 1,000 lbs.)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Consumption	Consumption per capita
1923	794,005	113,556	68,455	839,106	13.9
1924	893,249	175,384	77,164	991,469	16.2
1925	986,752	96,919	96,300	987,371	15.9
1926	1,106,788	137,622	86,462	1,157,947	18.4
1927	1,191,074	112,555	92,484	1,211,245	18.9
1928	1,343,479	102,863	134,035	1,312,307	20.2
1929	1,451,526	81,084	140,289	1,392,321	21.1
1930	1,401,711	100,160	168,808	1,333,063	19.9
1931	1,374,899	147,549	141,821	1,380,627	20.4
1932	1,311,315	99,453	87,356	1,323,412	19.0
1933	1,444,104	104,330	105,200	1,480,930	21.2
1934	1,591,474	138,556	139,715	1,605,350	22.6

Japanese Paper Accurate records of production of pure Japanese papers are not obtainable due to the extensiveness of production and the widespread and different classes of producers. Much "washi", or home-style paper is now made by machines and aside from this group we are at a loss to determine the exact amount produced. The Nihon Seishi Rengokai estimated the production of Japanese papers during 1932 to be about 150,000,000 lbs., and with an average price of 40 sen per lb., the total value was ¥60,000,000 for the year. Exports of these Japanese papers in the same year were 5.5% of the total weight. Subtracting exports from total production, about 140,000,000 lbs. remain as the amount consumed in 1932.

Pulp Industry

Since Japan started to manufacture wood pulp in 1889, its development has kept pace with the development in the paper industry, and expansion during the time of the World War was prodigious. The industry has been in a state of depression since 1921, but in spite of that capacity of production has expanded. In the years 1930, 1931 and the early part of 1932, it was further depressed on account of the shrinkage in demand, lower prices, and competition from Canada and Scandinavia.

Production and Imports The peculiarity of paper pulp production in Japan is that there is no independent mill which produce pulp of this description, that which is produced being turned out by paper-makers, who not only produce for their own consumption, but also for the purpose of selling to other paper-makers. Most of Japanese paper-makers who do not own pulp mills, therefore, must either rely on the Japanese pulp

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producers for supplies of pulp, or must buy imported pulp. Tables given below show the amount of production and import of pulp, as well as the amount of lumber used for pulp production. There is hardly any export of pulp from Japan.

PRODUCTION OF PULP

(in tons)

Year	Sulphite Pulp	Ground Pulp	Kraft Pulp	Others	Total
1928	310,020	237,203	20,306	—	567,529
1929	335,436	257,043	26,123	—	618,602
1930	337,151	259,984	28,402	—	625,537
1931	290,171	246,489	30,049	—	566,709
1932	277,588	241,746	31,786	—	551,120
1933	310,621	267,993	40,144	1,281	620,039

QUANTITY OF LUMBER CONSUMED FOR PULP MAKING

(unit in koku)

Year	Lumber Grown in Japan Proper	Lumber Grown in Hokkaido	Lumber Grown in Saghalien Isd	Lumber Grown in Korea	Total
1928	369	2,411,572	5,268,041	224,796	7,905,884
1929	616	2,399,972	5,881,730	295,751	8,578,069
1930	870	1,991,764	6,234,974	199,280	8,426,888
1931	280	1,391,188	5,823,950	201,548	7,416,011
1932	970	1,292,612	5,224,265	276,302	6,794,149
1933	2,917	1,367,684	5,594,475	313,807	7,278,883

IMPORT OF PULP

(Qty in 100 kin and value in ¥1,000)

Country of origin	1931		1932		1933		1934	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Sweden	272,530	1,792	230,132	1,220	439,657	3,571	800,652	7,488
Norway	365,536	4,115	174,087	2,013	527,249	7,577	669,256	10,464
U.S.A.	374,371	3,951	339,845	2,418	755,276	7,801	1,415,096	16,464
Canada	455,567	3,144	829,218	5,200	788,420	6,043	679,951	7,245
Others and total	1,712,784	15,328	1,703,762	11,840	2,708,373	27,066	3,814,656	44,265

Demand and Supply There is scarcely any export of pulp from Japan, and domestic production plus the quantity imported can be taken as quantity required. The following table shows the relation between demand and supply.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF PULPS DURING THE LAST 5 YEARS

(Unit in ton)

Year	Quantity produced	Quantity imported	Quantity required
1928	567,529	73,144	640,673
1929	618,602	80,410	699,012
1930	625,537	79,107	704,644
1931	566,709	100,636	667,221
1932	551,120	101,168	652,288
1933	620,039	159,880	779,919

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From 90 to 93% of the quantity consumed is taken by the member companies of the Rengokai.

Rayon Pulp Rayon pulp really holds no claim for inclusion here except that it is produced by the paper pulp manufacturing companies, who in turn are the paper manufacturers. A very brief survey only will be given. The rapid progress of rayon industry (see Chapter XVIII) is nothing but marvellous. Along this the consumption of rayon pulp increased rapidly. The total demand on rayon pulp in 1934 reached more than 70,000 tons, showing an increase of 70 per cent. over that of 1933. But the domestic production of rayon pulp amounted only to about 10 per cent. of the total requirement in 1933, and even in 1934 the quantity produced was barely 10,000 tons, which made it necessary to import more than 60,000 tons. Rayon pulp produced by the Oji Paper has now passed its experimental stage, and the company has extended mills so that it expects to produce about 24,000 tons a year starting from February, 1935. The company also established an independent company called Japan Rayon Pulp Co., Ltd., in Karafuto, with the capacity of 30,000 tons a year, which will be solely engaged in production of rayon pulp, and begins operation in April, 1935. The Oji Paper, therefore, is prepared to produce 54,000 tons of rayon pulp from the latter part of 1935,

1934 Paper Industry

Trend in General For the past two years paper industry was freed from the pressure of foreign competition through lower exchange and higher tariff. The increased demand made it possible to reduce the curtailment of production which was fixed at 55 per cent. since December, 1931 to 46 per cent. Furthermore, the sealed stock of paper has been reduced to a quantity smaller than regularly stocked quantity, which contributed in making the price strong.

The increase in volume of consumption made the demand and supply relation very sound. However, the nominal price of paper did not rise, while the price of pulp rose. Most of members of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai buy pulp so that their interest is directly opposite to that of the Oji Paper Co., Ltd. which produce 95 per cent. of the total domestic production of pulp. These companies, therefore, lodged claim with the Oji Paper Co., Ltd. and succeeded in reducing the price of pulp by 5 rin lb. in the latter part of the year.

Demand and Supply Production of foreign-style papers by member companies of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai in 1934 was 1,591,474,000 lbs. which, as compared with 1,444,104,000 lbs. of 1933, showed an increase of 147,370,000 lbs. or 10.2 per cent. Export amounted to 172,306,000 lbs. valued at ¥20,650,000 and showed gains of 18,282,000 lbs. and ¥2,963,000 or 11.8 and 16.7 per cent. respectively over the year before.

Import of paper amounted to 138,556,000 lbs. valued at ¥11,925,000 which showed an increase of 32.8 and 15.6 per cent. respectively over the year before. As to pulp, about 508,620,000 lbs. valued at ¥44,250,000 were imported from the U.S.A., Sweden, Canada, Norway and Germany, etc. The domestic requirement of pulp was 1,605,350,000 lbs., showing an increase of 148,270,000 lbs. over 1933.

Pulp Consumption of pulp by member companies of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai in 1934 follows :

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CONSUMPTION OF PULP FOR PAPER

(by member companies only)

Description	in tons 1933	1934	Increase in 1934
Chemical pulp	397,731	401,601	3,870
Ground pulp	255,396	296,344	40,948
Total	653,127	697,945	44,818

Both chemical and ground pulp increased in consumption, the rate of the total increase being 6.8 per cent. over 1933.

As regards production of pulp, the Forestry Bureau of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry estimated 696,560 tons as against 620,039 tons of 1933. However, the boom in the paper industry was such that the domestic production of pulp alone was not enough to meet the demand, this resulted in large import, figures of which follow :

IMPORT OF PULP

	In 1934	Increase over 1933
Quantity of pulp imported in tons	225,300	65,420
Value of pulp imported in ¥1,000	44,255	17,189

Figures show that the increase over 1933 was about 65,420 tons, which includes, however, a large quantity of rayon pulp.

Curtailment of Production The boom which has been kept up since the latter part of 1932 has enabled paper-makers to reduce the percentage of curtailment of production of foreign-style papers by successive steps. The curtailment which was kept at 55 per cent. throughout 1933 was reduced to 51 per cent. in May, 1934 and again to 46 per cent. after October of the same year. Curtailment of production of Japan-style paper is maintained at 30 per cent.

Pulp Industry in Manchoukuo Four companies have been established in Manchoukuo for production of rayon and paper pulp. They are Oji Paper Mills Pulp Co., Ltd. with a capital of ¥20,000,000, Eastern Manchurian Pulp Co., Ltd., with ¥15,000,000, Japan Manchurian Pulp Industry Co., Ltd., with ¥10,000,000 and Manchurian Pulp Co., Ltd. with ¥5,000,000.

Market in General Good sales of foreign-style paper kept its price firm. However, mindful of warning of the Department of Commerce and Industry, the Rengokai did not raise the nominal price. It is thought that a further raising of price by a large margin would be impossible at present, even though the market improves further. The following table shows firm tone of the paper market indicating that the control of the industry is well maintained :

MARKET PRICE OF B IMMITATION PAPER

(in sen per lb.)

Months	Highest	Lowest
Jan.-June	16.8	16.8
July	16.8	16.7
Aug.-Dec.	16.8	16.8

As regards pulp it was once very difficult to make import owing to low exchange, which raised the price of domestic pulp. Along with the great demand on rayon pulp, price of unbleached sulphite pulp rose as high as 8.3 sen per lb. in the earlier part of the year, which later declined to 7.7 sen, again picking up to 8.2 sen toward the close of the year. The fluctuation of price follows :

MARKET PRICE OF PULP

(in sen per lb.)

Months	Highest	Lowest
Jan.-June	8.3	8.3
July	8.3	7.7
Aug.-Oct.	7.7	7.7
Nov.-Dec	8.2	7.7

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Fertilizers

In 1931 the association formed by manufacturers of chemical fertilizers, maintained a high rate of curtailment of production in order to minimize the loss resulted from the general alarming situation on industries, especially on agriculture, but the dumping of sulphate of ammonia by British and German manufacturers swept the fertilizer market and the prices of bean cake, fish guano, sulphate of ammonia, superphosphate of lime, mixed fertilizers, cyanamide, etc., slumped to destructive levels. The domestic manufacturers did everything possible in their powers to stop importations. They proposed the raising of the rate of import duty, the passing law, the establishment of a system of special permits for import and export, and so on, but practically in vain. The price of sulphate of ammonia declined to as low as ¥60 per ton. The situation was very serious, and at last, in November, a special permit system was put into effect through a Departmental ordinance. A ministerial change took place during December and the Seiyukai Party came into power. The Government at once re-imposed the embargo on gold, exports and the stock market immediately became active, and industries, including the fertilizer industry, followed suit.

The problem of food in Japan is a serious one. The Japanese population is increasing yearly by about a million, but the amount of food produced in the country is not enough to feed them. Besides, the arable land in the country is so small and limited that hardly any space is left to effect any further increase, and the only method left, beyond extending abroad, is to increase the yield of crops through intensive farming. For this fertilizers are necessary and the demand has steadily been increasing. The consumption of fertilizers during 1930 was valued at ¥526,685,000, of which ¥282,470,000 were self-supplied fertilizers, while ¥244,215,000's worth were bought in the market.

General Condition of the Industry

Of all the chemical fertilizers, superphosphate of lime and sulphate of ammonia are the two representative ones, and because of the largeness of their demand and supply the market trend of these two is practically the market trend of the rest.

Superphosphate of Lime The principal raw material for the manufacture of superphosphate of lime is phosphate rock. During 1930 some 570,000 tons were imported, while some 63,385 tons were produced at home, and during 1933 and 1934 imports were 698,234 and 671,533 tons respectively. This rock is imported from U. S. A., Egypt, and the South Sea Islands.

Superphosphate production has been gaining steadily and last year its production is estimated at 1,125,000 tons. Production during the past few years is reported by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry as follows:

PRODUCTION OF SUPERPHOSPHATES
(In metric tons)

1929	408,971
1930	424,484
1931	888,887
1932	1,037,730
1933	1,127,977
1934 (estimate)	1,125,000

The superphosphate market was depressed throughout the year due to rural depression, higher prices of raw materials, and constant disputes between the Union of Superphosphate Distributors and its outsiders.

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Low exchange and conclusion of the International Phosphate Agreement last year together acted to pull up prices of phosphate rocks and finished products. Domestic production capacity is rated at about 1,955,000 tons a year about 45 per cent. of which is, however, curtailed. Production in recent years runs between 1,120,000 and 1,230,000 tons.

Fluctuations in the market price of superphosphate during 1933 and 1934 were as follows:

PRICE OF SUPERPHOSPHATE, 1933, 1934

(The price is per bag of 7.5 kan.)

	1933		1934	
	High	Low	High	Low
January	¥1.20	1.15	1.15	1.13
February	1.20	1.15	1.17	1.15
March	1.08	1.05	1.17	1.16
April	1.05	1.04	1.16	1.16
May	1.05	.95	1.16	1.15
June	1.05	1.00	1.15	1.14
July	.95	.90	1.14	1.14
August	.90	.88	1.11	1.10
September	.98	.88	1.14	1.10
October,	1.08	.98	1.13	1.12
November	1.12	1.08	1.12	1.10
December	1.13	1.13	1.12	1.11

Sulphate of Ammonia The demand for sulphate of ammonia has steadily increased for years. Consumption in 1930 was 488,000 tons, in 1931 it showed a remarkable increase to 618,000 tons. Imports in 1930 were 302,905 tons (value ¥29,612,000), in 1931 they decreased to 224,148 tons and in 1932 a decrease to 119,000 tons was witnessed, value being ¥15,861,000 and ¥7,035,000 respectively. The decrease in imports was made good by the increase in domestic production, which in 1931 was 393,237 tons, while in 1932 it increased to 604,235 tons, to 719,000 tons in 1933 and to 735,000 tons in 1934. Japan, in this manner, has become self-supporting in sulphate of ammonia, and has become very uneasy regarding overproduction in the future.

In Europe and America, the International Nitrogen Conference failed to relieve various countries from the pressure of overproduction, and these countries, in 1931, tried to dump their stocks in the Orient, especially in Japan, thereby causing the price of sulphate to sharply decline.

Ammonium sulphate production has been rising remarkably in the past several years, especially since the fall of the yen made competition by foreign fertilizers more difficult. Last year output rose to 735,000 tons. In 1932 it had registered the biggest advance in its history, jumping from the 393,237 tons of 1931 to 604,235. Last year showed a total more than nine times as great as that of 1920. Figures follow:

AMMONIUM SULPHATE PRODUCTION

(In tons)

1920	80,100
1925	181,138
1926	147,000
1927	176,475
1928	232,425
1929	234,609
1930	265,826
1931	393,237
1932	604,235
1933	713,550
1934	735,000

The following table shows producers of sulphate of ammonia with their capacities of production:

PRODUCTION CAPACITY OF AMMONIUM SULPHATE IN 1935

(in tons)

Companies	Present capacity	Capacity to be increased in 1935	Total production capacity
Nippon Chisso	11,000	—	110,000
Dai Nippon Art. Fert.	50,000	—	50,000
Denki Kagaku	100,000	—	100,000
Miiké Chisso	47,500	47,500	50,000
Showa Fert.	220,000	—	220,000
Sumitomo Fert.	120,000	30,000	150,000
Ubé Chisso	50,000	50,000	100,000
Claude Chisso	5,000	—	5,000

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Companies	Present capacity	Capacity to be increased in 1935	Total production capacity
Daido Fert.	6,000	—	6,000
Hokuetsu Hydro.	9,000	—	9,000
Toyo High Pres.	—	150,000	150,000
Total	717,500	277,500	995,000
Gas Companies	11,000	—	11,000
Steel Works	11,000	—	11,000
Mitsui Mines	3,200	—	3,200
Kamaishi Mines	1,800	—	1,800
Wanishi Steel	1,500	—	1,500
Total	28,500	—	28,500
Japan proper total	746,000	277,500	1,023,500
Chosen Chisso	420,000	—	420,000
Mitsubishi Steel	2,400	—	2,400
Chosen total	422,400	—	422,400
Manchuria Chemical	—	180,000	180,000
Grand total	1,168,400	457,500	1,625,800

The gains made by ammonium sulphate are due to the fact that it has gained the reputation as the fastest working fertilizer sold here, since it is quickly absorbed into the soil of both paddy and upland fields and is effective for all kinds of cereals and vegetables except legumes. Since the World War it has been encroaching upon the field of bean cake, also a nitrate fertilizer. Foreign ammonium sulphate dominated the market until a few years ago and the domestic industry hardly got going. The lower yen aided it and this year's output is expected to be well above 1,100,000 tons. In spite of the fact that all domestic fertilizer companies have been operating at capacity in ammonium sulphate, Japan expects to have a deficit of 120,000 to 130,000 tons for the 1934 fertilizing year (August, 1934, to July, 1935), according to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Supply and demand figures follow :

AMMONIUM SULPHATE DEMAND AND SUPPLY

(In 1,000 tons)

SUPPLY:	1933	1934
Brought over from previous year	107	72
Estimated production	829	880
Imported	61	11
Supply total	997	1,063
DEMAND:	**1933**	**1934**
Estimated consumption	996	1,080
Exported	32	—
Brought over to next year	0	110
Demand total	1,028	1,190

SULPHATE OF AMMONIA

PRICES, 1933-34

Domestic product per 10 kan bag *

	1933		1934	
	High	Low	High	Low
January	3.90	3.78	3.45	3.45
February	3.85	3.64	3.55	3.45
March	3.74	3.45	3.60	3.50
April	3.58	3.55	3.61	3.55
May	3.58	3.35	3.75	3.61
June	3.60	3.39	3.78	3.58
July	3.63	3.35	3.60	3.55
August	3.35	3.35	3.47	3.44
September	3.35	3.33	3.45	3.43
October	3.33	3.33	3.48	3.45
November	3.50	3.33	3.45	3.42
December	3.45	3.44	3.51	3.45

* 27 bags of the domestic product constitute a ton.

Cyanamide While cyanamide was a fertilizer difficult to make farmers use it, they now recognize the merit of this nitrogenous fertilizer, and owing perhaps to its reasonableness in price, its consumption increased with a great stride. In 1931 its consumption was 168,448 tons, in 1932 180,583 tons, and in 1933 223,409 tons. Production increased rapidly too. While, in 1924, it barely amounted to about 30,000 tons, it increased up to 278,825 tons in 1933, almost ten times as large. The following table shows this :

PRODUCTION OF CYANAMIDE

(Unit in metric ton and in yen)

Year	Quantity	Value
1924	29,981	4,510,707
1925	49,662	8,133,625
1926	97,107	8,353,940
1927	64,981	6,146,775
1928	65,190	6,311,975
1929	211,593	17,355,508
1930	205,572	16,649,704
1931	195,018	9,747,662
1932	283,386	16,700,175
1933	278,825	19,934,167

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Sales are made through the joint sales association. Through the control of this association, and also with the increased demand, the cyanamide market in 1934 was kept firm. From August the article was sold out at a reduced price, since with that month the new fertilizer season of 1934-1935 began. The average monthly price of cyanamide in 1934 follows :

PRICE OF CYANAMIDE, 1934

(20% ingredient 6 kwan net per bag)

Jan.	¥1.75	May	¥1.83	Sept.	¥1.65
Feb.	1.80	June	1.80	Oct.	1.67
Mar.	1.80	July	1.80	Nov.	1.65
Apr.	1.82	Aug.	1.65	Dec.	1.67

Vegetable Fertilizers Vegetable fertilizers are many in kind. Bean cake, rape-seed cake, cotton-seed cake, rice bran, etc., come into this class of fertilizers, bean cake being the most important. Supplies and consumption for 1933 were :

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF VEGETABLE FERTILIZERS, 1933

(in ton)

	Production at home	Imports	Exports	Consumption
Bean cake	244,768	530,953	2,319	770,029
Rape-seed cake	74,100	43,394	—	73,800
Cotton-seed cake	28,500	64,649	—	67,900

The domestic production of bean cake is very small when compared with the quantity imported, the greater part of which comes from Manchoukuo. In 1912 the consumption of bean cake, rape-seed cake, and cotton-seed cake was 34,640 tons, which, by 1921, increased to over a million tons, but since then no increase can be noted as the development of the synthetic nitrogen industry has cut deeply into the development of vegetable fertilizer industry.

A piece of a bean cake weighs 46 kin, or 7.4 kan. The average price of one piece was as high as ¥2.29 in 1926, whereas in 1933, the highest price was ¥1.18 and the lowest ¥0.95, a demonstration of the depressed state of the fertilizer market.

Owing to great bumper crops of soy beans in Manchoukuo in 1933, their production being estimated at 4,600,000 tons, an increase of 900,000 tons over 1932, sales of soy bean cakes revived to a great extent in 1934, and the market was firm, though in the latter part of the year demand contracted owing to crop failures in Japan. In spite of that import amounted to 6,795,000 pieces, a gain of 1,324,000 pieces over 1933. Market prices for 1934 follow :

MARKET PRICES OF BEAN CAKES IN 1934

(in yen)

	On 1st	On 11th	On 21st
Jannary (On the 4th)	2.99	2.94	3.00
February	3.07	3.19	3.17
March	3.13	3.12	3.05
April	2.98	3.08	3.10
May	3.01	3.12	3.15
June	3.10	2.93	2.90
July	2.83	2.91	3.05
August	3.21	3.45	3.35
September	3.44	3.44	3.57
October	3.87	3.84	3.74
November	3.58	3.61	3.50
December	3.58	3.70	3.62

Fish and Animal Fertilizers In Japan fish is indispensable as food, but at the same time they are caught for oil extraction and the refuse is converted into manure. The consumption of fish and animal fertilizers is as shown in the tables attached at the end of this article.

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In addition to chemical, vegetable and animal fertilizers, a great quantity of self-supplied fertilizers are supplied and consumed, the figures for which are given also in statistics attached at the end of this subject.

1934 Fertilizer Industry

Trend in General. 1933 rice bumper crops increased purchasing power of farmers in general, which was reflected in good sales of fertilizers in the earlier part of the year, and the industry was active. However, the yield of agricultural crops in 1934 proved to be extremely poor, and the sales of fertilizers in the latter part of the year was not as good as expected.

According to statistics of Finance Ministry, imports of principal fertilizers in 1934 are as given below, which show an increase both in quantity and value. Organic fertilizers, consumption of which once showed a decreasing tendency, indicated a gain, this being especially the case with bean cakes, which attracted attention. This was due, however, to a great yield of soy beans in Manchoukuo in 1933.

IMPORT OF PRINCIPAL FERTILIZERS
(in kin)

	1933	1934	Increase in 1934
Sulphate of potash	390,000	815,000	425,000
Nitrate of soda	582,000	663,000	81,000
Bone meal	402,000	476,000	74,000
Bean cakes	8,993,000	10,767,000	1,774,000

As to the amount of production in 1934 it is not available yet, but the Ministry of Commerce and Industry gives a tentative report on the production of the three principal chemical fertilizers as follows:

Superphosphate of lime	1,073,619 tons
Sulphate of ammonium	802,205 „
Cyanamide	139,662 „

Statistics

Production, imports, exports, and consumption of various kinds of fertilizers are to be found in the following tables:

THE VALUE OF FERTILIZERS PRODUCED IN JAPAN PROPER 1929-1933
(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fertilizers which requires a licence for production					Fertilizer not requiring any licence for production	Total
	Animal	Vegetable	Chemical	Mixed	Miscellaneous		
1924	21,[illegible]	37,290	54,320	36,170	140	26,000	175,760
1925	26,[illegible]	41,660	64,380	45,940	170	26,000	204,670
1926	24,010	46,560	69,710	42,990	200	26,000	209,470
1927	21,139	37,039	70,423	41,820	165	26,000	196,585
1928	22,254	39,667	82,483	53,112	318	26,000	223,834
1929	19,619	43,521	87,284	60,116	217	26,000	236,757
1930	12,703	30,061	76,953	38,551	62	26,000	184,330
1931	13,092	24,083	61,557	25,910	85	26,000	150,727
1932	19,678	25,806	81,798	30,659	48	26,000	183,989
1933	25,891	31,563	102,026	42,408	48	26,000	227,936

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS 1924-1933 (Value in ¥1,000)

Bean cake		Rape-seed cake		Cotton-seed cake	
Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value
214,950	20,810	66,263	8,010	14,138	1,400
233,813	24,200	69,375	8,180	21,413	2,120
270,413	26,600	103,313	11,070	29,625	2,590
[illegible],175	19,542	98,700	9,872	29,325	2,022
[illegible],750	21,068	79,425	9,098	32,250	2,622
[illegible],002	23,633	93,762	9,449	50,058	3,973
[illegible],727	16,505	99,433	7,367	43,459	2,321

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Year	Bean cake		Rape-seed cake		Cotton-seed cake	
	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value
1931	279,265	12,278	102,588	6,872	25,879	1,068
1932	221,369	11,726	79,117	6,516	19,809	1,206
1933	244,763	16,986	74,105	6,332	28,551	1,887

PRODUCTION OF ANIMAL FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS 1924-1933. (Value in ¥1,000, quantity in tons.)

Year	Herring		Sardine		Dried sardine		Powdered fish meal		Bone meal	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	32,100	5,080	40,163	5,800	9,938	1,270	10,897	1,560	31,425	3,770
1925	44,775	7,690	42,000	6,600	4,950	570	13,262	2,088	34,763	4,310
1926	40,988	6,620	44,475	6,220	3,438	340	12,469	1,824	36,413	4,150
1927	46,200	6,597	34,163	4,154	1,388	128	16,038	2,003	33,038	3,493
1928	26,813	3,679	46,350	5,981	16,388	1,155	26,303	3,075	33,600	3,492
1929	12,013	1,687	55,286	5,461	12,494	865	20,252	2,370	37,352	3,691
1930	19,668	1,740	42,277	2,979	4,969	293	25,161	2,044	34,234	2,467
1931	22,114	1,280	77,100	4,208	8,759	309	44,140	3,014	28,908	1,790
1932	28,468	1,987	124,548	7,687	16,449	827	48,489	3,918	27,492	2,071
1933	30,201	2,770	141,301	9,418	16,450	720	82,111	7,010	26,168	2,021

PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS 1924-1933. (Value in ¥1,000, quantity in tons.)

Year	Sulphate of ammonia		Cyanamide		Superphosphate of lime		Sulphate of potash	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	108,713	18,310	121,688	12,240	593,325	22,320	713	80
1925	131,138	24,630	125,325	11,280	673,800	26,420	75	10
1926	147,000	23,080	140,663	11,960	786,263	28,870	563	60
1927	176,475	22,470	120,413	10,883	934,838	32,897	75	8
1928	232,425	29,622	159,938	15,051	926,175	32,256	600	71
1929	234,609	30,062	161,157	15,959	947,204	31,242	68	6
1930	265,826	23,936	228,383	16,959	957,159	29,830	207	24
1931	393,287	25,422	168,042	8,748	862,401	22,952	36	3
1932	459,663	36,126	180,583	10,660	1,041,497	29,219	203	34
1933	471,398	41,151	223,409	15,159	1,116,573	33,148	182	23

Year	Muriate of potash		New fertilizers		Mixed fertilizers	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	4,302	394	—	—	413,138	36,170
1925	3,895	355	—	—	480,825	45,940
1926	4,932	420	—	—	493,538	42,990
1927	6,163	536	—	—	532,725	41,820
1928	5,203	440	64,439	3,706	680,813	53,112
1929	5,325	406	121,320	9,484	777,287	60,116
1930	5,197	404	82,044	5,126	627,141	38,551
1931	8,005	592	56,024	3,243	546,623	25,910
1932	8,373	764	104,321	4,871	616,828	30,659
1933	9,979	871	167,522	11,637	710,086	42,408

IMPORTS OF PRINCIPAL FERTILIZERS 1924-1934 (in tons.)

Year	Bone meal	Bean cake	Rape-seed cake	Cotton-seed cake	Nitrate of soda	Sulphate of ammonia	Cyanamide
1924	43,163	1,118,288	90,188	42,525	40,425	168,397	—
1925	43,050	1,010,250	86,325	62,700	38,025	203,550	—
1926	36,600	1,266,638	98,363	57,938	63,975	295,025	2,800
1927	37,613	1,185,863	64,800	60,263	55,463	250,014	7,110
1928	36,000	981,563	88,200	52,163	52,650	284,475	2,757
1929	40,007	831,857	69,635	58,575	88,567	380,658	14,757
1930	30,217	889,743	48,039	82,125	30,575	302,905	3,575
1931	37,119	1,032,680	54,380	64,072	34,994	224,148	406
1932	32,062	629,407	69,686	21,718	23,757	118,735	—
1933	24,126	539,586	44,175	65,789	34,902	108,444	—
1934	28,113	635,983	34,697	82,849	39,184	158,333	—

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ed in that island about 400,000 cases are consumed in Japan proper while a greater part of the balance is sold in Formosa, and only a few thousand cases are exported to foreign countries. As to canned fish and shellfish, the production of canned crab and salmon dominates all others. In no other places are canned crabs produced in such large quantities as in Japan, and most of this production is exported to the U. S. A., annual exports being valued at about ¥10,000,000. Red and silver salmon are finding a good market in Great Britain. In view of the fact that catches of salmon on the coast of the U. S. A. and Canada are decreasing the exportation of canned salmon is expected to increase, as also is the exportation of crab-meat, for the demand for it in the U. S. A. is increasing steadily.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED PROVISIONS
IN 1933
(Quantity in 1,000 kg. value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	Quantity	Value
Canned meats	3,237	2,759
Canned fishes	57,219	42,358
,, fruit	3,576	2,103
,, vegetable	7,496	2,809
Other canned food	33,517	14,028
Total	105,045	64,057

The export of canned provisions from Japan for 1934 amounted to 110,417,000 kin in gross, worth ¥50,304,000, showing an increase of ¥3,320,000 over 1933. The low exchange rate was a potent factor to have caused the heavy gain in exports. Of the exports, 16,099,000 kin worth ¥11,170,000 was for the United States ; 43,526,000 kin, worth ¥24,711,000 for the United Kingdom; 4,566,000 kin worth ¥1,197,000 for the Kwantung Leased Territory ; 1,690,365 kin worth ¥828,000 for Hawaii ; 1,342,000 kin worth ¥797,000 for Australia ; and 43,194,000 kin worth ¥11,601,000 for others. Catches in Northern Waters in 1934 were almost unprecedentedly large, exceeding even those of 1929. The principal product, i. e., the canned red salmon totalled more than 1,000,000 cases, if products in the Northern Curile Islands were included, while product of canned crab totalled 417,000 cases. Export of canned salmon also proved good, as shown in the table attached at the end of this chapter. However, 1934 good catches in Northern Waters seem partly due to fishing ruthlessly carried out. In order to terminate ruthless way of fishing and to cultivate propagation of fishes, the Department of Agriculture and Forestry took steps to restrict, after 1935, the number of vessels engaged in fishing in Northern Waters to 30 per cent. less than the number engaged in 1934.

Export of Tunny Favoured by low exchange, export of tunny, especially to the United States, made a rapid development in recent years. It occupies the third position among fish products as export articles, the first and second being salmon and crab in the order named. Its amount exported in 1933 totalled ¥10,000,000, greater portion of which was sold in the U. S. A., where oiled canned tunny is highly valued as sea-chicken, which is produced almost exclusively in Shizuoka prefecture. The U. S. A.

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now began to bar import of tunny and in January, 1934, raised duty from 30 to 45 per cent. This led to a conference held at Los Angeles between exporters and importers.

A part of tunny is exported refrigerated and the balance as canned food. American importers proposed to restrict import of the two together to 10,000 tons a year which was one half of the quantity taken in 1933. This, however, Japanese exporters could not accept. The conference did not result in anything after all, it having finally failed in June. However, 1934 fishing of tunny was a poor haul, which naturally restricted the export of its product in that year.

Manufacturers

Of all the packing companies, the Nichiro-Gyogyo Kaisha, Ltd. (Japan-Russian Fishing Co., Ltd.) is the largest, in fact it is regarded as the largest of its kind in the world. The company is engaged in the manufacture of canned crab and salmon on the east and west coasts of Kamchatka and along the coast of the Sea of Okhotsk and the Maritime Province. The number of fishing districts of the company differs each year, but in 1931, the company had 135 fishing districts and 22 canneries. Besides these the company owns 9 cold storage vessels, the capacities of which are in total 13,156 tons, and several refrigerators in Aomori and Shibaura. The space in these refrigerators is 342,000 cu. ft., with a capacity to hold about 140,000 salmon.

PRODUCTION OF CANNED CRAB

Year	In Northern Waters		In Floating Canneries		In Other Places		Total
	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in kg.	Value in yen	Value in yen
1924	31,136	1,401,120	40,917	1,841,265	1,898,659	2,587,107	5,829,402
1929	105,780	4,231,200	346,813	14,487,822	785,696	1,157,297	19,875,819
1930	73,035	2,395,852	405,377	13,148,175	851,739	1,021,383	15,544,027
1931	63,947	1,905,843	240,207	7,302,961	986,756	1,065,915	10,274,719
1932	47,480	1,670,583	178,526	5,467,542	1,097,198	1,345,615	8,483,740
1933	25,129	1,168,955	153,712	7,476,267	4,549,909	4,686,704	13,673,308
1934	29,155	—	162,079	—	225,839	—	—

PRODUCTION OF CANNED SALMON

Year	In Northern Waters					
	Red Salmon		Salmon		Trout	
	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in cases	Value in yen	Qty in cases	Value in yen
1924	522,707	12,819,088	61,683	864,582	191,111	2,574,544
1929	615,955	16,330,875	75,661	620,042	88,087	1,005,073
1930	601,933	12,504,247	102,905	912,064	569,630	5,035,112
1931	511,121	12,602,559	55,070	517,433	184,253	1,266,844
1932	416,164	13,771,888	40,186	659,716	713,091	5,469,149
1933	287,666	9,272,017	27,839	543,168	357,492	3,603,966
1934	460,062	18,530,401	45,687	802,902	837,306	8,929,175

Year	In Other Places Trout		Total
	Qty in kg	Value in yen	Value in yen
1924	465,281	228,312	16,486,526
1929	15,887,077	5,697,016	23,953,006
1930	6,689,843	2,601,618	21,053,041
1931	8,697,075	2,417,485	16,804,319
1932	3,399,904	1,215,083	21,115,836
1933	11,614,976	4,828,354	18,247,505
1934	—	—	28,262,478

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EXPORTS OF CANNED CRAB AND SALMON

(Quantity in 1,000 cases, in 100 kin after 1928. Value in 1,000 yen)

Years		Great Britain		France		U.S.A.		Canada	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1922	Crab	5	31	—	—	28	183	—	—
	Salmon	25	90	—	—	—	—	—	—
1923	Crab	3	20	—	—	96	587	—	—
	Salmon	10	41	—	—	1	3	—	—
1924	Crab	161	979	8	47	575	3,567	3	12
	Salmon	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1925	Crab	293	1,888	5	33	1,186	7,503	10	60
	Salmon	12	48	—	—	—	—	—	—
1926	Crab	558	3,376	4	24	1,312	7,948	21	118
	Salmon	35	115	—	—	—	—	—	—
1927	Crab	877	4,554	21	101	1,515	8,238	28	176
	Salmon	419	1,274	—	—	—	—	—	—
1928	Crab	76,811	5,977	4,629	340	134,641	10,488	2,610	182
	Salmon	20,509	571	4,459	114	304	12	1	0
1929	Crab	41,330	3,713	6,081	533	113,162	9,821	3,036	254
	Salmon	73,924	1,797	71,822	1,735	46	1	—	—
1930	Crab	43,647	3,460	13,608	1,053	103,111	8,338	2,692	201
	Salmon	46,828	1,380	88,006	1,878	84	1	—	—
1931	Crab	48,701	3,623	13,409	975	93,607	6,760	1,783	127
	Salmon	38,173	949	119,050	2,196	2	—	—	—
1932	Crab	49,628	3,653	19,772	1,369	60,758	4,584	1,423	96
	Salmon	54,442	2,109	92,798	1,759	6,657	60	—	—
1933	Crab	69,847	6,574	30,114	2,832	76,867	7,385	773	69
	Salmon	86,522	5,415	180,969	4,463	115	2	—	—
1934	Crab	64,647	6,253	14,319	1,500	60,056	5,756	516	45
	Salmon	276,810	16,286	11,052	286	1,099	25	—	—

Years		Australia		Others		Total	
		Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1922	Crab	—	—	600	4,216	633	4,374
	Salmon	—	—	25	105	80	195
1923	Crab	3	20	509	3,349	611	3,956
	Salmon	—	—	4	20	15	64
1924	Crab	17	92	42	118	706	4,885
	Salmon	—	—	3	11	3	11
1925	Crab	49	260	116	365	1,609	10,059
	Salmon	—	—	124	91	36	139
1926	Crab	74	396	112	655	2,081	12,517
	Salmon	—	—	6	19	41	134
1927	Crab	103	461	236	1,185	2,780	14,661
	Salmon	6	13	28	76	453	1,363
1928	Crab	7,684	553	13,391	1,033	23,836	18,573
	Salmon	1,351	38	14,359	333	40,983	1,098
1929	Crab	11,099	953	17,284	1,438	191,592	16,712
	Salmon	1,908	75	32,099	778	179,799	4,386
1930	Crab	8,840	662	10,825	755	182,223	14,477
	Salmon	3,576	133	26,482	690	164,976	3,982
1931	Crab	314	24	9,055	649	167,089	12,158
	Salmon	643	16	26,568	536	179,436	3,697
1932	Crab	2,909	184	13,143	914	147,633	10,750
	Salmon	553	24	57,242	1,087	208,672	5,039
1933	Crab	2,510	209	18,237	1,550	197,348	18,619
	Salmon	2,213	108	54,032	1,242	323,851	11,230
1934	Crab	5,833	487	14,335	1,379	159,806	15,420
	Salmon	5,103	263	82,416	2,050	376,480	18,860

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CHAPTER XXII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES

Paper, Cement, Ceramics, etc.

Paper

Historical and General

Paper-making in Japan remained a handicraft for over twelve centuries after a Korean priest, Doncho, introduced the technique in 610 A. D. (Some writers maintain that paper existed in this country prior to that date.) During this long period of time, various grades of paper were produced from fibres of certain shrubs such as "kozo[1]," "mitsumata[2]," "gampi[3]," etc.

Foreign-style paper was made for the first time in the 7th year of Meiji, 1874, in a small mill in Yukosha, Tokyo, through the assistance of an English engineer. Several more mills were established the following year, but the development of the industry was naturally slow on account of the small demand. In the beginning, the raw materials used for foreign-style paper were chiefly rags, but in 1889, wood pulp was used for the first time in a mill which belonged to the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. At first, the smallness of quantity required and competition from abroad made it that the industry had a very severe struggle, but as with all other industries, the wars with China in 1894-95 and with Russia in 1904-5 gave it a great chance of development. In 1910, the Tomakomai Mill of the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., which had been under construction since 1906 began operation. This was the turning point in the history of our paper-making industry, as Japan began to operate a mill in a place where she could get ample supplies of wood for pulp. With the establishment of the Tomakomai Mill Japan became self-supplying with respect to newsprint. Again, the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd., took the initiative in establishing a pulp mill, in 1912, in Otomari, Saghalien Island, but was quickly followed by the Fuji Paper Mills, Ltd., and the Karafuto Industrial Co., Ltd. The industry was just getting well settled when the Great War broke out and prosperity was forced upon it. Importations of foreign-style paper was practically stopped. Demand at home advanced, exports increased and the industry expanded at a great speed. The production of foreign-style paper in 1881 was only 3,968,000 lbs., it increased to 327,614,000 lbs. in 1914, 519,141,000 lbs. in 1919, 817,383,000 lbs. in 1924, and 1,418,187,000 lbs. in 1929.

In 1932 the Oji Paper Mills, Fuji Paper Mills and Karafuto Industrial Company were merged into one firm under the name of the Oji Seishi Kabushiki Kaisha (Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd.). It has a subscribed capital of ¥149,988,000, of which ¥112,661,475 is paid up, and is virtually monopolistic having control over 80% of the total paper production in the country and pro-

1 Paper mulberry. 2 Golden flowered Edgeworthia (Edgeworthia chrysantha). 3 An indigenous plant (Wikstroemia sikokiana).

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ducing about 85% of the total foreign-style paper. The real strength of the Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., Ltd. lies in its almost complete monopoly of pulp production. In 1933 it turned out 590,000 tons, which was equivalent to 95.2 per cent. of domestic production.

Production

The paper-making business in Japan was carried on for a long time as a side-line or cottage industry, and even to-day there are numerous families in local districts which are engaged in Japanese paper making. Foreign-style papers are produced on a modern industrial basis. Nine large companies form the Nihon Seishi Rengokai (The Paper-Makers' Association of Japan). They are the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, Ltd., Mitsubishi Paper Mills, Ltd., Hokuetsu Paper Mills, Ltd., Nihon Paper Industry Co., Ltd., Inui Paper Mills, Ltd., Nihon Paper Mills, Ltd., Nishino Paper Manufacturing Plant, Showa Co., and Asahi Co. These companies together produce 98% of the foreign-style paper in Japan. The chief functions of this organization at present are to make agreements for the limitation of production, for the joint control of stocked paper and for the maintenance of selling prices. Four of the member companies produce pulp in addition to paper, and the largest company, Oji, produces newsprint, the production of which is so large that they practically supply all domestic requirements, only a very small quantity being imported.

Production as well as sales broke previous records of 1,418,187,000 pounds and 1,379,231,000 pounds respectively in 1929. The chief cause for rise in volume of output and sales was a lifting of pressure from import paper because of a decline in the yen's exchange rate.

In 1930, the consumption of paper was reduced to an alarming degree and as a measure to dispose of surplus products, the Nihon Seishi Rengokai agreed to reduce production. During 1931, the curtailment was 35% from January to August, 45% from September to November, and 55% in December. The production of cardboard was also curtailed by 45%. In this manner, production in 1931 was reduced by 37,000,000 lbs. or 2.7% as compared with the previous year. The figures in the following tables show production since 1924.

PRODUCTION OF PAPER SINCE 1924

(Quantity in 1,000 kg. and value in ¥1,000)

Year	Printing paper		Copying paper		Drawing paper		Wrapping paper	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	285,926	72,084	536		240		17,848	3,601
1925	351,983	97,992	10,060		4,178		9,922	2,534
1926	366,572	98,835	3,943		1,869		12,649	2,867
1927	347,300	86,699	3,975		1,557		20,799	5,083
1928	355,056	90,172	4,331		1,411		17,704	4,007
1929	366,709	87,745	3,592	1,206	3,899	1,361	10,662	2,800
1930	369,523	74,055	4,661	1,587	731	243	14,557	2,559
1931	321,711	62,416	3,360	1,120	4,074	1,137	9,567	1,839
1932	217,196	54,566	2,366	818	3,374	1,127	22,655	4,389
1933	346,594	68,705	23,563	5,354	3,342	1,462	27,696	6,300

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Year	Match paper		Cigarette paper		Paper "renshi"		"Hanshi"	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	1,951	585	15,485	3,920	2,196	573	2,495	6,768
1925	2,753	841	2,515	554	2,066	705	2,258	6,496
1926	2,299	815	6,625	5,285	2,485	723	970	6,804
1927	1,964	560	7,373	5,186	5,511	1,458	2,319	8,073
1928	1,636	579	7,392	4,192	2,599	688	2,149	4,752
1929	732	212	7,564	7,382	1,813	453	6,927	11,640
1930	1,005	247	6,679	5,077	6,071	1,357	4,585	6,084
1931	812	176	4,210	2,452	7,624	1,302	4,394	5,349
1932	2,088	414	3,655	2,641	3,826	670	3,122	5,654
1933	1,952	501	7,656	4,633	4	1	1,347	5,091

Year	"Minogami"		"Torinoko," and imitation paper	Board		Others and total
	Quantity	Value	Value	Quantity	Value	Value
1924	471	2,490	2,904	102,756	11,571	150,440
1925	422	2,338	2,463	110,146	12,347	164,695
1926	269	1,932	4,342	114,962	14,151	179,630
1927	362	1,522	5,301	113,173	15,700	175,318
1928	194	883	7,278	135,149	17,194	182,476
1929	178	1,048	7,585	162,353	19,476	190,635
1930	128	845	4,368	150,215	15,469	154,574
1931	143	776	5,088	146,863	11,414	134,095
1932	168	954	7,120	139,253	11,646	132,170
1933	163	638	4,442	178,151	16,337	168,473

Cellophane

The monthly output of the Japanese cellophane industry, which has grown considerably within recent years, is approximately 6,000 reams produced by 11 manufacturing concerns, such as Nippon Cellophane, Tokyo Cellophane, Takasaki Cellophane, Fuji Glyphane and others. Ever since 1932 importing of the French product into Japan has been checked. Thus, the country's cellophane industry, having become self-sufficient, is today exporting this domestic product and the line is one of the most promising in the land. Cellophane exportation has been conducted since January, 1934. Orders keep coming from British India, the Straits Settlements, Hongkong and other points abroad. India is considered as an exceptionally worthwhile market for the product. Having become encouraged, many cellophane producers are expanding their products. The 1933 production reached 574,029 kg. valued at ¥2,000,000. This industry in Japan may outdistance the corresponding French industry, and places its products on the markets of various European countries. Cellophane was first imported into about 1923, but in the following year Japanese found how to manufacture it. The Tokyo Cellophane Company started the operation and then several other companies followed suit. Both imports and exports are hardly worth mentioning in quantity and value. Its production since 1929 rapidly expanded as the following table shows:

PRODUCTION OF CELLOPHANE

Year	Production	
	Qty in kg	Value in yen
1929	16,875	86,400
1930	—	85,400
1931	64,575	176,170
1932	147,000	473,634
1933	574,029	2,008,057

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Consumption of Paper

Foreign-Style Paper Looking at the figures of paper consumption, we find that until 1929 it kept increasing, but in the following year it decreased somewhat owing to the world-wide economic depression. It increased again in 1931, but we can safely presume that the stock was considerable, because imports increased considerably while exports decreased to an alarming degree. The following table indicates the trend of paper consumption during the past twelve years.

CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN-STYLE PAPER

(Quantity in 1,000 lbs.)

Year	Production	Imports	Exports	Consumption	Consumption per capita
1923	794,005	113,556	68,455	839,106	13.9
1924	893,249	175,384	77,164	991,469	16.2
1925	986,752	96,919	96,300	987,371	15.9
1926	1,106,788	137,622	86,462	1,157,947	18.4
1927	1,191,074	112,555	92,484	1,211,245	18.9
1928	1,343,479	102,863	134,035	1,312,307	20.2
1929	1,451,526	81,084	140,289	1,392,321	21.1
1930	1,401,711	100,160	168,808	1,333,063	19.9
1931	1,374,899	147,549	141,821	1,380,627	20.4
1932	1,311,315	99,453	87,356	1,323,412	19.0
1933	1,444,104	104,330	105,200	1,480,930	21.2
1934	1,591,474	138,556	139,715	1,605,350	22.6

Japanese Paper Accurate records of production of pure Japanese papers are not obtainable due to the extensiveness of production and the widespread and different classes of producers. Much "washi", or home-style paper is now made by machines and aside from this group we are at a loss to determine the exact amount produced. The Nihon Seishi Rengokai estimated the production of Japanese papers during 1932 to be about 150,000,000 lbs., and with an average price of 40 sen per lb., the total value was ¥60,000,000 for the year. Exports of these Japanese papers in the same year were 5.5% of the total weight. Subtracting exports from total production, about 140,000,000 lbs. remain as the amount consumed in 1932.

Pulp Industry

Since Japan started to manufacture wood pulp in 1889, its development has kept pace with the development in the paper industry, and expansion during the time of the World War was prodigious. The industry has been in a state of depression since 1921, but in spite of that capacity of production has expanded. In the years 1930, 1931 and the early part of 1932, it was further depressed on account of the shrinkage in demand, lower prices, and competition from Canada and Scandinavia.

Production and Imports The peculiarity of paper pulp production in Japan is that there is no independent mill which produce pulp of this description, that which is produced being turned out by paper-makers, who not only produce for their own consumption, but also for the purpose of selling to other paper-makers. Most of Japanese paper-makers who do not own pulp mills, therefore, must either rely on the Japanese pulp

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producers for supplies of pulp, or must buy imported pulp. Tables given below show the amount of production and import of pulp, as well as the amount of lumber used for pulp production. There is hardly any export of pulp from Japan.

PRODUCTION OF PULP

(in tons)

Year	Sulphite Pulp	Ground Pulp	Kraft Pulp	Others	Total
1928	310,020	237,203	20,306	—	567,529
1929	335,436	257,043	26,123	—	618,602
1930	337,151	259,984	28,402	—	625,537
1931	290,171	246,489	30,049	—	566,709
1932	277,588	241,746	31,786	—	551,120
1933	310,621	267,993	40,144	1,281	620,039

QUANTITY OF LUMBER CONSUMED FOR PULP MAKING

(unit in koku)

Year	Lumber Grown in Japan Proper	Lumber Grown in Hokkaido	Lumber Grown in Saghalien Isd	Lumber Grown in Korea	Total
1928	369	2,411,572	5,268,041	224,796	7,905,884
1929	616	2,399,972	5,881,730	295,751	8,578,069
1930	870	1,991,764	6,234,974	199,280	8,426,888
1931	280	1,891,183	5,823,950	201,548	7,416,011
1932	970	1,292,612	5,224,265	276,302	6,794,149
1933	2,917	1,367,684	5,594,475	313,807	7,278,883

IMPORT OF PULP

(Qty in 100 kin and value in ¥1,000)

Country of origin	1931 Qty	1931 Value	1932 Qty	1932 Value	1933 Qty	1933 Value	1934 Qty	1934 Value
Sweden	272,530	1,792	230,132	1,220	439,657	3,571	800,652	7,488
Norway	366,536	4,115	174,037	2,013	527,249	7,577	669,256	10,464
U.S.A.	374,371	3,951	339,845	2,418	755,276	7,801	1,415,096	16,464
Canada	455,567	3,144	829,218	5,200	788,420	6,043	679,951	7,245
Others and total	1,712,784	15,328	1,703,762	11,840	2,708,373	27,066	3,814,656	44,265

Demand and Supply There is scarcely any export of pulp from Japan, and domestic production plus the quantity imported can be taken as quantity required. The following table shows the relation between demand and supply.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF PULPS DURING THE LAST 5 YEARS

(Unit in ton)

Year	Quantity produced	Quantity imported	Quantity required
1928	567,529	73,144	640,673
1929	618,602	80,410	699,012
1930	625,537	79,107	704,644
1931	566,709	100,636	667,221
1932	551,120	101,168	652,288
1933	620,039	159,880	779,919

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From 90 to 93% of the quantity consumed is taken by the member companies of the Rengokai.

Rayon Pulp Rayon pulp really holds no claim for inclusion here except that it is produced by the paper pulp manufacturing companies, who in turn are the paper manufacturers. A very brief survey only will be given. The rapid progress of rayon industry (see Chapter XVIII) is nothing but marvellous. Along this the consumption of rayon pulp increased rapidly. The total demand on rayon pulp in 1934 reached more than 70,000 tons, showing an increase of 70 per cent. over that of 1933. But the domestic production of rayon pulp amounted only to about 10 per cent. of the total requirement in 1933, and even in 1934 the quantity produced was barely 10,000 tons, which made it necessary to import more than 60,000 tons. Rayon pulp produced by the Oji Paper has now passed its experimental stage, and the company has extended mills so that it expects to produce about 24,000 tons a year starting from February, 1935. The company also established an independent company called Japan Rayon Pulp Co., Ltd., in Karafuto, with the capacity of 30,000 tons a year, which will be solely engaged in production of rayon pulp, and begins operation in April, 1935. The Oji Paper, therefore, is prepared to produce 54,000 tons of rayon pulp from the latter part of 1935,

1934 Paper Industry

Trend in General For the past two years paper industry was freed from the pressure of foreign competition through lower exchange and higher tariff. The increased demand made it possible to reduce the curtailment of production which was fixed at 55 per cent. since December, 1931 to 46 per cent. Furthermore, the sealed stock of paper has been reduced to a quantity smaller than regularly stocked quantity, which contributed in making the price strong.

The increase in volume of consumption made the demand and supply relation very sound. However, the nominal price of paper did not rise, while the price of pulp rose. Most of members of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai buy pulp so that their interest is directly opposite to that of the Oji Paper Co., Ltd. which produce 95 per cent. of the total domestic production of pulp. These companies, therefore, lodged claim with the Oji Paper Co., Ltd. and succeeded in reducing the price of pulp by 5 rin lb. in the latter part of the year.

Demand and Supply Production of foreign-style papers by member companies of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai in 1934 was 1,591,474,000 lbs. which, as compared with 1,444,104,000 lbs. of 1933, showed an increase of 147,370,000 lbs. or 10.2 per cent. Export amounted to 172,306,000 lbs. valued at ¥20,650,000 and showed gains of 18,282,000 lbs. and ¥2,963,000 or 11.8 and 16.7 per cent. respectively over the year before.

Import of paper amounted to 138,556,000 lbs. valued at ¥11,925,000 which showed an increase of 32.8 and 15.6 per cent. respectively over the year before. As to pulp, about 508,620,000 lbs. valued at ¥44,250,000 were imported from the U.S.A., Sweden, Canada, Norway and Germany, etc. The domestic requirement of pulp was 1,605,350,000 lbs., showing an increase of 148,270,000 lbs. over 1933.

Pulp Consumption of pulp by member companies of the Nihon Seishi Rengokai in 1934 follows:

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CONSUMPTION OF PULP FOR PAPER

(by member companies only)

Description	in tons 1933	1934	Increase in 1934
Chemical pulp	397,731	401,601	3,870
Ground pulp	255,396	296,344	40,948
Total	653,127	697,945	44,818

Both chemical and ground pulp increased in consumption, the rate of the total increase being 6.8 per cent. over 1933.

As regards production of pulp, the Forestry Bureau of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry estimated 696,560 tons as against 620,039 tons of 1933. However, the boom in the paper industry was such that the domestic production of pulp alone was not enough to meet the demand, this resulted in large import, figures of which follow :

IMPORT OF PULP

	In 1934	Increase over 1933
Quantity of pulp imported in tons	225,300	65,420
Value of pulp imported in ¥1,000	44,255	17,189

Figures show that the increase over 1933 was about 65,420 tons, which includes, however, a large quantity of rayon pulp.

Curtailment of Production The boom which has been kept up since the latter part of 1932 has enabled paper-makers to reduce the percentage of curtailment of production of foreign-style papers by successive steps. The curtailment which was kept at 55 per cent. throughout 1933 was reduced to 51 per cent. in May, 1934 and again to 46 per cent. after October of the same year. Curtailment of production of Japan-style paper is maintained at 30 per cent.

Pulp Industry in Manchoukuo Four companies have been established in Manchoukuo for production of rayon and paper pulp. They are Oji Paper Mills Pulp Co., Ltd. with a capital of ¥20,000,000, Eastern Manchurian Pulp Co., Ltd., with ¥15,000,000, Japan Manchurian Pulp Industry Co., Ltd., with ¥10,000,000 and Manchurian Pulp Co., Ltd. with ¥5,000,000.

Market in General Good sales of foreign-style paper kept its price firm. However, mindful of warning of the Department of Commerce and Industry, the Rengokai did not raise the nominal price. It is thought that a further raising of price by a large margin would be impossible at present, even though the market improves further. The following table shows firm tone of the paper market indicating that the control of the industry is well maintained :

MARKET PRICE OF B IMMITATION PAPER

(in sen per lb.)

Months	Highest	Lowest
Jan.-June	16.8	16.8
July	16.8	16.7
Aug.-Dec.	16.8	16.8

As regards pulp it was once very difficult to make import owing to low exchange, which raised the price of domestic pulp. Along with the great demand on rayon pulp, price of unbleached sulphite pulp rose as high as 8.3 sen per lb. in the earlier part of the year, which later declined to 7.7 sen, again picking up to 8.2 sen toward the close of the year. The fluctuation of price follows :

MARKET PRICE OF PULP

(in sen per lb.)

Months	Highest	Lowest
Jan.-June	8.3	8.3
July	8.3	7.7
Aug.-Oct.	7.7	7.7
Nov.-Dec	8.2	7.7

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Fertilizers

In 1931 the association formed by manufacturers of chemical fertilizers, maintained a high rate of curtailment of production in order to minimize the loss resulted from the general alarming situation on industries, especially on agriculture, but the dumping of sulphate of ammonia by British and German manufacturers swept the fertilizer market and the prices of bean cake, fish guano, sulphate of ammonia, superphosphate of lime, mixed fertilizers, cyanamide, etc., slumped to destructive levels. The domestic manufacturers did everything possible in their powers to stop importations. They proposed the raising of the rate of import duty, the passing law, the establishment of a system of special permits for import and export, and so on, but practically in vain. The price of sulphate of ammonia declined to as low as ¥60 per ton. The situation was very serious, and at last, in November, a special permit system was put into effect through a Departmental ordinance. A ministerial change took place during December and the Seiyukai Party came into power. The Government at once re-imposed the embargo on gold, exports and the stock market immediately became active, and industries, including the fertilizer industry, followed suit.

The problem of food in Japan is a serious one. The Japanese population is increasing yearly by about a million, but the amount of food produced in the country is not enough to feed them. Besides, the arable land in the country is so small and limited that hardly any space is left to effect any further increase, and the only method left, beyond extending abroad, is to increase the yield of crops through intensive farming. For this fertilizers are necessary and the demand has steadily been increasing. The consumption of fertilizers during 1930 was valued at ¥526,685,000, of which ¥282,470,000 were self-supplied fertilizers, while ¥244,215,000's worth were bought in the market.

General Condition of the Industry

Of all the chemical fertilizers, superphosphate of lime and sulphate of ammonia are the two representative ones, and because of the largeness of their demand and supply the market trend of these two is practically the market trend of the rest.

Superphosphate of Lime The principal raw material for the manufacture of superphosphate of lime is phosphate rock. During 1930 some 570,000 tons were imported, while some 63,385 tons were produced at home, and during 1933 and 1934 imports were 698,234 and 671,533 tons respectively. This rock is imported from U. S. A., Egypt, and the South Sea Islands.

Superphosphate production has been gaining steadily and last year its production is estimated at 1,125,000 tons. Production during the past few years is reported by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry as follows :

PRODUCTION OF SUPERPHOSPHATES
(In metric tons)

1929	408,971
1930	424,484
1931	888,887
1932	1,037,780
1933	1,127,977
1834 (estimate)	1,125,000

The superphosphate market was depressed throughout the year due to rural depression, higher prices of raw materials, and constant disputes between the Union of Superphosphate Distributors and its outsiders.

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Low exchange and conclusion of the International Phosphate Agreement last year together acted to pull up prices of phosphate rocks and finished products. Domestic production capacity is rated at about 1,955,000 tons a year about 45 per cent. of which is, however, curtailed. Production in recent years runs between 1,120,000 and 1,230,000 tons.

Fluctuations in the market price of superphosphate during 1933 and 1934 were as follows:

PRICE OF SUPERPHOSPHATE, 1933, 1934

(The price is per bag of 7.5 kan.)

	1933		1934	
	High	Low	High	Low
January	¥1.20	1.15	1.15	1.13
February	1.20	1.15	1.17	1.15
March	1.08	1.05	1.17	1.16
April	1.05	1.04	1.16	1.16
May	1.05	.95	1.16	1.15
June	1.05	1.00	1.15	1.14
July	.95	.90	1.14	1.14
August	.90	.88	1.11	1.10
September	.98	.88	1.14	1.10
October,	1.08	.98	1.13	1.12
November	1.12	1.08	1.12	1.10
December	1.13	1.13	1.12	1.11

Sulphate of Ammonia The demand for sulphate of ammonia has steadily increased for years. Consumption in 1930 was 488,000 tons, in 1931 it showed a remarkable increase to 618,000 tons. Imports in 1930 were 302,905 tons (value ¥29,612,000), in 1931 they decreased to 224,148 tons and in 1932 a decrease to 119,000 tons was witnessed, value being ¥15,861,000 and ¥7,035,000 respectively. The decrease in imports was made good by the increase in domestic production, which in 1931 was 393,237 tons, while in 1932 it increased to 604,235 tons, to 719,000 tons in 1933 and to 735,000 tons in 1934. Japan, in this manner, has become self-supporting in sulphate of ammonia, and has become very uneasy regarding overproduction in the future.

In Europe and America, the International Nitrogen Conference failed to relieve various countries from the pressure of overproduction, and these countries, in 1931, tried to dump their stocks in the Orient, especially in Japan, thereby causing the price of sulphate to sharply decline.

Ammonium sulphate production has been rising remarkably in the past several years, especially since the fall of the yen made competition by foreign fertilizers more difficult. Last year output rose to 735,000 tons. In 1932 it had registered the biggest advance in its history, jumping from the 393,237 tons of 1931 to 604,235. Last year showed a total more than nine times as great as that of 1920. Figures follow:

AMMONIUM SULPHATE PRODUCTION

(In tons)

1920	80,100
1925	131,138
1926	147,000
1927	176,475
1928	232,425
1929	234,609
1930	265,826
1931	393,237
1932	604,235
1933	713,550
1934	735,000

The following table shows producers of sulphate of ammonia with their capacities of production:

PRODUCTION CAPACITY OF AMMONIUM SULPHATE IN 1935

(in tons)

Companies	Present capacity	Capacity to be increased in 1935	Total production capacity
Nippon Chisso	11,000	—	110,000
Dai Nippon Art. Fert.	50,000	—	50,000
Denki Kagaku	100,000	—	100,000
Miiké Chisso	47,500	47,500	50,000
Showa Fert.	220,000	—	220,000
Sumitomo Fert.	120,000	30,000	150,000
Ubé Chisso	50,000	50,000	100,000
Claude Chisso	5,000	—	5,000

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Companies	Present capacity	Capacity to be increased in 1935	Total production capacity
Daido Fert.	6,000	—	6,000
Hokuetsu Hydro.	9,000	—	9,000
Toyo High Pres.	—	150,000	150,000
Total	717,500	277,500	995,000
Gas Companies	11,000	—	11,000
Steel Works	11,000	—	11,000
Mitsui Mines	3,200	—	3,200
Kamaishi Mines	1,800	—	1,800
Wanishi Steel	1,500	—	1,500
Total	28,500	—	28,500
Japan proper total	746,000	277,500	1,023,500
Chosen Chisso	420,000	—	420,000
Mitsubishi Steel	2,400	—	2,400
Chosen total	422,400	—	422,400
Manchuria Chemical	—	180,000	180,000
Grand total	1,168,400	457,500	1,625,800

The gains made by ammonium sulphate are due to the fact that it has gained the reputation as the fastest working fertilizer sold here, since it is quickly absorbed into the soil of both paddy and upland fields and is effective for all kinds of cereals and vegetables except legumes. Since the World War it has been encroaching upon the field of bean cake, also a nitrate fertilizer. Foreign ammonium sulphate dominated the market until a few years ago and the domestic industry hardly got going. The lower yen aided it and this year's output is expected to be well above 1,100,000 tons. In spite of the fact that all domestic fertilizer companies have been operating at capacity in ammonium sulphate, Japan expects to have a deficit of 120,000 to 130,000 tons for the 1934 fertilizing year (August, 1934, to July, 1935), according to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Supply and demand figures follow :

AMMONIUM SULPHATE DEMAND AND SUPPLY

(In 1,000 tons)

SUPPLY:	1933	1934
Brought over from previous year	107	72
Estimated production	829	880
Imported	61	11
Supply total	997	1,063
DEMAND:	**1933**	**1934**
Estimated consumption	996	1,080
Exported	32	—
Brought over to next year	0	110
Demand total	1,028	1,190

SULPHATE OF AMMONIA PRICES, 1933-34

Domestic product per 10 kan bag *

	1933		1934	
	High	Low	High	Low
January	3.90	3.78	3.45	3.45
February	3.85	3.64	3.55	3.45
March	3.74	3.45	3.60	3.50
April	3.58	3.55	3.61	3.55
May	3.58	3.35	3.75	3.61
June	3.60	3.39	3.78	3.58
July	3.63	3.35	3.60	3.55
August	3.35	3.35	3.47	3.44
September	3.35	3.33	3.45	3.43
October	3.33	3.33	3.48	3.45
November	3.50	3.33	3.45	3.42
December	3.45	3.44	3.51	3.45

* 27 bags of the domestic product constitute a ton.

Cyanamide While cyanamide was a fertilizer difficult to make farmers use it, they now recognize the merit of this nitrogenous fertilizer, and owing perhaps to its reasonableness in price, its consumption increased with a great stride. In 1931 its consumption was 168,448 tons, in 1932 180,583 tons, and in 1933 223,409 tons. Production increased rapidly too. While, in 1924, it barely amounted to about 30,000 tons, it increased up to 278,825 tons in 1933, almost ten times as large. The following table shows this :

PRODUCTION OF CYANAMIDE

(Unit in metric ton and in yen)

Year	Quantity	Value
1924	29,961	4,510,707
1925	49,662	8,133,625
1926	97,107	8,353,940
1927	64,981	6,146,775
1928	65,190	6,311,975
1929	211,593	17,355,508
1930	205,572	16,649,704
1931	195,018	9,747,662
1932	283,386	16,700,175
1933	278,825	19,984,167

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Sales are made through the joint sales association. Through the control of this association, and also with the increased demand, the cyanamide market in 1934 was kept firm. From August the article was sold out at a reduced price, since with that month the new fertilizer season of 1934-1935 began. The average monthly price of cyanamide in 1934 follows :

PRICE OF CYANAMIDE, 1934

(20% ingredient 6 kwan net per bag)

Jan.	¥1.75	May	¥1.83	Sept.	¥1.65
Feb.	1.80	June	1.80	Oct.	1.67
Mar.	1.80	July	1.80	Nov.	1.65
Apr.	1.82	Aug.	1.65	Dec.	1.67

Vegetable Fertilizers Vegetable fertilizers are many in kind. Bean cake, rape-seed cake, cotton-seed cake, rice bran, etc., come into this class of fertilizers, bean cake being the most important. Supplies and consumption for 1933 were :

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF VEGETABLE FERTILIZERS, 1933

(In ton)

	Production at home	Imports	Exports	Consumption
Bean cake	244,768	530,953	2,819	770,029
Rape-seed cake	74,100	43,294	—	78,800
Cotton-seed cake	28,500	64,649	—	67,900

The domestic production of bean cake is very small when compared with the quantity imported, the greater part of which comes from Manchoukuo. In 1912 the consumption of bean cake, rape-seed cake, and cotton-seed cake was 34,640 tons, which, by 1921, increased to over a million tons, but since then no increase can be noted as the development of the synthetic nitrogen industry has cut deeply into the development of vegetable fertilizer industry.

A piece of a bean cake weighs 46 kin, or 7.4 kan. The average price of one piece was as high as ¥2.29 in 1926, whereas in 1933, the highest price was ¥1.18 and the lowest ¥0.95, a demonstration of the depressed state of the fertilizer market.

Owing to great bumper crops of soy beans in Manchoukuo in 1933, their production being estimated at 4,600,000 tons, an increase of 900,000 tons over 1932, sales of soy bean cakes revived to a great extent in 1934, and the market was firm, though in the latter part of the year demand contracted owing to crop failures in Japan. In spite of that import amounted to 6,795,000 pieces, a gain of 1,324,000 pieces over 1933. Market prices for 1934 follow :

MARKET PRICES OF BEAN CAKES IN 1934

(in yen)

	On 1st	On 11th	On 21st
Jannary (On the 4th)	2.99	2.94	3.00
February	3.07	3.19	3.17
March	3.13	3.12	3.05
April	2.98	3.08	3.10
May	3.01	3.12	3.15
June	3.10	2.93	2.90
July	2.83	2.91	3.05
August	3.21	3.45	3.35
September	3.44	3.44	3.57
October	3.87	3.84	3.74
November	3.58	3.61	3.50
December	3.58	3.70	3.62

Fish and Animal Fertilizers In Japan fish is indispensable as food, but at the same time they are caught for oil extraction and the refuse is converted into manure. The consumption of fish and animal fertilizers is as shown in the tables attached at the end of this article.

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In addition to chemical, vegetable and animal fertilizers, a great quantity of self-supplied fertilizers are supplied and consumed, the figures for which are given also in statistics attached at the end of this subject.

1934 Fertilizer Industry

Trend in General 1933 rice bumper crops increased purchasing power of farmers in general, which was reflected in good sales of fertilizers in the earlier part of the year, and the industry was active. However, the yield of agricultural crops in 1934 proved to be extremely poor, and the sales of fertilizers in the latter part of the year was not as good as expected.

According to statistics of Finance Ministry, imports of principal fertilizers in 1934 are as given below, which show an increase both in quantity and value. Organic fertilizers, consumption of which once showed a decreasing tendency, indicated a gain, this being especially the case with bean cakes, which attracted attention. This was due, however, to a great yield of soy beans in Manchoukuo in 1933.

IMPORT OF PRINCIPAL FERTILIZERS
(in kin)

	1933	1934	Increase in 1934
Sulphate of potash	390,000	815,000	425,000
Nitrate of soda	582,000	663,000	81,000
Bone meal	402,000	476,000	74,000
Bean cakes	8,993,000	10,767,000	1,774,000

As to the amount of production in 1934 it is not available yet, but the Ministry of Commerce and Industry gives a tentative report on the production of the three principal chemical fertilizers as follows:

Superphosphate of lime	1,073,619 tons
Sulphate of ammonium	802,205 „
Cyanamide	139,662 „

Statistics

Production, imports, exports, and consumption of various kinds of fertilizers are to be found in the following tables:

THE VALUE OF FERTILIZERS PRODUCED IN JAPAN PROPER 1929-1933
(Unit ¥1,000)

Year	Fertilizers which requires a licence for production					Fertilizer not requiring any licence for production	Total
	Animal	Vegetable	Chemical	Mixed	Miscellaneous		
1924	21,830	37,290	54,320	36,170	140	26,000	175,760
1925	26,500	41,660	64,380	45,940	170	26,000	204,670
1926	24,010	46,560	69,710	42,990	200	26,000	209,470
1927	21,189	37,039	70,423	41,820	165	26,000	196,585
1928	22,254	39,667	82,483	53,112	318	26,000	223,834
1929	19,619	43,521	87,284	60,116	217	26,000	236,757
1930	12,703	30,061	76,953	38,551	62	26,000	184,330
1931	13,092	24,083	61,557	25,910	85	26,000	150,727
1932	19,678	25,806	81,798	30,659	48	26,000	183,989
1933	25,891	31,563	102,026	42,408	48	26,000	227,936

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS 1924-1933 (Value in ¥1,000)

Year	Bean cake		Rape-seed cake		Cotton-seed cake	
	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value
1924	214,950	20,810	66,263	8,010	14,138	1,400
1925	233,813	24,200	69,375	8,180	21,413	2,120
1926	270,413	26,600	103,313	11,070	29,625	2,590
1927	230,175	19,542	98,700	9,872	29,325	2,022
1928	243,750	21,068	79,425	9,098	32,250	2,622
1929	268,002	23,633	93,762	9,449	50,058	3,973
1930	232,727	16,505	99,433	7,367	43,459	2,321

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Year	Bean cake		Rape-seed cake		Cotton-seed cake	
	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value	Quantity tons	Value
1931	279,265	12,278	102,588	6,272	25,879	1,068
1932	221,369	11,726	79,117	6,516	19,809	1,206
1933	244,763	16,986	74,105	6,332	28,551	1,887

PRODUCTION OF ANIMAL FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS 1924-1933. (Value in ¥1,000, quantity in tons.)

Year	Herring		Sardine		Dried sardine		Powdered fish meal		Bone meal	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	32,100	5,080	40,163	5,800	9,938	1,270	10,897	1,560	31,425	3,770
1925	44,775	7,690	42,000	6,600	4,950	570	13,262	2,088	34,763	4,310
1926	40,988	6,620	44,475	6,220	8,438	840	12,469	1,824	36,413	4,150
1927	46,200	6,597	34,163	4,154	1,888	128	16,038	2,003	33,038	3,493
1928	26,813	3,679	46,350	5,981	16,388	1,155	26,803	3,075	33,600	3,492
1929	12,013	1,687	55,286	5,461	12,494	865	20,252	2,370	37,352	3,691
1930	19,668	1,740	42,277	2,979	4,969	293	25,161	2,044	34,234	2,467
1931	22,114	1,230	77,100	4,208	8,759	309	44,140	3,014	28,908	1,790
1932	28,468	1,987	124,548	7,687	16,449	827	48,439	3,918	27,492	2,071
1933	30,201	2,770	141,301	9,418	16,450	720	82,111	7,010	26,168	2,021

PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO KINDS 1924-1933. (Value in ¥1,000, quantity in tons.)

Year	Sulphate of ammonia		Cyanamide		Superphosphate of lime		Sulphate of potash	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	108,713	18,310	121,688	12,240	593,325	22,320	713	80
1925	131,138	24,630	125,325	11,280	673,800	26,420	75	10
1926	147,000	23,080	140,663	11,960	786,263	28,870	563	60
1927	176,475	22,470	120,413	10,883	934,838	32,897	75	8
1928	232,425	29,622	159,938	15,051	926,175	32,256	600	71
1929	234,609	30,062	161,157	15,959	947,204	31,242	68	6
1930	265,826	23,936	228,383	16,959	957,159	29,830	207	24
1931	393,287	25,422	168,042	8,743	862,401	22,952	36	3
1932	459,663	36,126	180,583	10,660	1,041,497	29,219	203	34
1933	471,398	41,151	223,409	15,159	1,116,573	33,148	182	23

Year	Muriate of potash		New fertilizers		Mixed fertilizers	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
1924	4,302	394	—	—	413,133	36,170
1925	3,895	355	—	—	480,825	45,940
1926	4,932	420	—	—	493,538	42,990
1927	6,163	536	—	—	532,725	41,820
1928	5,203	440	64,439	3,706	680,813	53,112
1929	5,325	406	121,320	9,484	777,287	60,116
1930	5,197	404	82,044	5,126	627,141	38,551
1931	8,005	592	56,024	3,243	546,623	25,910
1932	8,373	764	104,321	4,871	616,828	30,659
1933	9,979	871	167,522	11,637	710,086	42,408

IMPORTS OF PRINCIPAL FERTILIZERS 1924-1934 (in tons.)

Year	Bone meal	Bean cake	Rape-seed cake	Cotton-seed cake	Nitrate of soda	Sulphate of ammonia	Cyanamide
1924	43,163	1,118,288	90,188	42,525	40,425	168,397	—
1925	43,050	1,010,250	86,325	62,700	38,025	203,550	—
1926	36,600	1,266,638	98,363	57,938	63,975	295,025	2,800
1927	37,613	1,185,863	64,800	60,263	55,463	250,014	7,110
1928	36,000	981,563	88,200	52,163	52,650	284,475	2,757
1929	40,007	831,857	69,635	58,575	88,567	380,658	14,757
1930	30,217	889,743	48,039	82,125	30,575	302,905	3,575
1931	37,119	1,032,680	54,380	64,072	34,994	224,148	406
1932	32,062	629,407	69,686	21,718	23,757	118,735	—
1933	24,126	539,586	44,175	65,789	34,902	108,444	—
1934	28,113	635,983	34,697	82,849	39,184	158,333	—

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Year	Sulphate of potash	Muriate of potash	Ammo-phos	Leuna-phos	Animal bones	Phosphate rocks
1924	12,900	—	—	—	32,666	265,088
1925	21,788	—	3,078	—	33,713	276,525
1926	26,775	5,695	8,829	—	37,125	406,763
1927	31,650	13,081	17,542	—	31,500	407,250
1928	35,100	22,099	37,715	3,378	31,800	473,325
1929	54,208	27,591	34,121	26,795	32,062	559,071
1930	67,917	23,911	20,112	4,584	25,561	570,297
1931	38,510	23,470	13,564	—	25,751	412,016
1932	18,698	14,181	—	—	19,663	559,418
1933	23,881	9,777	—	—	22,334	703,686
1934	48,114	45,149	—	—	24,220	671,929

IMPORTS OF FERTILIZERS FROM THE COLONIES (In tons)

Year	Rice bran	Fish guano	From Korea Dried fish	Bean cake	Sulphate of ammonia
1924	47,736	4,875	2,213	36,718	38
1925	49,875	10,725	1,536	10,313	—
1926	36,863	22,463	1,838	46,050	—
1927	41,138	33,638	638	20,025	—
1928	66,750	40,725	413	7,200	—
1929	53,480	52,216	186	29,152	—
1930	37,265	56,467	359	17,451	18,063
1931	58,031	36,283	505	17,960	53,260
1932	74,563	48,489	929	9,394	125,123
1933	69,040	38,393	371	27,573	83,722

Year	From Saghalien Island Herring guano	Sardine guano	Cod guano	Small herring guano, etc.	From Formosa Fertilizers
1924	19,838	—	900	3,563	339
1925	19,425	—	825	1,275	6,405
1926	26,025	4,746	—	977	282
1927	30,000	7,095	—	5,403	4,130
1928	44,738	6,921	675	6,117	469
1929	42,794	5,217	371	8,163	441
1930	37,207	10,864	662	2,523	285
1931	65,904	9,369	277	5,758	374
1932	54,094	9,960	604	6,999	1,869
1933	35,692	2,677	629	5,330	219

EXPORTS OF FERTILIZERS (In tons)

Year	Domestic products Various cakes	Chemical fertilizers	Foreign products re-exported Various cakes	Nitrate of soda	Sulphate of ammonia	Sulphate of potash	Muriate of potash
1924	9,774	222	—	1,825	524	—	—
1925	9,037	3,586	166	1,834	466	—	—
1926	13,452	1,090	33	464	4,202	—	—
1927	13,246	1,373	210	3,005	774	56	—
1928	25,513	2,158	3,307	4,413	2,431	88	227
1929	35,495	5,200	1,010	4,052	1,858	92	—
1930	10,558	21,463	1,252	2,672	551	59	—
1931	14,682	41,981	474	1,648	1,653	2,977	—
1932	22,492	43,960	259	1,052	—	5,011	—
1933	21,093	83,098	1,215	1,988	457	908	30

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EXPORTS OF FERTILIZERS TO COLONIES (In tons)

Year	To Korea		
	Sulphate of ammonia	Artificial fertilizers, etc.	Various cakes
1924	6,208	7,802	584
1925	14,945	14,859	294
1926	29,797	19,579	519
1927	32,364	34,895	876
1928	50,129	50,144	1,237
1929	78,618	69,391	871
1930	62,631	94,524	167
1931	22,538	53,744	1,498
1932	17,749	83,225	1,750
1933	21,898	113,859	1,182

Year	To Formosa					
	Bean cake	Superphosphate of lime	Sulphate of ammonia	Nitrate of soda	Sulphate of potash	Mixed fertilizers
1924	467	27,255	16,685	245	—	20,745
1925	7	34,054	15,576	612	—	15,639
1926	26	33,776	9,481	349	—	9,976
1927	390	39,948	8,107	308	—	6,941
1928	2,028	41,993	7,792	289	1,456	10,986
1929	881	38,968	14,873	144	846	9,674
1930	1,136	35,095	21,241	152	789	12,088
1931	—	32,115	18,857	—	581	18,448
1932	—	41,803	49,491	—	877	22,892
1933	—	50,108	40,351	—	940	35,444

CONSUMPTION OF VARIOUS FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Unit in ¥1,000)

Year	Herring guano		Sardine guano		Dried sardines		Bone meal	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	ton		ton		ton		ton	
1924	51,988	8,900	41,888	6,080	12,150	1,540	75,188	8,210
1925	64,200	11,560	48,763	6,890	6,525	800	78,188	8,920
1926	67,013	11,220	49,238	6,880	10,275	1,080	73,388	7,900
1927	76,200	11,260	41,250	5,140	1,388	180	70,725	6,950
1928	71,550	10,270	53,288	6,990	16,388	1,150	69,675	6,900
1929	54,807	8,362	60,503	6,108	12,494	865	77,317	7,539
1930	56,875	5,474	58,141	3,821	4,969	293	64,455	4,744
1931	88,018	6,163	86,469	4,741	8,759	309	66,099	3,880
1932	82,562	6,392	134,508	8,253	16,449	827	59,744	4,249
1933	65,893	6,677	143,978	9,635	16,480	720	50,294	3,786

Year	Bean cake		Rape-seed cake		Cotton-seed cake	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	ton		ton		ton	
1924	1,290,788	107,800	128,025	11,790	45,975	4,160
1925	1,185,525	110,750	115,950	11,220	63,075	5,980
1926	1,510,088	133,220	142,463	12,430	58,383	5,260
1927	1,359,225	103,030	102,525	8,390	60,713	4,830
1928	1,162,163	88,870	116,325	11,090	52,725	4,360
1929	1,066,580	85,169	104,369	8,800	61,174	4,992
1930	1,087,476	71,986	86,096	5,615	82,433	5,051
1931	1,278,724	48,917	92,910	4,334	65,176	2,813
1932	813,983	37,844	100,717	6,457	22,548	1,379
1933	770,029	49,515	73,832	5,178	67,902	3,950

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Year	Superphosphate of lime		Nitrate of soda		Sulphate of ammonia	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	ton		ton		ton	
1924	565,875	20,920	40,200	5,220	254,250	40,970
1925	636,263	24,570	37,388	5,060	303,713	51,910
1926	751,425	27,150	63,162	8,347	399,545	60,103
1927	894,225	31,040	52,155	6,225	385,243	48,871
1928	884,182	30,447	47,943	5,445	455,548	57,330
1929	908,289	29,603	84,371	9,544	519,921	65,553
1930	922,064	28,495	27,751	2,838	488,000	45,923
1931	808,109	21,238	33,346	2,570	617,642	41,237
1932	960,497	26,534	22,705	1,943	618,125	46,541
1933	1,009,722	29,673	32,914	3,659	551,264	48,885

Year	Cyanamide		Sulphate of potash		Mixed fertilizers	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
	ton		ton		ton	
1924	121,688	12,240	13,613	1,470	392,363	33,790
1925	122,288	11,280	21,863	2,690	465,188	44,330
1926	143,463	12,240	27,313	3,410	463,988	40,710
1927	127,523	11,487	31,669	4,240	525,788	41,150
1928	162,695	15,282	34,156	4,360	669,825	52,020
1929	175,914	16,502	53,334	6,557	767,613	59,187
1930	231,958	17,237	67,276	7,628	615,083	37,616
1931	168,448	8,769	34,988	3,940	528,175	24,697
1932	180,583	10,660	13,013	1,421	593,936	29,150
1933	223,409	15,159	21,715	3,719	674,642	39,674

CONSUMPTION OF SELF-SUPPLIED FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER

(in 1,000 tons and ¥1,000)

Year	Farm-yard manures		Green manures		Night soil		Others		total	
	Q'ty	Value	Q'ty	Value	Q'ty	Value	Q'ty	Value	Q'ty	Value
1924	21,495	142,540	6,193	37,520	16,036	88,620	7,798	77,290	51,519	345,970
1925	21,723	140,540	5,898	35,520	15,869	85,470	8,244	81,280	51,736	342,810
1926	21,587	138,610	6,431	36,160	16,044	85,450	7,943	79,300	52,004	339,520
1927	22,843	139,580	5,486	32,170	15,905	83,270	8,825	79,720	52,558	334,740
1928	22,018	131,270	6,168	34,040	16,251	84,100	8,127	76,880	52,564	326,290
1929	22,820	143,390	6,219	34,230	16,808	77,340	8,383	79,290	53,730	334,250
1930	23,506	122,690	6,133	29,130	16,236	61,830	8,942	68,820	54,817	282,470
1931	25,312	113,510	6,391	25,810	16,164	51,610	11,537	60,350	59,407	251,280
1932	26,930	121,780	6,513	25,720	16,012	51,500	9,474	61,270	58,931	260,270
1933	29,630	144,200	6,855	26,630	15,672	53,680	9,600	73,390	61,758	297,900

TOTAL CONSUMPTION OF FERTILIZERS IN JAPAN PROPER (unit in ¥1,000)

Year	Fertilizers sold on the market					Self-supplied fertilizers	Grand total
	Manufactured under license	Manuf'd without license	Quantity imported	Raw materials for mfg. fertilizers	Total		
1924	149,760	27,000	146,129	53,446	268,443	345,970	614,413
1925	178,670	26,000	155,862	50,897	309,655	342,810	652,465
1926	183,400	26,000	190,914	60,760	339,624	339,520	679,144
1927	170,585	26,000	150,754	57,520	289,819	334,740	624,559
1928	197,834	26,000	141,296	69,824	295,806	326,290	621,596
1929	210,750	26,000	156,597	77,265	316,089	334,250	650,339
1930	158,330	26,000	110,393	50,508	244,215	282,470	526,685
1931	124,727	26,000	74,028	39,437	185,318	251,280	436,598
1932	157,989	26,000	56,690	44,907	195,772	260,270	456,042
1933	201,936	26,000	57,824	62,936	222,824	297,900	520,724

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NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE FERTILIZER BUSINESS

Year	Manufacturers of fertilizers	Importers of fertilizers	Importers of fertilizers from colonies	Persons engaged in the purchase and sale of fertilizers
1925	23,383	1,128	415	45,956
1926	23,699	1,124	429	46,127
1927	23,813	1,154	446	45,975
1928	23,822	1,146	457	45,895
1929	23,924	1,182	436	45,644
1930	23,564	1,105	432	45,098
1931	23,334	1,072	428	43,913
1932	23,218	1,052	434	42,131
1933	23,083	1,035	453	41,614

Cement

History

In 1871, cement works were established by the Government in Fukagawa District in Tokyo. This was the origin of the cement industry in Japan. For ten years the works gradually expanded so that by 1891, the total capital invested in the industry was ¥1,000,000, the works numbered ten and the capacity was about 300,000 barrels a year.

In 1898, there were sixteen works with an aggregate capacity of 1,000,000 bbls, and imports were entirely excluded. In 1912, there were nineteen companies and twenty three miles. The total capital invested amounted to ¥18,000,000 while the capacity had increased to 4,000,000 bbls.

During the World War, the industry enjoyed unprecedented prosperity and expanded rapidly. New companies were formed and new mills added. At the end of 1926, companies numbered twenty-one with thirty four mills, the total authorized capital was ¥118,000,000 of which ¥85,000,000 was paid up, and the total production capacity had increased to 17,500,000 bbls.

During the last twenty years, demand for cement increased every year with five exceptions, there was a 2% decrease in 1912 and a 10% in 1915 and 1919. The average rate of increase was about 11%. But in 1930, domestic consumption suddenly decreased by 12%, the first time that any such sharp decrease had ever been experienced. The decrease was due to the general depression and the economic retrenchment policy of the Government following the removal of the gold embargo in January, 1930. In 1931, there was a further decrease, but in 1932, with general activity in industry being felt, there was some recovery over the previous two years.

TABLE SHOWING GROWTH OF CONSUMPTION OF CEMENT

(— shows decrease)

Year	Domestic consumption bbls	Percentage of increase or decrease
1912	3,253,495	— 2%
1913	3,530,084	9
1914	3,596,526	2
1915	3,234,644	— 10
1916	4,065,265	26
1917	4,951,142	22
1918	5,844,648	18
1919	5,256,865	— 10
1920	6,598,602	26
1921	8,091,716	23
1922	10,430,941	92
1923	11,664,285	12
1924	12,674,662	9
1925	13,382,198	6
1926	16,733,840	25
1927	18,803,080	12
1928	20,565,624	9
1929	21,786,073	6

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Year	Domestic consumption	Percentage of increase or decrease
1930	19,103,865	— 12
1931	18,087,580	— 5
1932	19,529,955	7
1933	4,022,800 metric ton	—
1934	3,856,100	— 4

The Industry in Recent Years

For some years in the past, the interest of cement industry in Japan centred on the question of the adjustment of over-extended capacity of production. The result is a large curtailment of production.

In 1925 capacity was about 50 per cent. larger than the output, which became almost 100 per cent. in 1934. In recent years the greatest consumption of cement, including domestic consumption and export, was 480,000 tons of May, 1934, while the production capacity at the end of November of the same year was 1,020,000 tons a month. For almost a year 57 per cent. of the Cement Association's (Cement Rengokai) capacity has been curtailed.

The cause of this abnormal condition of the industry is found in the fact that in fixing production curtailment ratio of the member companies of the Rengokai, it has been based on the capacities of production of the members. This led the member companies to expand capacities to get larger shares of business. The situation culminated in the latter part of 1934 in forcing the Department of Commerce and Industry to apply the Major Industries Control Law to the cement industry.

Statistics Statistics for the capacity of production, actual production, output of cement classified by uses and export of the same classified by destinations follow:

PRODUCTION CAPACITY AND ACTUAL PRODUCTION OF CEMENT
(in 1,000 metric tons)

Year	Production capacity at the end of Nov.	Actual production in the year
1925	3,294	2,508
1926	3,549	3,206
1927	3,948	3,575
1928	4,296	3,872
1929	5,230	4,349
1930	5,934	3,748
1931	6,592	3,615
1932	6,933	3,731
1933	8,513	4,781
1934	10,020	5,018

PRODUCTION OF CEMENT CLASSIFIED BY USES

(in 1,000 metric tons)

Uses	1932	1933	1934
Railways	321.9	364.5	305.2
Electric works	115.2	159.0	226.5
Harbours	114.4	202.0	138.6
Roads and bridges	426.7	488.1	385.7
Other public works	355.4	445.8	353.7
Buildings	685.8	927.1	954.3
Mining	30.2	47.2	59.4
Retails	1,173.2	1,226.6	1,379.5
Cement products	78.3	1,000.5	125.2
Miscellaneous	19.9	20.2	16.1
Total	3,586.2	3,981.3	3,887.0

EXPORTS OF CEMENT

(Quantity in tons and value in ¥1,000)

Descriptions	1931		1932		1933		1934	
	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value	Qty	Value
Manchoukuo	62	1	11,555	253	10,521	205	9,016	168
Kwantung Province	5,342	113	15,471	299	38,567	1,824	221,088	4,119
China	21,991	482	16,722	340	25,720	395	22,662	263
Hongkong	126,445	2,553	108,358	2,040	88,515	1,214	62,235	668
British India	52,787	1,038	70,274	1,307	65,733	949	34,242	418
Straits Settlements	87,063	1,800	39,805	823	40,481	597	65,240	764
Dutch East Indies	106,297	2,198	136,324	2,600	87,646	1,368	52,564	667
Philippines	15,892	322	13,322	258	3,850	71	2,022	26
Others	29,804	578	33,732	615	53,209	768	70,841	939
Total	445,688	9,089	445,567	8,545	474,245	7,394	539,905	8,038

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1934 Cement Industry

Demand and Supply Conditions The industry was very prosperous in 1934 following close to the unprecedented boom in the previous year. Causes of prosperity of 1933 were found in the farm relief work and industrial activities caused by inflation policy of the Government. The relief works were continued throughout 1934, and various industries were active, so that the consumption of cement was good too. The damage done to Kwansai districts by the typhoon in the fall created a new demand for cement, by which the industry made an unexpected profit. At the Special Session of the Diet a budget calling for ¥66,000,000 for 1935 and ¥70,000,000 as supplementary budget for 1934 were appropriated for reconstruction works in Kwansai districts. Since the major parts of reconstruction expenses would be consumed by construction works of harbours and buildings, the industry would no doubt further profit thereby.

The output for domestic consumption in 1934 was 3,887,000 tons which showed a decrease of about 90,000 tons as compared with the output of 3,977,000 tons for 1933. But this does not mean a decrease in consumption. New outsiders of the cartel, which came to market their product, viz.: Nitto, Hinode, Kyushu Industrial, and Taihei Companies put up about 30,000 tons a month, which reduced the output of member companies of the Rengokai.

Export to Manchoukuo totalled 437,000 tons, showing a surprising gain of 40 per cent. over 313,000 tons of 1933. The increase of demand in that country may be due to industrial developement there and also to some military reason. But, as explained later in this article, the country is going to become self-supplying with regard to supply of cement, perhaps from the middle of 1935, and the export in the year 1934 may be taken to have reached its peak.

Exports to countries other than Manchoukuo were not so good, owing to the inactivities of the Japan Cement Export Guild. Exports totalled about 320,000 tons and showed a decrease of about 70,000 tons as compared with 1933. This must be partly attributed to the fact that foreign countries tried to restrict our exports.

DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF CEMENT IN 1934 BY MONTH

(In tons)

	Production	Domestic market	Export to Manchoukuo	Export to other countries	Stock in warehouse
January	292,402	255,122	82,981	23,362	210,211
Feburary	354,888	270,382	33,812	33,044	224,917
March	426,957	358,713	28,164	27,112	233,288
April	420,009	352,809	32,060	22,961	249,304
May	426,583	403,333	46,748	25,900	194,924
June	376,984	296,049	47,323	23,145	199,989
July	380,517	294,713	37,756	24,188	215,283
August	389,343	326,842	40,858	29,804	200,858
September	372,323	323,616	44,647	28,400	167,122
October	441,266	375,398	57,846	31,676	135,680
November	437,115	361,384	33,407	32,797	141,500
December	301,002	269,508	1,518	17,565	132,816

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RATE OF CURTAILMENT OF PRODUCTION
(in %)

Month	1933	1934
January	55	52
February	55	52
March	50	52
April	50	52
May	40	52
June	50	52
July	50	57
August	50	57
September	44	57
October	50	57
November	50	57
December	52	57

The Industry Under Major Industries Control Law Examinations of conditions of increase of monthly production capacities of companies which belong to the Cement Rengokai reveal that capacity of 551,000 tons at the end of June, 1932, increased to 638,000 tons and to 791,000 tons in the corresponding periods of 1933 and 1934 respectively, and the actual production was curtailed up to 57 per cent.

The Department of Commerce and Industry became keenly conscious as to future predicaments which might be brought in by such over-expanded capacities. As the Department found it difficult to make members of the Rengokai and the outsiders stop expansion of capacity on their own accord, it finally resorted to the application of the Major Industries Control Law to stop increase of capacity for a year, to make the outsiders join the Rengokai, and to reduce the price of cement and the law became effective on November 29, 1934.

Formation of New Rengokai As the term of the old Rengokai expired in November, 1934, the New Rengokai was formed to succeed the old one, the term of which will run to November, 1944. The New Rengokai will be invested with authority to control both production and sales of the member companies starting from March 1, 1935. It was also agreed that in order to measure the actual output more correctly it would make restrictions on production based on quantity instead of on time.

Though Onoda, Oita and Denki Kagaku Co., Ltd. did not join the New Rengokai, four of Hinode, Nitto, Kyushu Industrial, and the Dai Nippon Artificial Fertilizer Co., Ltd. which used to be outsiders, joined the Rengokai, so that its members now number seventeen.

Manchurian Market Export of cement to Manchoukuo in 1934 was 437,000 tons and showed a gain of 124,000 tons over that of 1933. Though the demand in that country may no doubt increase hereafter, the country is becoming fast self-sufficient as regards the supply of cement. Out of 174,500 tons of cement which was required by the South Manchuria Railway Co., Ltd. more than one half of the quantity was sold by Manchurian Cement, Daido Cement, Fushun Cement, Harbin Cement, Anshan Cement Co., which shows the rapid development of the cement industry in the country. In addition to the above, mills established by Onoda Co., Ltd. in colonies will put up their products to the country, and the cement manufacturers of Japan proper will lose the market by so much.

Market in General The cement market was firm for the first half of the year. Toward the close of the year, however, it showed weakness owing to the Government's suggestion to cut price and also to the tender invited by the Department of Railways in which the Onoda group was successful in offering lower price. The trend of the market follows :

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CEMENT WHOLESALE PRICE IN RECENT YEARS BY MONTH

(Per bag of 50 kg F.O.B. Tokyo Factory in yen)

	1931	1932	1933	1934
January	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
February	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
March	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
April	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
May	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
June	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
July	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
August	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
September	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.16
October	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.15
November	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.15
December	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.15

Ceramics

Introduction

Pottery making has an old history in Japan. As far back as can be traced in history some potters appear to have had their secret proprietary methods of production. In the Meiji Era, especially after the Russo-Japanese War, along with the advance in industry in general, pottery making was industrialized, a procedure which was thought difficult of accomplishment, and to-day annual production amounts to from ¥60,000,000 to ¥80,000,000 in value, while exports amount to over ¥30,000,000. It is now one of the principal industries in Japan.

The chief places of production are Nagoya and Seto, both in Aichi prefecture, and the eastern part of Gifu prefecture. The quantity produced in these places amounts to about 70% of the country's total production. Seto is such a famous place for pottery that the Japanese commonly call chinaware "Seto-mono." Besides the products named above "Kutani" ware of Ishikawa prefecture, "Shimizu" ware of Kyoto prefecture, and "Arita" ware of Saga prefecture, are all famous though produced in small quantities only. Nagoya district is one of the largest pottery producing places in the world.

History

Pottery was being made, crudely admittedly, at the time of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, who lived about 650 B. C. At the time of the Emperor Suinin, that is, 66 A. D., a Korean prince was nationalized, and one of his retainers, who knew the potter's art, was able to give instruction on foreign manufacturing methods. Later, at the time of the Emperor Kammu, i. e., 781 A. D., pottery was imported from China, and the art made further progress.

In 1221 A. D., a man named Kagemasa Kato studied the art of pottery making in China. When he returned, he settled in Seto village, Aichi prefecture, and made chinaware of superior quality, the origin of the present "Seto" ware.

After that, many master artisans arose and tea-things, rice bowls, pitchers, incense burners, etc., now of great rarity and value were produced.

Present Condition of the Industry

Up to 1929, the chinaware industry enjoyed great prosperity. In 1928, total production amounted to

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¥76,726,018, while there were as many as 6,862 factories and 47,108 employees. In 1929, production decreased by about ¥2,000,000's worth owing to a shrinkage in demand, though exports in that year were the greatest the country ever made. In 1930, owing to the raising of the embargo on gold, overproduction the world over, the panic in America, shrinkage in purchasing power in importing countries, the slump in the price of silver, increases in tariffs, and lowering of the price level in general, exports declined by about ¥10,000,000 and in 1931 by a further ¥8,000,000, while 1932 showed a slight increase of about ¥3,500,000. The reimposition of gold embargo and consequent lowering in exchange stimulated exports, which increased to ¥35,634,000 in 1933 and to ¥41,877,441 in 1934 respectively in spite of restrictions of import by many countries in Europe, British India, Dutch East Indies, etc.

Production

The following table shows how this industry has developed recently.

PRODUCTION OF POTTERY

Year	Exports yen	Domestic consumption yen	Total amount yen	Index number
1907	5,257,832	7,099,845	12,357,677	76
1914	5,913,768	9,743,088	15,656,856	100
1920	31,452,252	31,388,065	62,840,317	401
1925	35,272,738	42,905,005	78,177,743	499
1928	34,642,678	42,083,340	76,726,018	490
1929	36,962,654	37,804,816	74,767,470	478
1930	27,171,265	35,248,665	62,419,930	399
1931	19,307,490	34,890,394	54,197,884	346
1932	22,937,076	42,325,776	65,262,852	345
1933	35,634,000	49,612,500	85,246,500	544
1934	41,877,441	—	—	—

Factories and Workers

Number of factories and workers, in 1933, follows :

Prefecture	Total number of factories	Number of workers		
		Male	Female	Total
Aichi	2,040	17,041	7,162	24,203
Gifu	1,328	5,796	3,794	9,590
Miye	164	1,973	774	2,747
Kyoto	401	1,338	309	1,647
Saga	232	1,936	972	2,908
Osaka	40	678	63	741
Fukuoka	60	628	547	1,175
Nagasaki	111	729	429	1,158
Ishikawa	521	1,559	342	1,901
Shiga	143	693	275	968
Hyogo	165	605	165	770
Yamaguchi	186	589	342	931
Others	1,295	3,480	1,073	4,553
Grand total	6,586	37,045	16,247	53,292

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Exports of Chinaware

Though exports of chinaware amounting to ¥1,300,000 were made as early as 1886, the export business did not develop to any great extent until the Russo-Japanese War. In 1904, the Nippon Toki Kaisha, Ltd., was organized, to be quickly followed by the Toyo Toki Kaisha, Ltd., and the Nagoya Seito-sho. Each of these companies established large mills with up-to-date equipment and began to produce chinaware on a big scale. Painstaking studies were made to improve the products and build up an export business, and these, together with other special reasons, account for the remarkably large increase in exports. The special reasons are:

(1) Japan is able to produce specially thin chinaware that other countries cannot.

(2) Japanese artisans are especially clever at their work.

(3) The cost of production is reasonable.

Just at the time when the industry was organized on a modern basis, the World War broke out. Pottery works in belligerent countries in Europe were closed down and exports from Japan increased by leaps and bounds. A temporary set-back was experienced when the War ceased, but a recovery was soon made and there was a steady growth until 1929, then there was a falling off until 1932, when some slight gain was made over the previous year.

EXPORTS OF CHINAWARE TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

(in ¥ 1,000)

Countries	1914	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	531,128	1,238
China	457	2,301	1,697	617	554	991	1,387
Kwantung Province	167	1,601	841	560	756	1,193	2,084
Hongkong	349	650	525	243	142	247	442
India	234	2,558	1,867	1,891	3,463	3,965	3,204
Straits Settlements	181	711	399	210	574	900	1,290
Dutch East Indies	121	4,927	2,765	1,711	2,424	3,728	3,269
French Indo-China	46	27	31	18	36	144	134
Philippines	—	666	679	400	635	959	580
Great Britain	291	517	719	696	825	1,296	1,161
France	126	636	883	1,079	311	643	355
Germany	127	297	317	199	100	146	221
Italy	—	356	242	195	236	371	343
Holland	42	1,028	1,157	1,200	848	981	761
U.S.A.	3,183	14,500	10,820	6,634	6,180	10,180	14,310
Canada	121	1,650	1,391	1,139	1,317	1,399	1,508
Argentine	—	387	249	174	150	395	628
Brazil	—	415	140	79	118	370	554
Egypt	—	101	119	146	408	438	627
Australia	158	1,159	769	665	1,768	2,707	2,331
Others	303	2,466	2,049	1,942	1,962	4,040	5,440
Total	5,913	36,962	27,171	19,307	22,937	35,634	41,879

Domestic Consumption

There are no statistics to rely upon for the exact amount of domestic consumption, but if we subtract exports from the total production we have an approximate value. Figures shown in the second column of the first table "Production of Pottery" give some idea of the amount. Though tile making is growing fast on account of the increase in building of Western style houses, the market was depressed because of lack of

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control over production and sales.

The peculiarity about chinaware intended for domestic use is that it must be made by small factories on the family basis. The reason is that the taste of the Japanese for chinaware are very varied, differing according to each individual as to the form, colour, design, etc., and making it impossible to produce on large scale mass production principles.

Glass and Glass Manufactures

Origin and Development

As far as historical record shows, the art of glass manufacturing was developed in the Nara period, that is about 700 A.D. Later, technics of manufacturing were imported both from the South Sea Islands and China, and put into practice in Osaka, Kyoto and Tokyo, where the industry developed. After the Meiji Restoration, the Government established a model factory to encourage the development of the industry and various attempts were afterwards made to make glass and glassware both by the Government and by individual concerns, but it was not until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, that the industry made any great progress.

Present Condition

Due to the strenuous efforts of manufacturers and advantages from a low exchange rate since the gold embargo was replaced, the glass industry in Japan is doing remarkably well. Imports have gained but little during the past six years. They were worth ¥8,860,552 in 1926, ¥9,075,651 in 1933, and ¥4,607,129 in 1934 not counting photographic plates in any year.

On the other hand, the exportation of Japanese glass products, stimulated by exchange relations, has been exceptionally active since the last gold embargo was clamped. Exports in 1932 came to ¥9,281,682, in 1933 to ¥15,326,611, and in 1934 to ¥19,454,333. Glass products from this country are shipped to almost all parts of the world.

A strong point for Japanese glass exports is that Japanese manufacturers and traders are able to reduce their export prices by 30 per cent., since the present prices are 30 per cent. higher than usual. Exporters are wisely leaving room for competition with foreign products, even though tariff rates are raised by foreign countries. Still, the present prices of Japanese products are low and for this reason, they are in heavy demand abroad.

Glass Tableware Glass tableware was early manufactured in Kagoshima and the old province of Satsuma in Kyushu Island. After the Meiji Restoration it was manufactured by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho (Shinagawa Glass Co.) which was under Government control. At present it is manufactured by the Fukushima Glass Co. organized in 1896, Koidé Shoshi Seizosho (Koidé Glass Co.) established in 1898, Marusa Glass Co., organized in 1918, and the Kawai Shoshi Shokki Seizosho (Kawai Table Glassware Co.) organized in 1920, etc. Production by these and other manufacturers is given below.

Other Glass Articles Glass articles for scientific and medical purposes were manufactured as early as 1850. There are many manufacturers of these articles in Tokyo district.

The manufacturing of eye-glasses was first practised as early as 1600. In 1873, a certain Mr. Matsugoro

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Asakura from Tokyo, went to Austria and learned the art of manufacturing eye-glasses on modern principles. His son and several others are now manufacturing them.

Red glass was manufactured by the Kagoshima clan prior to the Meiji Restoration, and later by the Shinagawa Shoshi Seizosho, which was under Government control. Also a certain Mr. Tokijiro Iwashiro succeeded in manufacturing lenses for the use of search-lights, and lighthouses. The right of manufacturing these lenses was later transferred to the Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., (The Nippon Optical Science Industrial Co., Ltd.). Mr. Iwashiro's son later succeeded in manufacturing cut glass.

Glasses for optical work were mostly imported from Germany before the World War, but when the supply was cut off by the war, it was determined that "lenses for optical science must be produced at home at any cost." The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., to which all the results of studies made by the naval arsenal were transferred in 1914, and the Osaka Industrial Research Institute, which started research work in 1921, continued investigations. The Osaka Institute succeeded in 1925 in discovering a formula for manufacturing lenses, superior to German makes at reasonable cost. The Nippon Kogaku Kogyo Kaisha, Ltd., also succeeded in finding a way to make these lenses, and it is probable that the importation of lenses of these classes from Germany will, in a not distant future, become unnecessary.

Glasses for the chemical industry, that is, hard glasses, are manufactured in several mills in Japan. High grade hard glass which is not in any degree inferior to the best imported is now manufactured by several firms for thermometers, gauges and the chemical industry.

Sheet Glass

Though many efforts were previously made to manufacture sheet glass, it was not until 1904 that a Mr. Magoichi Shimoda, after two years of experimental manufacture, was successful in producing a product that could be put on the market.

In 1907, the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in Amagasaki, Hyogo prefecture, by the family of the late Baron Yanosuké Iwasaki. An expert and five skilled workmen were brought over from Belgium and commenced to manufacture from 1909. The company struggled for 7 years against difficulties in technique and pressure of foreign competition, and in the end succeeded in producing about 120,000 cases a year. In 1914, a patent, which enabled the company to produce sheet glass by a mechanical process was bought from the American Window Glass Co., Ltd., and a factory was established at Makiyama in Tobata, Fukuoka prefecture. On account of the cutting off of imports from Europe during the World War, the company not only increased production, but exported their products to places far afield as South Africa and London. In 1916, the company established a factory in Tsurumi, Yokohama, and in 1917 another in Yawata, Fukuoka prefecture. In 1923 and 1924, the factories in Makiyama and Tsurumi were extended, and at present the company is able to produce as much as 330,000,000 sq. feet.

The Nichi-Bei (Japan-American) Sheet Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in 1917 and was the first to use the sheet process in Japan. The Shoko Glass Co., Ltd., was organized in 1925 under the joint management of the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., and the South Manchuria Railway Co., Ltd.

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The company is manufacturing glass under licence from the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd., by the method employed by the latter. At present the above mentioned three companies only are manufacturing sheet glasses. Their capital, capacity, etc., are as follows :

Companies	Head office	Authorized capital	Paid-up capital	Capacity	Factories
		yen	yen	cases	
Asahi Glass Co., Ltd.	Tokyo	20,000,000	20,000,000	3,300,000	Tsurumi, Makiyama, Amagasaki
Japan-American Sheet Glass Co., Ltd.	Osaka	4,000,000	3,250,000	650,000	Mishima
Shoko Glass Co., Ltd.	Tokyo	3,000,000	3,000,000	250,000	Shakako (in Manchoukuo)

PRODUCTION OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE

(one case contains 100 sq. ft. of glass)

Year	Table ware	For decorative purposes		For illuminating purposes		Bottles
		Beads and balls	Arm rings (in ¥1,000)	Shades and globes	Others	
1924	1,383	—	888	2,021	—	20,097
1925	2,610	—	1,263	2,423	—	20,764
1926	3,081	—	884	2,501	—	19,568
1927	5,109	—	907	2,926	—	16,196
1928	2,956	—	1,015	3,193	—	17,026
1929	3,360	465	1,070	1,326	435	17,813
1930	2,870	893	859	838	244	14,765
1931	2,455	71	570	888	944	10,927
1932	4,193	873	683	891	733	11,193
1933	4,143	302	696	499	1,280	16,845

Year	Sheet glass thickness under 2.2 mm.		Sheet glass thickness under 4 mm.		Others		Looking glasses		Others	Total
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value		
	(Quantity in 1,000; Value in ¥1,000)									
	cases		cases		cases		cases			
1924	—		18,531		—		—			53,611
1925	—		17,286		—		—			47,854
1926	—		15,504		—		—			45,890
1927	—		14,478		—		—			44,270
1928	—		15,145		—		—			44,681
1929	1,606	12,121	53,339	426	143	2,256	45	789		44,669
1930	1,863	12,915	169,680	2,291	12	220	44	25		40,582
1931	2,104	13,690	99,484	1,010	16	332	53	128		34,338
1932	1,757	9,908	337,550	2,137	210	2,124	80	235		37,233
1933	2,039	15,287	427,387	3,988	335	3,147	74	288		52,526

EXPORTS OF GLASS AND GLASSWARE (Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1924		1930		1931	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	1,729	220	3,790	260	2,808	203
Thermos in doz.	91,264	859	282,996	1,525	116,570	690
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	9,866	3,171	15,550	2,970	11,307	2,109
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	1,947	1,572	2,285	1,276	2,853	1,448
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	—	—	142	126	199	167
Watch glasses in gross	77,032	152	71,855	109	63,550	71

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Kinds	1929		1930		1931	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	—	1,379	7,980	503	6,301	371
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	—	—	2,587	265	2,157	221
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	8,776	1,912	16,091	1,252	12,705	908
Other glasses & manufactures	—	849	—	1,118	—	841

Kinds	1932		1933		1934	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Window glass in 1,000 sq. ft.	5,120	377	13,710	969	28,318	1,596
Thermos in doz.	92,055	555	191,455	1,230	234,104	1,653
Glass bottles in 1,000 doz.	16,471	2,814	19,118	3,795	20,394	4,618
Glass cups in 1,000 doz.	3,746	1,724	4,738	2,827	5,375	3,327
Glass tableware in 1,000 doz.	485	337	1,118	749	996	926
Watch glasses in Gross	76,375	83	88,150	99	119	132
Glass beads and balls in 100 kin	16,948	1,043	19,606	1,179	2,277	1,351
Spectacles in 1,000 pcs.	4,354	412	8,705	997	12,738	1,451
Looking glasses in 1,000 pcs.	22,871	1,306	40,047	2,226	54,597	2,645
Other glasses & manufactures	—	625	—	1,151	—	1,750

IMPORTS OF GLASS (Value in ¥1,000)

Kinds	1929		1930		1931	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Uncoloured plate glass under 2.2 mm., 1,000 sq. m.	2,893,702	3,114	2,216	1,392	2,053	825
Uncoloured plate glass under 4 mm., 1,000 sq. m.	61,873	118	118	174	36	67
Other uncoloured plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	184,356	928	430	2,086	370	1,772
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	190,398	2,852	551	972	607	832
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	180,157	653	183	511	136	367
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	12,802	1,399	17,008	1,472	17,008	1,472

Kinds	1932		1933		1934	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Uncoloured plate glass under 2.2 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	1,565	977	1,410	1,090	1,131	954
Uncoloured plate glass under 4 mm. in 1,000 sq. m.	53	260	35	255	44	357
Other uncoloured plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	247	1,885	166	1,622	176	1,865
Other plate glass in 1,000 sq. m.	431	845	460	928	315	676
Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net in 1,000 sq. m.	122	504	164	632	204	753
Dry plates for photography in 100 kin	13,770	1,639	14,162	2,195	12,564	1,823

Lacquer-ware

Historical and General

Industry Inherent The Japanese are a people skilled in handiwork. Prior to the introduction of modern productive industries from the West in the early years of Meiji, the Japanese were separated from Occidental civilization and culture and the various handicraft industries that had come down from ancient times were in a flourishing condition

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and in a state of development peculiar to the country. The industries especially referred to are the silk, porcelain, earthen-ware, lacquer-ware, cloisonné-ware, gold lacquer-ware and the metal engraving.

The lacquer-ware industry existed in ancient times. As was the case with the ceramic industry, it progressed with the introduction of Buddhism and of advanced methods from China, but did not make so notable a development as in the case of the textile, ceramic or other industries. With the rise to favour of the tea ceremony in the Ashikaga Period, Kyoto monopolized the production of lacquer-ware, although wares of nearly the same kind, such as "Wajimanuri" and "Shunkeinuri" were produced in fairly large quantities in different places and were largely used for table-ware. After the Restoration of Meiji there was a considerable decline in the demand for such wares as "Noshironuri," "Wakanuri" and "Tsugarunuri" which had been popular in the Tokugawa Period, while the output of "Wajimanuri," "Kurodenuri," and "Imazunuri" which had principally been used as table-ware greatly increased as they were being exported in increasingly large quantities.

Urushi Obtainable Only in the Orient Japan is the only country in the world enjoying world-wide renown in the technical art of lacquer-ware manufacture. The various industrial arts of Japan such as the porcelanic and weaving owe their origin to China or Western countries, but as regards lacquer, Japan acknowledges no teacher; from remote antiquity, especially in the technique of relief lacquer the art has developed without aid from any foreign methods of manufacture or materials. For more than two thousand years the craftsmen of Japan, having striven to improve, finally attained a degree of wonderful skill. The production of lacquer-ware is confined to Oriental countries where only lacquer juice, known as urushi, is obtainable—Japan, China, Korea and India,—although there is an evident tendency in Western countries in recent years to manufacture lacquer-ware of industrial art value. The application of mother of pearl, known as nacre work, became common during the Nara Period. A large number of ancient examples of lacquer-ware that have served as models for succeeding generations are still kept in the Shosoin, the Imperial Treasure House in Nara. These represent products of the Tempyo Age, when even large wooden buildings were lacquered. Among such buildings left standing are the Chuson Temple in Iwaté prefecture and the Byodoin Temple in Kyoto prefecture. Embossed lacquer-ware was invented during the Kamakura Period, when tasteful designs of chrysanthemums and other flowers were in vogue.

From Toyotomi Downward A golden mother of pearl inkstone case in embossed lacquer with a chrysanthemum design is now treasured in the Hachiman Shrine at Kamakura. The pomp and glory of the third Ashikaga Shogun stimulated the art and resulted in the perfecting of embossed lacquer work and the extension of its application to articles of daily necessity. Hideyoshi Toyotomi accomplished his gigantic task of pacifying the country. Grandeur was a unique feature of his administrative policy and social and other life in those days. The grand Momoyama style was reflected on the industrial arts. Koetsu relief lacquer was supreme and Kodaiji relief lacquer was also produced, representative lacquer products of those days. When the third Tokugawa Shogun, Iyémitsu, came into power,

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he erected the great Nikko mausoleum and Zojoji Temple at Shiba, Tokyo for his grandfather and father respectively, and lacquer was amply applied to these buildings. During the reign of the fifth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, an exquisite technique attained its zenith, defying all the imitative powers of succeeding generations. It was applied to scabbards of swords, miniature medicine-cases (known as inro) and various articles used by the Daimyo. Notable lacquerers such as Koami Choju, Koma Ikyu, Ogata Korin and others flourished during this period. Since that time the production of lacquer has spread to various localities throughout the country, and unique local colour has been freely introduced into the design. Competition ensued as in all industrial articles, and some of the products of those days were exported abroad. Japanese industrial arts were almost wholly neglected during several years following the Meiji Restoration. Lacquered articles of artistic value were sold at ridiculously low prices and these were purchased by foreigners who had eyes for their value and who took them to their own countries. This provided an opportunity to introduce the Japanese lacquer art to foreign countries, but at the same time Japan lost many articles of both æsthetic and monetary value.

Its Fine Quality A French steamer was wrecked off Izu while outward bound from Japan laden with Japanese lacquer-ware that was to be exhibited at the Vienna International Exposition in 1873. The cargo was salved 18 months after the accident and the lacquer goods were found to be undamaged. On slight polishing they regained their former lustre and thus displayed the intrinsic value of this national art product. When the news of this salving and condition of the goods became known abroad the export trade took a sudden spurt forward, but there were traders who exported goods of poor quality, and did great damage to the credit and value of Japanese products in the eyes of foreign customers. Apart from defects in manufacture, some of the bad reputation which exported Japanese lacquered-ware has gained, is ascribed to the fact that some manufacturers are producing inferior articles on account of having been forced by exporters to lower prices, but of late years efforts have been made by the authorities concerned to remedy these evils.

The Output

The annual production of lacquered articles is valued at more than ¥30,000,000, and the annual export value is about ¥2,000,000. The United States is the largest consuming country, and next comes Great Britain, with other countries far behind. Total exports stood at ¥90,000 in 1872, ¥630,000 in 1887, ¥890,000 in 1902, ¥1,140,000 in 1912, ¥1,340,000 in 1922, ¥1,780,000 in 1925, ¥1,490,000 in 1927 and since then the amount has been increasing yearly, the average annual export value for these several years being about ¥2,000,000. Kyoto, Aichi and Ishikawa prefectures are the largest producing centres in Japan.

How the Ware is Made

Lacquer Juice Lacquer juice forms the main material of the craftsmen. It is obtained from the lacquer (urushi) tree grown in Oriental countries and is a milky juice with a greyish-white colour. In air it undergoes an oxidizing process, becomes brown and finally solidifies. When solidified, it is not soluble in ordinary solvents and has an unusual resistance to acids. Its beautiful appearance and smooth feel defy

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paint and varnish. Lacquer juice is regarded as a botanical excrete and in normal conditions is stored in a fixed position in the tree. The tree is tapped by making a horizontal, slanting or V-shaped incision of 10 centimetres right to the sap, and from this the greyish-white juice oozes. Attempts have been made to obtain the juice by means of pressing the bark and leaves of the tree, or by using alcohol, but without success. The greyish-white product is called raw lacquer and is used for the initial application to the goods to be lacquered. As material for the finishing applications and colour lacquering the water is extracted from the juice, and various refining processes follow according to the result required. The chief ingredients of raw lacquer are Urshiol, 77.63%, gummy substance, 2.62%, carbonic substance 1.94% and water 17.81%.

Manufacturing Process Lacquer-ware manufacturing is divided into three stages, namely, the initial application, lacquering and relief lacquering. The process is further divided into different categories according to technical experience and skill. Wood, bamboo, paper, metal and porcelain are used as basic materials for initial lacquer applications. Wood is mostly used throughout the country, but wood has the drawback of swelling and contracting according to weather condition. Bamboo and paper are used for particular lacquer-ware making, while metal and porcelain are less commonly used. The initial application is made on the surface of the ware by means of a spatula or brush, the article is thus made water-proof and the absorption of lacquer applied to finish or fill in tiny holes or other defects is prevented. The finishing process is of course for the purpose of making the ware solid and smooth.

Lacquer is the best material for the initial application, though shibu-varnishing or glue-varnishing is also practised, especially for low grade wares. The juice of the astringent persimmon is the chief substance of shibu, and with this is mixed powdered charcoal or other materials. Glue is also used as a raw material, but it is not much good for solidity. Glue-varnished wares are made mostly for export, and the bad reputation that modern Japanese lacquer-ware has in foreign markets is chiefly ascribed to these glue-varnished articles. Formalin is used to solidify these wares. As regards the finishing application, a proper amount of pigment is added to refined lacquer to make it coloured or transparent, and this is finely applied to wares that have been through the initial application. These are then kept in a wooden closet to avoid dust and allowed to dry. This is called fresh lacquering. When wares are dry, they are polished by charcoal.

Relief lacquering was evolved to give beautiful designs to wares after the finishing application had been gone through. Pictures or designs are painted on the articles by lacquer and before the lacquer is dry, gold, silver and other metallic dust or pigment is applied. Then polishing for the finishing touches takes place. This is called ordinary relief lacquering, but there are other methods of production and prices differ according to the extent of finish. Of the two principal methods of manufacturing high-class goods, polished relief lacquering is one. When the ordinary relief lacquering process is completed, lacquer is once more applied to all the surface and the whole is then polished by charcoal, and the design is pre-

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sented on the flat surface. The other is embossed relief lacquering, and this requires much time and skill. Designs are made in high relief and the ordinary relief lacquer is applied. Shells, corals, jewels and stones are often inlaid in lacquer-ware and to these are applied transparent or block lacquer, the product being known as aventurine-ground lacquer-ware. Gold dust is also applied in relief and this is known as flush pointing. Another unique lacquering is the application of coloured lacquer coatings for as many as a hundred times, and when dry an exquisite design is carved on the ware. This process somewhat differs from relief lacquering but it forms one of those elaborate methods in the manufacture of the lacquer-ware which remains one of the outstanding products of the Japanese craftsman.

Production and Exports

Japanese lacquer-ware produced during 1933, the latest figure available, amounted to ¥29,571,665 while exports amounted to ¥2,371,000 in 1933 and to ¥2,570,476 in 1934. Production classified according to prefectures follows :

Prefecture	Production in 1933 (In Yen)
Kyoto	8,898,600
Aichi	4,031,142
Ishikawa	2,643,087
Fukushima	2,162,026
Wakayama	2,703,375
Shizuoka	2,420,690
Fukui	1,884,537
Niigata	962,000
Toyama	1,080,127
Yamagata	752,883
Shiga	754,229
Kagawa	672,362
Others and Total	29,571,665

1932	26,632,909
1931	25,658,693
1930	28,244,095
1929	33,866,882
1928	35,962,754

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CHAPTER XXIII

MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES (Continued)

Caustic Soda, Soda Ash, Bleaching Powder, Dyestuff, etc.

Introductory

The Japanese chemical industries involving the manufacturing of caustic soda, soda ash (sodium carbonate or washing soda) and bleaching powder owed their development to the World War, which stimulated them to sudden growth. More than 10 companies were founded during that period, but only a few of them survived the great economic slump which followed the termination of the World War. For a long time after the War, the industries were in a depressed condition. It has been no easy matter for the existing companies to have arrived at their present stage of development, many attempted but fell on the way, often, with others to be merged with stronger concerns. Those which are doing business at present are all backed by large business houses or financing organizations. Protection of the Government, which is alive to the momentous value of these industries, must not be ignored. Without Government protection and encouragement, the prosperity to which they have now attained would never have been realized. There are about nine leading industries which the Government and the various authorities concerned are making efforts to consolidate, and this is one of them. The others are the nitrogen fixation industry, the dyestuffs industry, the iron and steel manufacturing industry, the aluminium industry, the oil industry, the automobile industry, the photo-chemical industry, and the minute chemical industry.

Soda Ash Industry

The soda ash industry holds an important position in Japanese industrial circles. It is an industry inseparable from that of glass and other chemical industries that require considerable amounts of alkali. Soda ash occurs in its natural state in some parts of the world, but in this country it has to be prepared from salt, and as salt is a Government monopoly the price is high, so when the Asahi Glass Company, in order to attain self-sufficiency, started the production of soda ash after the World War it did so on an uneconomic basis, but the Government came along and by granting liberal subsidies to this and other concerns saved the industry and put it on a paying basis. Brunner, Mond and Company (British) and H. Ahrens and Company (German), who used to be the largest importers, were hit hard by this development in home production. The history of the growth of the soda ash industry in Japan is the history of strife between the Asahi Glass Company, backed by the Mitsubishi interests and protected by the Government, and these foreign concerns. The total production of soda ash in 1933 was 272,135 tons while about 45,725 tons were imported. In 1934 Japan succeeded in exporting about 15,160 tons and has become more than self-sufficient in this article.

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Caustic Soda

As a by-product of the production of caustic soda the poisonous gas chlorine is freed. This gas is made into commercial bleaching powder, and in the past the commercial production of caustic soda was only possible if a good price was obtained for bleaching powder and the industry was greatly dependent on this latter commodity for quantity of production. Nowadays, as soda ash is being produced cheaply, caustic soda is being manufactured from it and domestic production is increasing. The replacement of the gold embargo and the raising of the tariff virtually sealed the activity of the British importing concern, whose pressure was a great hindrance to the development of the Japanese soda ash industry, and self-sufficiency in the production of both soda ash and caustic soda has been thereby attained. Brunner, Mond and Company has largely restricted its activities and home production has greatly increased. The Asahi Glass Company and Nippon Soda Kaisha, known as N. S. K., have recently expanded their equipment for producing soda ash to an annual productive capacity of 150,000 tons, which is about 30,000 tons more than the yearly domestic demand. The production of caustic soda in 1933 totalled 131,709 tons which showed that the increased productive equipment of N. S. K. and the Electrolytic Soda Industry Company was completed.

Bleaching Powder

The demand for bleaching powder has become active since an improvement was registered by the paper manufacturing companies, who consume 70 per cent. of the total production. The business solely depends on the rise and fall of the foreign-style paper manufacturing industry.

The Industries in 1934

Caustic Soda Along with the increase in the production of rayon, that of caustic soda also gained. Especially the increase of production by ammonium method was remarkable. The Asahi Glass Company commenced activities in 1933 and completed equipments for a production of 110 tons per day. Owing to prosperous export, equipments for production by electrolysis method were extended also. The Nippon Soda Kogyo Kaisha added a mill with a capacity of 10 tons a day; the Nippon Electrolytic Soda Industry Co. one with 24 tons; the Saito Ryuso Kaisha one with 8 tons; the Tsurumi Soda Kaisha one with 12 tons, while the Nobeoka Mill of the Asahi Bemberg Co. has become self-sufficient with regard to the supply of caustic soda, and the production of 1934 was 164,834 tons against 131,709 tons of 1933 and showed a gain of 25 per cent. On the other hand, imports in the same year totalled 16,546,000 kin and showed a decrease of 4,249,000 kin. Exports showed a sudden increase to 20,488,600 kin.

Caustic Soda Market The caustic soda market was dull owing to the dullness in rayon market throughout the year although toward the close of the year, increased production of rayon as well as demand from new mills of Fukushima, Kinkwa, Teikoku, Toyo, Nippon, and Dai Nippon Rayon Companies were enough to revive the market and enabled it close the year in a firm tone.

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CAUSTIC SODA MARKET IN 1934
(unit in yen per bag of 100 kg.)

Month	Price	Month	Price
Jan.	20.50	July	17.40
Feb.	20.00	Aug.	17.00
Mar.	19.30	Sept.	16.90
Apr.	18.40	Oct.	16.30
May	18.20	Nov.	16.00
July	17.80	Dec.	16.70

Soda Ash Along with the activities in glass, soap, dye-stuff, and medicine industries this industry was active, too, its production amounting to 202,291 metric tons. Exports also totalled 15,403 tons. Market, however, was weak throughout the year, the trend of which follows :

SODA ASH MARKET IN 1934
(unit in yen per bag of 100 kg.)

Month	Price	Month	Price
Jan.	10.34	July	9.50
Feb.	10.30	Aug.	9.00
March	10.02	Sept.	8.80
Apr.	10.00	Oct.	8.50
May	9.68	Nov.	8.50
June	9.00	Dec.	8.50

Bleaching Powder This industry continued to keep up a high rate of curtailment in 1934.

MONTHLY CURTAILMENT OF PRODUCTION OF BLEACHING POWDER

Month	Curtailment in %	Month	Curtailment in %
Jan.	50	July	48
Feb.	55	Aug.	52
Mar.	55	Sept.	52
Apr.	55	Oct.	40
May	52	Nov.	40
June	48	Dec.	45

In recent years the control of cartel on the production and sales of bleaching powder has been much weakened owing to the fact that some companies are producing liquid chlorine and is selling it as such. In order, therefore, to make the control of bleaching powder effective it was agreed to extend it to the production, sales and price of liquid chlorine by the Joint Sales Association of bleaching powder. Production of bleaching powder in 1934 totalled 64,980 tons, showing a gain of 3,838 tons over 1933. Exports showed an increase, too, and amounted 4,247 metric tons.

Statistics Below are given data bearing upon the industry of these three articles :

PRODUCTION AND IMPORTS OF SODA ASH

	Production (In metric tons)	Imports
1924	2,002	118,898
1925	11,162	130,089
1926	17,818	86,534
1927	23,130	109,434
1928	30,928	78,649
1929	43,583	76,116
1930	57,233	65,206
1931	93,244	54,336
1932	134,807	46,434
1933	272,135	46,447
1934	202,291	37,139

MONTHLY DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF SODA ASH IN 1934
(in metric tons)

Year and month	Production	Imports	Exports	Supply
1934				
Jan.—June total	119,175	21,337	5,078	135,434
July	11,263	4,161	887	14,537
August	12,519	2,964	1,588	13,895
September	12,818	1,847	1,106	13,559
October	15,285	2,694	2,706	15,273
November	15,018	1,752	2,258	14,512
December	16,213	2,384	1,780	16,817
1934 total	202,291	37,139	15,403	224,027
1935				
January	15,728	1,082	2,754	14,056

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PRODUCTION, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF CAUSTIC SODA

	Production	Exports	Imports	Supply
		(In metric tons)		
1923	21,684	80	15,543	37,147
1925	25,423	216	22,154	47,361
1926	25,341	42	36,208	61,507
1927	24,094	54	40,946	64,986
1928	28,700	33	58,593	87,260
1929	57,382	22	42,388	99,550
1930	34,738	17	37,592	72,313
1931	48,536	10	41,595	90,121
1932	75,116	2,238	28,185	101,063
1933	131,709	5,116	12,477	139,070
1934	164,834	12,293	9,928	162,469

MONTHLY DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF CAUSTIC SODA IN 1934

(In metric tons)

Year and month	Production	Imports	Exports	Domestic supply
1934				
January—June total	77,375	4,033	4,035	77,373
July	14,422	213	996	13,639
August	14,756	885	1,256	14,385
September	12,142	905	317	12,730
October	14,685	1,337	1,568	14,454
November	15,383	1,022	2,115	14,290
December	16,071	1,533	2,006	15,598
1934 total	164,834	9,928	12,293	162,469
1935				
January	16,695	1,114	2,223	15,576

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF BLEACHING POWDER

	Production	Exports	Supply
	(In metric tons)		
1924	33,368	2,752	30,616
1925	36,890	2,542	34,348
1926	33,288	2,618	30,670
1927	37,384	2,588	34,796

	Production	Exports	Supply
	(In metric tons)		
1928	46,325	3,080	43,245
1929	50,756	3,109	47,647
1930	49,471	3,446	46,025
1931	45,005	3,544	41,461
1932	47,485	2,858	44,627
1933	61,142	3,392	57,750
1934	64,980	4,247	60,733

NONTHLY DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF BLEACHING POWDER IN 1934

(In metric tons)

1934	Production	Exports	Domestic supply
January—June total	28,867	1,890	26,977
July	5,473	361	5,112
August	5,060	302	4,758
September	5,356	335	5,021
October	7,068	565	6,503
November	6,892	428	6,464
December	6,264	566	5,898
1934 total	64,980	4,247	60,733
1935			
January	5,995	401	5,594

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Soap Making

Development and Production

The industry was started early in the Meiji Era, but no great progress was made until after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, when machinery was introduced from abroad. During the World War, the industry enjoyed great prosperity, but the reaction was also very severe when it came in 1920. However, during those difficult times, the foundation of the industry became more consolidated and the quality of soap improved a great deal.

Production of soap in Japan is as per the accompanying table. Tokyo and Osaka are the two principal places of production, the former producing about 50% of the total production in the country, while Osaka produces about 30%. Export of soap, 90% of which is toilet soap, are made mostly from Osaka for China and Kwantung Province. Imports amount to barely ¥100,000 in value a year.

Raw Materials for Soap

Oils, tallows and alkali are used as raw materials for soap. The principal raw material, beef tallow, is imported from Australia, while tallow, copra oil, hardened fish oil, and groundnut oil, of domestic production mostly, are also used. For laundry soaps, hardened fish oils and cheap vegetable oils are used. For soap for industrial purpose, vegetable oils of superior grade are mostly in demand, and for soap for washing silk goods, puna oil is in common use. About 50,000 tons of raw materials are consumed for soap making purposes, tallow accounting for 14,000 tons, hardened fish oil 20,000 tons, copra oil 6,000 tons, while about 10,000 tons of caustic soda and considerable quantities of soda ash are used.

Methods of Production

Soap has long been produced in Japan on a household industry basis, but the methods used have been rather backward when compared with the progress made in other industries. Recently, however, a considerable amount of capital has been invested in the industry, modern machinery has been installed and well-trained personnel engaged, factors which promise further improvement. Most of the toilet soap is produced on a large scale by machinery.

To ascertain the amount invested is very difficult as the industry is still run mostly as a household industry. The principal soap manufacturers producing on a large scale are Harumoto Sekken Seizosho, Nitto Sekken Kaisha, Ltd., Nakayama Taiyodo, Velvet Soap Making Co., Ltd., Nagasé Shoten, Ltd., Marumiya Shoten, and Shiseido.

PRODUCTION OF SOAP BY MILLS EMPLOYING MORE THAN 5 PERSONS

(in ¥1,000)

Year	Toilet soap	For industrial purposes	For medical purposes	For laundry	Powdered soap	Others	Total
1922	14,327	1,450	—	—	—	—	23,569
1923	13,916	3,718	—	—	—	—	20,893
1924	17,981	3,093	—	—	—	—	23,752
1925	20,526	1,964	—	—	—	—	30,118
1926	21,825	2,114	—	—	—	—	33,906
1927	23,339	1,849	—	—	—	—	35,141
1928	24,654	2,283	—	—	—	—	39,146

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Year	Toilet soap	For industrial purposes	For medical purposes	For laundry	Powdered soap	Others	Total
1929	22,690	2,370	5	10,199	1,767	1,908	38,942
1930	18,564	2,863	397	11,066	1,833	605	35,362
1931	17,246	1,480	173	7,561	2,063	1,355	29,900
1932	19,164	1,450	268	8,389	2,642	428	32,344
1933	21,243	2,558	194	9,584	2,992	1,118	37,691

Vegetable and Animal Oils and Fats

Introduction

For lighting purposes vegetable oils have been used in Japan for centuries. In earlier days perilla oil was used but this was later replaced by rapeseed oil. The production of these oils on an industrial basis only developed after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905.

The Development of Oil Industry

Production of hardened oil in Japan during 1933 amounted to 61,500 metric tons in contrast to 50,150 tons for 1932; 46,800 tons for 1931; and 42,100 tons for 1930. The increase was the result of high market price. It is used mostly for soap making, candles and dietary purposes. Even during the time when Japan was on gold, hardened oil was exported. Since the country was off gold, exports have increased. The 1934 exports were 24,104 metric tons, worth ¥5,042,254; 1933 year exports 23,421 metric tons, worth ¥4,939,000; 1931 year exports 13,044 metric tons, worth ¥2,997,000; 1930 year exports 12,326 tons, worth ¥3,987,000. Last year's exports were about 85 per cent. gain in the quantity over 1931.

The principal vegetable oils produced are soy bean and rapeseed. Linseed oil, perilla oil, hempseed oil, wood oil, sesame oil, cotton-seed oil, castor oil, groundnut oil, copra oil, camella oil etc., are also produced in considerable quantities. The production of soy bean oil in 1913 was valued at ¥1,330,000, but by 1933, this had increased to ¥13,115,000, after having touched over ¥13,900,000 in 1929; rapeseed oil was valued at ¥10,123,000 in 1933; groundnut and copra oils reached over ¥10,000,000 during the World War, but had decreased to ¥385,639 and ¥2,657,171 by 1933. On the other hand, the production of linseed oil during the World War was valued at barely ¥200,000, but this had increased to ¥3,775,357 in 1933. The production of cottonseed oil and sesame seed oil has developed steadily since the Great War, being in 1922 valued at ¥817,288 and ¥969,891, while in 1933 they were ¥2,731,458 and ¥2,662,503 respectively.

In addition to the above-mentioned vegetable oils Japan produces, in Kyushu Island, vegetable wax, but the yields of "hazé" seed, from which the wax is produced, has been yearly decreasing and production has correspondingly fallen off. The yield in 1933 was 4,208,131 kilogrammes valued at ¥1,440,017.

Of the principal vegetable oils produced in Japan, only wood and camellia oils and vegetable wax are pressed from domestically grown seeds, all the others obtain their materials from abroad. Soy bean oil, rapeseed oil, and vegetable wax are exported, their total amount in 1934 being ¥6,905,000. The importation of vegetable oils is very small indeed.

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The Industry in 1934 The price of ¥25 per 100 kg. of hardened fish oil was maintained firm till the end of April. In May the appearance of the outsiders such as the Okuyama Soap, the Lion Soap, the Chosen Oil Co., etc. made the control of the cartel weak, and the market price declined continuously until September.

After September, owing to the report on the probable shortage of oil in America, due to short crops of cotton seeds caused by drought, along with failures of crops of soy beans in Manchoukuo and groundnuts in India, the hardened oil market became firm. The market price in the year follows:

MARKET PRICE OF HARDENED FISH OIL

(in yen per 100 kg.)

Month	Price	Month	Price
January	25	July	20
February	25	August	18
March	25	September	18
April	25	October	20
May	23	November	20
June	22	December	22

The Lion Soap Co., Ltd. with 200 tons hardened oil production capacity per month, the Okuyama Soap Co., Ltd. with 300 tons production capacity and the Chosen Oil Co., Ltd. with 500 tons production capacity were established. These outsiders as well as the activities of the Yamamasu Oil Co., Ltd. weakened the control of the cartel. Later in the year, however, with the solution of problem of import of the Korean fish oil, the Chosen Oil Co. became a member of the cartel, which has resulted in strengthening control. Production of 68,000 tons and export of about 24,000 tons in 1934 showed gains over 61,000 tons and 23,400 tons respectively of 1933.

Statistics Statistics for the oil industry follows:

PRODUCTION OF VEGETABLE OILS

Year	Rapeseed oil	Sesameseed oil	Groundnut oil	Cottonseed oil	Copra oil	Soy bean oil
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	13,165,556	2,188,861	194,423	1,428,689	2,955,374	10,044,596
1925	13,511,189	2,760,426	134,172	2,040,500	2,799,482	13,923,496
1926	13,474,263	2,182,166	107,517	2,666,062	2,823,263	12,886,947
1927	15,228,035	2,443,698	229,845	1,913,650	2,090,566	13,710,316
1928	12,214,398	2,645,601	165,667	2,011,407	2,346,020	13,963,580
1929	12,214,398	2,398,899	253,659	3,393,863	2,800,842	13,963,580
1930	10,826,085	2,382,457	234,880	2,568,777	2,184,334	9,146,415
1931	8,074,304	2,428,682	276,802	1,456,122	1,890,389	9,143,974
1932	8,398,297	3,122,444	244,834	1,165,868	1,991,043	10,570,255
1933	10,123,029	2,662,503	385,639	2,731,458	2,657,171	13,115,461

Year	Linseed oil	Perilla oil	Hempseed oil	Wood oil	Camellia oil	Other oils	Total
	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen	yen
1924	2,044,161	1,900,467	281,086	133,215	1,563,764	4,687,174	40,587,386
1925	1,904,994	2,146,127	257,298	124,257	1,490,297	4,320,659	45,412,897
1926	1,520,004	1,774,963	205,567	154,724	1,184,771	4,753,068	44,233,310
1927	1,584,332	896,291	208,465	126,965	1,013,593	3,040,848	39,986,965
1928	2,733,100	1,107,100	261,197	108,559	814,459	2,974,879	41,092,703
1929	2,945,224	1,442,661	218,218	163,281	728,262	3,600,224	44,247,827
1930	1,077,673	2,422,152	207,218	93,713	599,905	2,359,477	34,102,586
1931	1,094,542	2,052,760	154,928	76,071	428,788	2,134,248	29,211,560
1932	1,015,617	2,358,302	152,654	153,716	336,860	2,434,947	31,944,837
1933	3,775,357	5,518,011	—	184,421	378,188	2,457,087	44,018,331

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PRODUCTION OF RUBBER MANUFACTURES IN JAPAN

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Shoes and other footwear		Toys	Tyres and accessories	For machinery
	No. pairs in 1,000 units	Value in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000
1924	14,655	12,609	3,383		
1925	11,742	13,922	3,437		
1926	15,080	15,858	2,699		
1927	17,171	18,158	3,064		
1928	26,143	21,306	2,517		
1929	37,913	24,984	2,318	25,753	2,126
1930	47,290	20,379	2,318	19,285	1,420
1931	32,266	15,929	3,320	19,494	686
1932	34,294	17,352	5,027	24,080	1,173
1933	40,867	21,827	5,562	32,826	1,000

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Belts	Rubber pipes	Others	Total	Hard rubber manufactures	Grand total
	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000
1924				49,328	2,617	51,946
1925				52,360	3,270	55,630
1926				54,834	3,765	58,600
1927				63,283	2,772	66,056
1928				69,075	1,195	70,270
1929	4,698	1,818	9,859	74,871	1,727	76,598
1930	4,576	1,972	9,551	59,563	1,203	60,766
1931	4,005	1,747	9,898	54,992	1,112	56,104
1932	4,438	2,191	10,563	64,827	1,054	65,882
1933	5,662	2,989	16,061	84,981	1,722	86,704

Imports and Exports

The importation of rubber manufactures is decreasing each year. Tyres for automobiles, hose, belting for machinery, old rubber, etc., are the principal imports, but hose and belting of domestic manufacture are rapidly replacing the imported articles. On the other hand, the exportation of rubber manufactures is developing rapidly, especially in the case of rubber shoes.

Cultivation of Gum Trees

Plantation work by the Japanese was started as early as 1906 in the Malay States, and was later extended to Sumatra, North Borneo and other places. Soon afterwards a great interest was taken in the industry, Japanese investments quickly grew, and the work that was originally started as a private enterprise is now mostly carried on by joint stock companies.

IMPORTS OF RAW RUBBER AND EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL RUBBER MANUFACTURES

(unit in yen)

Year	Import of Raw Rubber	Exports of Pricipal Rubber Manufactures		
		Boots and shoes	Tires for rikisha bicycles and other vehicles	toys
1926	40,507,000	—	—	—
1927	34,635,000	—	—	—
1928	28,252,000	—	—	—
1929	34,130,000	—	—	—
1930	17,930,000	—	—	—
1931	13,183,000	4,394,000	3,857,000	2,198,000
1932	15,988,000	4,889,000	4,377,000	5,506,000
1933	29,685,000	8,213,000	8,839,000	8,633,000
1934	57,337,000	3,332,000	9,994,000	6,406,000

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EXPORTS OF OILS, WAX, AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Perilla oil yen	Bean oil yen	Rapeseed oil yen	Fish oil yen	Whale oil yen	Vegetable wax yen	Hardened oil yen
1924	—	1,390,000	781,000	3,176,000	—	2,485,000	—
1925	—	2,878,000	1,546,000	4,127,000	—	1,414,000	—
1926	—	3,045,000	6,038,000	4,485,000	—	1,526,000	—
1927	—	1,704,000	5,863,000	7,480,000	—	2,339,000	—
1928	—	1,625,000	2,105,000	7,941,000	220,000	2,088,000	2,017,000
1929	—	2,236,000	4,316,000	7,722,000	43,000	2,255,000	2,006,000
1930	—	4,359,000	4,672,000	7,600,000	361,000	1,870,000	3,987,000
1931	803,000	1,049,000	1,963,000	1,797,000	146,000	1,154,000	2,997,000
1932	1,100,000	1,010,000	1,808,000	2,768,000	466,000	1,177,101	4,221,000
1933	3,532,000	342,000	2,245,000	2,397,000	131,000	1,139,000	4,939,000
1934	2,709,000	623,000	5,024,000	3,150,000	155,000	1,258,000	5,042,000

Rubber

Introduction

The rubber industry in Japan began with the establishment in 1886 of the Mitsusuchi Rubber Company, a limited-partnership concern, in Tokyo. The industry developed steadily through the Sino-Japanese and the Russo-Japanese Wars of 1894-1895, and 1904-1905. In 1909 there were 20 mills, 900 workers and production reached ¥4,000,000 in value. During the World War the industry further developed. The earthquake of 1923 destroyed about 80% of the rubber manufacturing capacity of Tokyo and Yokohama districts, and many people were gravely doubtful as to whether the rubber factories in those districts would ever revive, but reconstruction quickly took place and the factories rebuilt. In 1933 the total production in the country by mills employing more than 5 persons was as large as ¥86,704,950 in value, but the figure would be much larger if we include goods produced by people working in their own homes. The number of mills employing more than 5 persons in 1933 was 748, and the number of workers 37,974. Hyogo, Tokyo and Osaka prefectures are the chief producing centres. Production in these and other important prefectures in 1933 was as follows:

Hyogo	¥28,651,980
Tokyo	19,238,267
Osaka	13,413,820
Hiroshima	3,045,704
Miyé	1,808,520
Okayama	1,378,147
Kanagawa	6,273,573

Present Condition of the Industry

Until 1920 Japan had to import the major portion of the rubber goods she required, but the industry has now developed to the extent that imports have been reduced to a small quantity. The 1934 year import of gutta percha amounted to ¥57,337,000 in contrast to ¥29,685,000 for 1933 and ¥15,988,000 for 1932. The 1934 year exports totalled ¥37,626,000 against ¥28,193,000 for 1933 and ¥14,960,000 for 1932.

The chief articles produced are tyres, rubber shoes, toys, tubes, electric battery cases, etc. The total amount of production of rubber manufactures reached ¥86,704,000, in 1933. The following table gives statistics for mills employing more than five persons only.

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PRODUCTION OF RUBBER MANUFACTURES IN JAPAN

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Shoes and other footwear		Toys	Tyres and accessories	For machinery
	No. pairs in 1,000 units	Value in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000
1924	14,655	12,609	3,883		
1925	11,742	13,922	3,437		
1926	15,080	15,858	2,699		
1927	17,171	18,158	3,064		
1928	26,143	21,306	2,517		
1929	37,913	24,934	2,318	25,753	2,126
1930	47,290	20,379	2,318	19,285	1,420
1931	32,286	15,929	3,320	19,494	636
1932	34,294	17,352	5,027	24,080	1,173
1933	40,867	21,827	5,562	32,826	1,000

Soft Rubber Manufactures

Year	Belts	Rubber pipes	Others	Total	Hard rubber manufactures	Grand total
	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000	in ¥1,000
1924				49,328	2,617	51,946
1925				52,360	3,270	55,630
1926				54,834	3,765	58,600
1927				63,283	2,772	66,056
1928				69,075	1,195	70,270
1929	4,698	1,818	9,859	74,871	1,727	76,598
1930	4,576	1,972	9,551	59,563	1,203	60,766
1931	4,005	1,747	9,898	54,992	1,112	56,104
1932	4,438	2,191	10,563	64,827	1,054	65,882
1933	5,662	2,989	16,061	84,981	1,722	86,704

Imports and Exports

The importation of rubber manufactures is decreasing each year. Tyres for automobiles, hose, belting for machinery, old rubber, etc., are the principal imports, but hose and belting of domestic manufacture are rapidly replacing the imported articles. On the other hand, the exportation of rubber manufactures is developing rapidly, especially in the case of rubber shoes.

Cultivation of Gum Trees

Plantation work by the Japanese was started as early as 1906 in the Malay States, and was later extended to Sumatra, North Borneo and other places. Soon afterwards a great interest was taken in the industry, Japanese investments quickly grew, and the work that was originally started as a private enterprise is now mostly carried on by joint stock companies.

IMPORTS OF RAW BUBBER AND EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL RUBBER MANUFACTURES

(unit in yen)

Year	Import of Raw Rubber	Exports of Pricipal Rubber Manufactures		
		Boots and shoes	Tires for rikisha bicycles and other vehicles	toys
1926	40,507,000	—	—	—
1927	34,635,000	—	—	—
1928	28,252,000	—	—	—
1929	34,130,000	—	—	—
1930	17,930,000	—	—	—
1931	13,183,000	4,394,000	3,857,000	2,198,000
1932	15,988,000	4,889,000	4,377,000	5,506,000
1933	29,685,000	8,213,000	8,839,000	8,633,000
1934	57,337,000	3,332,000	9,994,000	6,406,000

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JAPANESE RUBBER PLANTATION IN SOUTH SEA ISLANDS *

(At the end of June, 1933)

Districts	Land leased	Area of Plantation Completed			Quantity of rubber available	Actual production
		Area where raw rubber available	Where raw rubber not yet available	Total		
	acres	acres	acres	acres	tons	tons
Malay Peninsula	96,272	53,040	10,959	63,999	10,056	8,926
Sumatra	290,738	16,555	5,856	22,411	2,705	2,048
Borneo	45,390	8,221	4,412	12,633	1,816	1,515
Java	42,946	3,539	1,063	4,602	757	638
Sarawak	7,184	3,693	1,280	4,973	644	567
British Borneo	31,925	11,931	1,291	13,222	2,067	1,585
Philippines	50	50	—	50	13	13
Total	514,505	97,029	24,861	121,890	18,058	15,292

* The report of the Nanyo Saibai Kyokai (the South Seas Islands Plantation Association).

Celluloid

General

The Japanese celluloid industry made considerable development during the World War. Owing to a heavy demand coming from European countries, where factories were closed by the War, Japanese celluloid products once dominated the world's markets, but with the termination of the War foreign products quickly regained their position in the markets captured by Japan during the War, and for some years the industry was in a state of depression. Gradually penetration was effected by traders and exporters, and overseas markets were largely restored, especially after the replacement of the gold embargo in December, 1931. The domestic market has been prosperous for many years, without being affected very much by changes in economic conditions.

Japanese celluloid products are mainly exported to America, England, South America and Australia. They are now exported to Europe and Africa, in competition with German products, the most formidable rivals. As long as the exchange rate is low and tariff walls are not raised, the export trade is destined to be prosperous.

Celluloid manufacturing is one of the most promising industries in Japan, with total production amounting to ¥24,202,000 and exports reaching ¥14,494,000 in 1934, but it is faced with one great difficulty, that of obtaining its chief material cheaply. Camphor is the material, but as this is restricted by monopoly law its price is kept fairly high.

The greatest assets the celluloid industry in Japan has are its overseas markets, markets that are expanded yearly, cheap labour, exquisite technique and advantages in the acquisition of raw materials.

The Dai Nippon Celluloid Kaisha is the largest manufacturer. 75 per cent. of the total production in Japan comes from this company, while the remaining 25 per cent. is divided among about ten manufacturing concerns, all of small scale. The company, which has a virtual monopoly of celluloid manufacturing in this country, concentrates its energies on exporting. Nearly 80 per cent. of Japan's total exports of celluloid are the produce of this company.

The company, at a cost of ¥2,000,000, has started manufacturing films at

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Ashigara at the foot of Mount Hakoné. The films were placed on the market during 1933, and it is expected that imports, which used to amount to about ¥5,000,000 annually, will largely decrease from 1934 onwards. Cellophan is manufactured at the Kanzaki factory of the Dai Nippon Celluloid Company, and is now procurable at very low prices.

Statistics Production of raw celluloid, celluloid manufactures, and exports of the same follow:

PRODUCTION OF CELLULOID BY MILLS EMPLOYING MORE THAN 5 OPERATIVES

Year	Raw Celluloid Qty in metric tons	Raw Celluloid Value in ¥1,000	Manufactures of Celluloid Toys in ¥1,000	Combs in ¥1,000	Others in ¥1,000	Total in ¥1,000	Grand total in ¥1,000
1924	3,020	9,988	1,207	4,555		5,762	15,701
1925	3,801	12,664	984	3,440		4,427	17,092
1926	3,650	9,848	1,971	3,988		5,960	15,808
1927	3,414	9,372	1,539	3,125		4,665	14,037
1928	3,989	10,992	1,724	3,825		5,550	16,542
1929	5,806	12,278	2,025	535	4,668	7,229	19,508
1930	4,146	8,029	1,757	364	2,193	4,315	12,345
1931	4,847	7,800	861	393	1,347	2,602	10,403
1932	5,700	7,974	1,040	1,056	2,145	4,242	12,217
1933	8,893	16,674	2,628	1,503	3,395	7,527	24,202

EXPORTS OF RAW CELLULOID AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

Year	Raw Celluloid Qty in metric tons	Raw Celluloid Value in ¥1,000	Celluloid Manufactures Toys in ¥1,000	Combs in ¥1,000	Others in ¥1,000	Total in ¥1,000	Grand total in ¥1,000
1924	109	371	2,718	466	584	3,769	4,140
1925	115	399	4,265	696	510	5,472	5,872
1926	48	168	4,545	602	795	5,944	6,113
1927	77	208	4,077	715	840	5,632	5,841
1928	98	249	4,229	785	1,015	6,030	6,280
1929	208	396	5,572	963	1,834	8,370	8,767
1930	161	298	4,423	631	1,267	6,322	6,621
1931	304	504	3,041	763	920	4,725	5,230
1932	511	875	2,527	1,467	1,494	5,490	6,366
1933	1,220	2,363	3,178	3,110	2,346	8,635	11,813
1934	1,804	3,303	3,708	4,260	3,223	11,191	14,494

Note: Incongruity in the figures of celluloid manufactures in the production and exports tables is due to the fact that a large amount of celluloid manufacture is produced by mills where less than 5 persons are employed.

Matches

The Industry in the Past

A factory for making matches was first established in Japan, in Tokyo, in April, 1875, by a certain Mr. Makoto Shimizu, who had just returned from studying the subject in a French technical school and a match factory managed by the French Government. In the same year a factory was established in Osaka, and in 1877 another was established in Kobé. In 1878, three years after the first factory was established matches to the value of ¥24,000 were exported, and in succession factories were established in Shizuoka, Aichi, Osaka and Hyogo prefectures. By 1889, not only had the importation of matches ceased,

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but large quantities, in face of strong foreign competition, were being exported to China. In 1887, Hyogoken Match Seizogyo Kumiai (Association of Manufacturers of Matches in Hyogo prefecture) was formed and in 1900 the Dogyo Kumiai (Association of Traders in Matches) was organized. The industry experienced great prosperity during the Russo-Japanese War, exports were made not only to China but also to the South Sea Islands, Straits Settlements and India. But from about that time the match industry began to develop in China and by 1908 it had developed to the extent that the market in China was considerably curtailed for the Japanese product, then when India raised her tariff on matches, and the Dutch East Indies imposed a consumption tax on them, exports of matches to countries in the Orient were considerably reduced. Exports for some time became almost negligibly small until they picked up in 1933, in which they suddenly increased to ¥3,248,000 from about ¥938,000 of 1932.

Present State of the Industry

There are about 140 match factories in Japan, the annual output of matches being 400,000 cases, one case containing 600 dozens. Of the total production, 220,000 cases are exported to the colonies, while 180,000 cases are consumed at home.

The development of our match industry during the World War was such as to make the industry a menace to the International Match Company. This company, therefore, commenced negotiations with and was successful in amalgamating the Nippon Match Manufacturing Co., Ltd., which was one of the Mitsui interests, and the Nippon Match Co. came under foreign management for three years, that is, until 1927, when the largest match manufacturer in Japan, the Toyo Match Co., Ltd., seeing the advantages which would accrue from co-operation with the International Match Company agreed to amalgamation. The Daido Match Co., Ltd. (The Great Consolidated Match Co., Ltd.) was organized with capital equally subscribed by Japan and Sweden, and the management was placed in Japanese hands, avoiding in this way competition in foreign markets. In Japan about 15% of the factories do not yet belong to the company, and it is necessary for the company to cooperate with these factories in order to keep up the market.

Exports The match manufacturing industry in Japan has revived since the death of Ivar Kreuger, former Swedish match magnate, in 1932. Exports increased along with the development of the industry and even in 1913 Japan's match exports totalled some ¥12,000,000 after meeting the domestic demand. During the World War annual exports were between ¥30,000,000 and ¥40,000,000, forming one of the big ten export items of Japan.

Ivar Kreuger placed the Far Eastern market under his sway after the War. Through the Swedish International Match Corporation he purchased the Japan Match Company and several other manufacturing concerns. The remaining Japanese match makers could not withstand this competition, and in 1927 had to surrender to the Swedish match influence. The export volume in 1932 went off to as low as ¥938,000 from ¥1,408,000 in 1931 and ¥1,965,000 in 1930.

Exports during the first 11 months of 1933 suddenly rose to nearly ¥3,000,000. The downfall of Swedish match interests following the sudden death of Kreuger liberated the Japanese match industry from the con-

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trol of foreign capital. Exports last year were made to China, India, South Seas and other points. The 1931 output in Japan was worth ¥7,924,000, of which Hyogo prefecture manufactured ¥6,638,000, or 84 per cent. Last year's production of matches and allied articles by mills employing more than 5 operatives is roughly estimated at about ¥11,000,000 for Japan.

When the Japanese match industry was influenced by Swedish interests the export field was limited to China and part of the South Seas. America, Australia, the Near East, Africa and Europe was monopolized by Swedish interests. After Kreuger's downfall Japanese match exporters took back their old markets. With the replacement of the gold embargo Japanese products have found their way in heavy volume to their old markets. The low exchange rate and cheap labour in Japan have stimulated exports.

Exports in 1933 and 1934 follow:

EXPORTS OF MATCHES
(Value in yen)

Destinations	1933	1934
Manchoukuo	43,000	88,000
Kwantung	44,000	69,000
China	1,000	3,000
Hongkong	154,000	954,000
British India	88,000	83,000
Straits Settlements	234,000	401,000
Dutch India	107,000	110,000
French Indo-China	12,000	—
Asiatic Russia	136,000	111,000
Great Britain	30,000	22,000
Holland	44,000	158,000
U. S. A.	1,947,000	446,000
Hawaii	67,000	72,000
Others and total	3,248,000	2,928,000

Number of Factories The number of match factories in Japan was 143 at the end of 1933, according to the Factory Statistics of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Workers employed in them numbered 8,150, of whom male workers totalled 2,467 and female workers 5,683. Details were:

	No. of factories	No. of workers
Employing fewer than 10 workers	46	228
between 10– 15	14	166
„ 15– 30	27	552
„ 30– 50	15	612
„ 50–100	17	1,219
„ 100–200	15	2,054
more than 200	7	2,285

Production of matches and allied articles in recent years has been as follows:

PRODUCTION OF MATCHES, ETC.

Year	Quantity produced	Value	Match-boxes	Matchwood
	gross	yen	yen	yen
1922	28,027,173	18,949,279	11,893,910	3,404,952
1923	24,196,708	14,811,402	1,536,544	2,747,792
1924	24,786,995	15,796,641	1,459,027	1,879,584
1925	24,139,266	16,987,560	1,256,968	2,558,545
1926	24,087,312	15,667,221	1,111,140	1,566,661
1927	3,301,575	14,540,033	1,217,350	2,202,373
1928	19,471,637	12,445,793	741,202	1,383,046
1929	21,607,683	9,825,495	1,358,616	1,220,148
1930	16,722,653	7,464,081	645,765	600,047
1931	13,535,353	6,686,245	457,067	701,334
1932	13,234,683	7,306,721	764,905	613,939
1933	20,711,289	9,202,221	1,169,029	710,525

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Dyestuff

Through Governmental protection extending over many years, the Japanese dyestuff industry is now well established. Self-sufficiency will be only a matter of time, for within recent years this industry has been gaining momentum among the other industries of the country. Japan supplies 99 per cent. of all sulphuric dyes demanded domestically. Concerning ratios of high-grade dye supplies, Japan can supply 86 per cent. of miscellaneous dyes, 49 per cent. of acid dyes, 35 per cent. of mordant dyes and 26 per cent. of vat dyes for internal use. Coal-tar dyes were already exported in 1934 to the volume of 7,023 metric tons worth ¥4,259,000. Napthol and Indanthrane dyes, which are not manufactured here, Japan gets from Germany. Consumption of these dyes is approximately 150,000 kin worth about ¥3,000,000. Research in producing these dyes is underway by the Mitsui Mining and Japan Dyestuff Manufacturing Companies. Notwithstanding all this domestic activity, Japan still imports a large volume of dyes. Vat colour imports were especially notable because Mitsui Mining produced mostly artificial indigo. Imports of dyestuff in 1934 were ¥9,147,000 in value, and showed an increase of ¥1,080,000 over 1933, details of which follow:

IMPORTS OF DYESTUFF IN 1934

Colours	1933 Amount (kin)	1933 Value (¥1,000)	1934 Amount (kin)	1934 Value (¥1,000)
Basic	186,293	1,285	176,347	979
Direct	473,415	1,991	573,627	2,403
Acid	295,023	1,366	378,490	1,669
Mordant and intermediate	370,773	1,364	366,051	1,353
Sulphuric	116,885	433	142,363	427
Vat	121,284	1,465	147,465	2,147
Others	56,582	156	55,064	169
Total	1,620,255	8,060	1,839,407	9,147

The average price of these imported dyes in 1934 was ¥8.59 per kilogramme, against ¥8.29 in 1933 and ¥4.57 in 1932. As long as the exchange rate remains at about $30 and the activity of rayon industry lasts, the demand for dyes will continue in heavy volume. The domestic production of dyes during 1933 compared with the preceding four years and exports of Japan-made dyes since 1926, follow:

PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

Year	Basic Qty in 1,000kg.	Basic Value in ¥1,000	Direct Qty in 1,000kg.	Direct Value in ¥1,000	Acid Qty in 1,000kg.	Acid Value in ¥1,000	Mordant Qty in 1,000kg.	Mordant Value in ¥1,000
1929	308	1,136	716	2,194	328	931	46	209
1930	347	1,265	608	1,916	217	671	36	177
1931	479	1,617	744	2,032	247	691	40	161
1932	608	2,415	1,243	3,589	425	1,518	91	263
1933	717	4,069	1,693	5,707	522	2,249	32	220

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PRODUCTION OF SYNTHETIC DYESTUFFS

Year	Vat Colours: Sulphide Qty in 1,000kg.	Sulphide Value in ¥1,000	Artificial indigo Qty in 1,000kg.	Artificial indigo Value in ¥1,000	Others Qty in 1,000kg.	Others Value in ¥1,000	Others and total
1929	7,408	2,903	57	236	9	60	8,924
1930	6,745	2,445	66	229	12	71	7,891
1931	7,392	2,208	117	433	33	122	8,378
1932	10,609	4,602	193	771	45	259	15,869
1933	11,816	5,721	594	2,327	65	445	23,983

PRODUCTION OF ANILINE AND INTERMEDIATES

	Aniline Qty in 1,000kg	Aniline Value in ¥1,000	Others and total in ¥1,000
1929	3,214	2,050	6,931
1930	2,337	1,615	4,555
1931	2,127	1,242	4,333
1932	2,440	1,591	6,803
1933	2,995	2,600	10,057

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC DYESTUFFS

	Amount (Metric tons)	Value (¥1,000
1926	474	324
1927	490	291
1928	1,166	580
1929	811	360
1930	2,085	820
1931	2,011	509
1932	4,521	1,522
1933	6,125	2,895
1934	6,423	4,259

The Government on March 16, 1933, raised the customs tariff on import dyes by 5 per cent. uniformly for protection of home products.

The Industry in 1934

Trend in General The prosperity of the industry continued throughout 1934. Plans to increase production by various companies, which were started in 1932, were completed by the end of 1933. Further plans to increase production were launched in 1934, the substance of these new plans being such in nature as to promise a great development of the industry in future. The Japan Dyestuff Manufacturing Co. is building mills in Yodogawajiri and Nishijima, while several other chemical industrial concerns are also planning to build dyestuff mills. Another noteworthy event was that the Mitsubishi interests which have been studying dyestuff for many years at last materialized their plans, for the Mitsubishi Mining Co., Ltd. established the Japan Tar Industry Co. on joint account with the Asahi Glass Co., Ltd. and their new mill in Yawata City in Kyushu has already started operation. On the other hand, plans to make Japan self-sufficient with regard to the supply of principal intermediates by those who have been hitherto exclusively engaged in dyestuff industry, have materialized to some extent.

Market Tendency The typhoon which swept the Kwansai districts in the fall gave considerable damages to dyestuff mills in those districts. This checked the downward tendency of the market which had been kept on ever since the early part of the year. Market prices follow:

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MARKET PRICES OF DYESTUFFS

in 1934

	Black direct 36% per kin in yen[1]	Black sulphide per 100 kin in yen[2]	Blue vat per 100 lbs in yen[3]
Jan.	1.85	46.00	271.67
Feb.	1.85	46.00	271.85
Mar.	1.60	41.00	272.00
Apr.	1.60	37.00	272.00
May	1.60	37.00	272.00
June	1.60	34.00	272.00
July	1.60	34.00	272.00
Aug.	1.60	34.00	282.00
Sept.	1.60	34.00	282.00
Oct.	1.75	38.00	282.00
Nov.	1.75	38.00	282.00
Dec.	1.75	38.00	282.00

Aluminium

The first aluminium manufacturing plant in Japan was erected at Omachi, Nagano prefecture, in December, 1933. The Japan Electric Industry Company, formerly known as Japan Iodine Company, runs it. This concern also built the first alumina factory at Koyasu, Yokohama, in the spring of the same year. At the Koyasu factory Korean alum is used for making 20 metric tons of alumina a day. Alumina is sent to the Omachi factory, where 10 tons of aluminium is manufactured. The production cost of alumina is ¥1,000 per metric ton. This factory has yearly productive capacity of 3,600 tons, but Japan's annal demand is 10,000 to 12,000 tons, which used to be entirely imported from abroad. The capitalization of this company is ¥12,000,000. Another alumina manufacturing plan has been advanced. Anticipating completion of the Jitsugetsutan Power Station in June by the Taiwan Electric Power Company, an aluminium manufacturing company capitalized at ¥10,000,000 will be founded in Formosa in June, 1934. Establishment is taking place under joint management of the Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo and Furukawa interests. Power totalling 50,000 kw. out of 100,000 kw. to be generated by the Jitsugetsutan Station will be supplied by the Taiwan Electric organization. Promoters of the prospective company have carried on exhaustive researches into the manufacture of aluminium during the past year and have found a practical method to produce it, which is however being kept an absolute secret. The factory will be erected in Takao province, Formosa, and material which is bauxite will be imported from Borneo, Korea, the Malay Peninsula and Brazil. Approximately 50,000 kw. of electricity will be had from Taiwan Power and in the first year the firm plans to have an output of 2,000 tons of aluminium, which will be boosted to 20,000 tons in the future. This metal will be supplied to various industrial plants throughout Japan. When the annual production reaches 20,444 ton level, Japan will be self-sufficient as regards this metal. In order to clinch their market in Japan, the International Aluminium Cartel, controlled by the Melon interets in the United States, has reduced the selling price of aluminium in this country to ¥1,500 per ton. The production cost of Japanese aluminium is estimated at about ¥1,200, or ¥1,300, a ton, while that of foreign aluminium is much lower. The Mitsubishi Mining Company has decided to go into the manufacture of aluminium zinc and oil, using hydrogenation process for the latter. The company will use its large profits on coal, copper and gold to finance the expansion. Experiments have

1 Product of Japan Dyestuff Manufacturing Co., Ltd.
2 Product of Mitsui Mining Co., Ltd.
3 Product of I. G.

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been completed and the experts in charge are convinced of their ability to make each of the new enterprise a success. The aluminium industry will be the first to be tried. Korean alum shales will be used in a special process worked out by the company. A factory will be built near the Miuta Coal Mine, Hokkaido, which the company operates, together with a steam power generating station capable of 30,000 or 40,000 kw.

Pyrethrum

Hokkaido is noted for producing pyrethrum flower, which is used as material for anti-insect powder in foreign countries. Pyrethrum is manufactured into powder by American companies after it is exported there, where it is largely used for mosquito incenses and anti-bed bug powder. The direct shipment from Hokkaido was made in September, 1933. Pyrethrum was formerly exported through Kobé merchants, but, owing to inconveniences, the Hokkaido Government encouraged direct shipments from Hokkaido to America. The Hokkaido Government caused pyrethrum manufacturers to organize the Manufactured Pyrethrum Industrial Guild, as the first step to the export of manufactured pyrethrum abroad. Hitherto, this was exported in the shape of dried flower. As international goods, manufactured pyrethrum is steadily gaining ground. Under encouragement of that Government, Hokkaido pyrethrum raisers are manufacturing it for direct export. Not only the United States but South Seas markets such as Saigon, Bangkok, Rangoon, Manila, Singapore, Sourabaya and Batavia, Indian markets including Calcutta and Bombay and European market such as London, Hamburg and Paris demand product. Wakayama prefecture is also noted for raising pyrethrum flower. Production and exports of pyrethrum in the last several years follow:

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTS OF PYRETHRUM

Year	Production		Exports	
	Qty in 1,000kg	Value in ¥1,000	Qty in 1,000kg	Value in ¥1,000
1930	5,979	3,249	—	—
1931	5,147	2,627	43,845	1,681
1932	5,107	3,730	94,678	4,752
1933	6,061	7,809	84,808	6,349
1934	—	—	93,848	7,447

Survey of Industrial Activities in Japan in 1934

New Capital Amount of capital absorbed by different kinds of manufacturing industries is detailed in the table given below. New capital invested in 1934 amounted to ¥1,565,159,000, it including those invested in new establishments, payment for this increased capitalization and in debentures. About 62 per cent. of the total, or ¥977,589,000 were invested in manufacturing industries. If the amount invested in electric and mining industries were included the sum would reach ¥1,212,901,000 or more than 77 per cent. of the total amount, and shows how industrial activities in Japan in 1934 centred around the manufacturing industries. The table given below is prepared from the Commercial Register, and shows that expansion of metal, machine manufacturing, cement, chemical, and textile industries are specially remarkable:

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INCREASE IN CORPORATE CAPITAL PAID-UP
in 1933 and 1934
(Compiled by the Bank of Japan)
(in ¥1,000)

	1933				1934			
	New Incorporations	Additional Shares issued	Unpaid Capital called	Total	New Incorporations	Additional Shares issued	Unpaid Capital called	Total
Total	331,851	387,974	250,662	970,488	773,201	336,054	455,902	1,565,159
Manufacturing Total	85,620	251,794	109,428	446,843	544,136	172,724	260,728	977,589
Gas works	325	13,000	797	14,122	681	—	4,605	5,286
Spinning	2,759	6,975	7,615	17,349	10,650	15,052	18,478	44,180
Silk-reeling	8,954	2,895	1,382	13,232	1,345	3,689	7,847	12,882
Weaving	7,168	6,840	9,617	23,626	7,421	19,517	11,925	38,863
Dyeing	1,036	295	865	2,198	2,776	3,166	2,174	8,117
Paper	1,110	64,525	1,359	66,995	804	1,622	20,258	22,685
Chemicals	20,924	40,308	29,484	90,717	55,165	36,396	51,786	143,347
Machines & Tools	15,541	15,883	7,787	39,211	38,622	33,115	42,120	113,858
Shipbuilding & Dock	—	62,750	1,550	64,300	200	6,925	20,906	28,031
Cement, Ceramics, Glass, etc.	1,487	623	4,229	6,298	7,406	4,085	8,982	20,474
Metal-works	9,058	9,310	32,277	50,646	388,910	31,268	50,280	470,459
Brewing	7,619	11,782	2,345	21,746	6,747	3,898	1,038	11,179
Foods & Drinks	3,696	11,689	7,756	23,142	11,257	3,991	15,050	30,298
Timbering	879	110	176	1,165	1,969	2,514	974	5,457
Others	5,110	4,805	2,184	12,100	10,180	7,987	4,300	22,468

Principal Companies Earnings of manufacturing industries in the latter half of 1934 was 15.5 per cent. as compared with 14. per cent. in the corresponding period of the year before, and showed an improvement of 1.5 per cent., although, earnings of a considerable number of companies decreased, some of them having been forced to reduce dividend. It is generally thought that the earnings of manufacturing industries reached the peak in 1934.

Demand on Labour According to the investigation made by the Bank of Japan, the index number of labour at the end of 1934 was 95.5 and made a steady gain since January without a break. The index number of wage rate was 82.2 at the year end. Though this was slightly lower than 84.1 of January, the index number of earnings of the total labour was 95 at the year end as compared with 87.8 of January, and shows how busily the manufacturing industries were kept. Especially the index number of labour in machine manufacturing, shipbuilding, rolling stock, metal industries as well as that of textile industry and those making goods for exports showed a great increase over 1933. A table illustrating this follows :

INDEX NUMBERS OF EMPLOYMENT AND WAGES

(Average for 1926=100)

Year	Employment	Wage rates	Earnings By all labourers
1931 average	74.4	91.3	90.7
1932 ,,	74.7	88.1	88.1
1933 ,,	81.9	85.1	89.2
1934 Jan.	86.2	84.1	87.8
,, Feb.	86.7	83.7	92.9
,, Mar.	87.8	83.5	94.0
,, Apr.	90.5	83.0	90.8
,, May	91.0	82.8	90.7
,, June	91.2	82.7	90.5
,, July	91.6	82.8	89.6
,, Aug.	92.1	82.7	89.7
,, Sept.	93.5	82.6	90.0
,, Oct.	94.1	82.6	91.1
,, Nov.	94.9	82.3	92.4
,, Dec.	95.5	82.2	95.0
1934 average	91.3	82.9	91.2

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Damages by Typhoon The damages sustained by the typhoon and flood, September 21, 1934, to manufacturing industries in Osaka prefecture were very severe. According to investigations made by the prefecture, the number of mills damaged was more than 1,200 which affected more than 117,000 officials and operatives. The damages of mills without reference to the loss which arises from inability to operate amounted to ¥27,929,000. Details follow:

Descriptions	No. of mills	Damages in ¥1,000
Dyeing and textile	373	6,309
Machinery	368	14,910
Chemical	312	5,345
Foodstuff	65	326
Miscellaneous	93	792
Specific	19	248
Total	1,230	27,929

The above-mentioned figures apply only to those mills which come under the factory law. If, therefore, small industries run on domestic basis, to which the law does not apply, were included, the figures would be much larger.

The percentage of damages as against the total capacity in Osaka prefecture was 12.8 per cent. in number of mills, and 47.8 per cent. in number of officials and operatives. It was estimated that operation of damaged mills would begin after two months and the complete revival of production would take six months.

As regards the loss which is due to mills' inability to operate, it was estimated that 51 per cent. of production capacity of Osaka city and 43.9 per cent. of capacity of local districts, or 49.6 per cent. of the total capacity of the whole prefecture, which corresponds with 8.6 per cent. of the country's total production capacity, was damaged.

Extension of Production Capacities The year 1933 was a year in which extension of production capacities in almost all lines of industries was undertaken. It is true that this tendency was continued in 1934. But the year 1934 was reserved to see what the result of extension of capacities would be. In most instances demands were good, and in some cases such as in steel industry, which increased production by about 30 per cent., supply was not enough and the price was steadily upward.

On the other hand, industry like cement seems to have gone too far, and was forced to curtail production by as large as 57 per cent., while its market was disturbed through the competition between its cartel and the outsiders. Rayon industry, the production of which totalled as much as 1,370,000 cases, was scarcely able to dispose of the product through exports, its market sharply declining through the fear that its export would be barred abroad as well as the approach of opening of operations of newly established mills.

Cartels and Rationalization Policy The industrial rationalization policy of the Government has had its effect upon many industries. It also had bearing on bringing forth some new cartels and strengthening the old ones. Many of these cartels, such as those of steel, beer, paper, coal, petroleum, cement, and rayon were active. But control of these cartels was, in many instances, weakened by the activities of the outsiders and many of them were forced to realize the importance of further strengthening their organization.

However, where the strength of a cartel was really felt, there arose sharp criticism against it, or a claim lodged by the consumer, due to pulling up of price by the cartel, or withholding delivery of goods desired. In the instance of the steel industry, the Japan Iron Manufacturing Co., Ltd. was born as the result of the Government's rationalization

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policy. The control exercised by this company was effective. But it produced an effect which the Government could not foresee. The supply of steel put up by the company was not large, which resulted in the high price of steel materials. Consumers were pressed very hard, and the movement for reducing the price of steel materials drew attention of the public, which caused the Government to contemplate to lower duty on steel. Troubles of similar nature arose in fertilizer industry, where the supply of ammonium sulphate became short, and a dispute arose between the fertilizer cartel and the representatives of farmers as to the import of this fertilizer. In the case of paper industry, the monopolistic control of the cartel was directly opposite to the interest of the newspaper and magazine people, while in beer, sugar and confectionery industries the cartels aroused a suspicion of the masses. These disputes almost always arose in connection with the question of prices, and the number of them increased as the time progressed and the acuteness intensified.

Under these circumstances, the policy of the Government to effect the rationalization through the control of various industries by cartels met a great stumbling block and the Government has been forced to conceive a new idea to change the original policy of enhancing cartels into that of regulation of cartels, and various laws were prepared with a view to carrying this new idea into effect.

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CHAPTER XXIV

COMMUNICATIONS

General

The communications of the country are supervised by the Minister of Communications and a special account is established for the management of this business, beginning with the fiscal year 1934-1935. General condition of the business in Japan proper in 1933-1934 may be obtained from the following :

Post, telegraph and telephone officials	178,524
Post, telegraph and telephone offices	12,782
Postage stamp sale agencies	69,341
Post boxes	75,649
Postal stations	10,822
Ordinary mail	
Ordinary mail routes	90,176 km.
Ordinary mails, acceptance	4,357,325,600
Ordinary mails, delivery	4,402,200,835
Parcels,	
Parcel post routes	90,210 km.
Parcels, acceptance	61,240,342
„ delivery	57,762,972
Telegraph,	
Telegraph stations	7,948
Telegraph routes	51,663 km.
Telegraph lines	371,876 „
Telegraph apparatuses	10,511 sets
Telegrams, despatched	57,767,114
„ arrival	60,085,863
Telephone,	
Telephone stations	6,531
Public telephones	2,977
Telephone subscribers	796,533
Applicants for the same	159,302
Telephone routes	67,018 km.
Telephone lines	6,045,985 „
Telephones	875,157
Telephone messages	3,434,522,844
Income from postage and fees	¥261,715,228
Expenditure	¥143,093,918

The Postal Service

Historical Survey

The present state postal service system was established in 1871, between Tokyo and Osaka. In August of that year, post offices were opened in Niigata, Hakodaté, Kobé, Nagasaki, and Yokohama. In December a new postal route was established between Tokyo and Nagasaki, connecting the two cities in 7 days and 17 hours. In May, 1872, the postal service between Yokohama and Tokyo was greatly improved by the establishment of five deliveries a day, and by July the service was extended to all the cities and towns of importance throughout the country, except a part of Hokkaido.

Foreign Mail Opens In March, 1872, a foreign mail service was opened at the same time as the establishment of official postal regulations. In those days, foreign mail matter in Japan was handled with the aid of the British, American, and French post offices in Yokohama, Kobé and Nagasaki. Soon after the conclusion of the America-Japan Mail Service Treaty in 1873, the American post offices were withdrawn from this country, and Japan was thus placed on an equal footing with the U. S. A. as regards the mail service between the two countries. In 1877, an arrangement was made with twenty-five countries participating in the International Mail Service Treaty. Thereupon, the British and

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the French post offices were also withdrawn from this country.

The post offices were at first classified into five grades, and in March 1886, they were classified into three as at present. In view of the development of telephone and telegraph business, the authorities introduced a revision in the system of the Communications Department in 1903, and divided post offices into post, telegraph, and telephone offices each of them being classified into 1st, 2nd and 3rd, or 1st and 2nd in the case of telephone offices. With the rapid increase in the amount of mail matter and telephone and telegraphic messages, the regulations of the Communications Department as to the number and kind of offices, were extended from time to time, and at present there are offices in warships, steamers, trains, etc., in addition to the network throughout the country.

The air mail service was commenced in 1929 with the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company in April of the same year.

The Growth The rapid growth of the postal service in the early years is illustrated by the following statistics :

Year	No. of P. O.
1871	180
1872	1,160
1873	1,501
1874	3,245
1882	5,527

Following the introduction of a revision in the postal service regulations in 1883, some of the offices were eliminated, the number being reduced to 4,088 by the end of 1889. But the steady development of postal business necessitated an increasing number of offices as the following figures for Japan proper show :

On March 31 of	No. of P. O.
1907	5,485
1922	6,709
1923	8,477
1924	8,546
1925	8,633
1926	8,705
1927	8,916
1928	9,114
1929	9,393
1930	9,690
1931	9,954
1932	10,208
1933	10,322
1934	10,611

Post offices are classified into three grades, namely 1st, 2nd and 3rd, the 1st being, side by side with 2nd and 3rd offices, in such important places as Tokyo, Osaka, and other leading cities. The 2nd and 3rd are in smaller cities, towns and villages throughout the country. Those of the 1st or 2nd grade are government offices, under direct government management. In post offices of the third class, business is conducted on the contract system.

Its Business

In addition to ordinary matters relating to post and telegrams, the post offices in Japan receive taxes on behalf of the various tax authorities and pay pensions, annuities, etc. on behalf of the Treasury. Since 1906 New Year's greeting cards have been handled separately from ordinary mail matter with a view to relieving congestion. Such mail matter is accepted by all post offices from December 15 until 29 of the same month for delivery on New Year's day.

Ordinary mail matter is delivered 5 or 6 times daily in Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto, and 4 or 5 times in other large cities, where there are 1st class offices. In smaller cities, the 2nd class offices deliver 3 or 4 times a day. In towns and villages where they have 3rd class offices, mail matter is delivered twice a day only. The number of collections is the same as that of delivery in most cases.

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The parcel post service was started in 1892, the first arrangement as regards foreign connections being made with Hongkong in 1879. The scope of international service was gradually extended, and covers almost all treaty countries at present.

Statistical Tables In the following are given a number of tables relating to the volume of business, and its growth, handled by the post offices:

NUMBER OF POST OFFICES (September 30, 1934)

	Japan Proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st Class	87	12	—			
2nd Class	221	10	4	98	56	9
3rd Class	9,845	158	72			
Minor offices	69	—	—	16	150	—
Total	10,822	180	76	114	206	9

QUANTITY OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN JAPAN PROPER

		Ordinary mail	Parcel post	Total	Percentage of Increase
1892-1893	Despatched	277,805,743	40,755	277,846,498	10.33
	Received	278,598,069	38,000	278,636,069	—
1897-1898	Despatched	550,915,742	4,108,488	555,023,230	9.98
	Received	539,540,474	4,06008,797	543,601,270	9.51
1907-1908	Despatched	1,357,447,195	17,676,745	1,375,123,939	6.21
	Received	1,346,523,695	16,567,155	1,363,092,850	5.65
1912-1913	Despatched	1,630,394,908	24,276,991	1,654,671,989	5.28
	Received	1,594,850,576	23,008,666	1,617,859,242	6.03
1921-1922	Despatched	3,992,769,865	48,758,863	4,041,528,718	2.03
	Received	3,989,309,281	45,890,304	4,035,199,585	1.87
1926-1927	Despatched	3,974,192,623	58,258,644	4,032,451,267	2.49
	Received	3,906,474,525	55,852,079	3,962,326,604	2.66
1929-1930	Despatched	5,096,611,868	63,650,583	5,160,261,951	9.55
	Received	5,046,099,425	60,654,644	5,106,754,069	(—)9.70
1930-1931	Despatched	4,409,551,651	60,067,753	4,469,619,404	(—)0.02
	Received	4,437,939,812	57,724,887	4,495,664,693	0.18
1931-1932	Despatched	4,409,202,875	58,201,931	4,548,404,806	1.08
	Received	4,532,477,448	55,654,590	4,588,132,042	(—)1.35
1932-1933	Despatched	4,253,259,081	58,472,313	4,312,231,344	(—)0.36
	Received	4,294,100,596	54,849,774	4,348,950,370	0.34
1933-1934	Despatched	4,357,325,600	61,240,342	4,418,565,942	0.25
	Received	4,402,200,885	57,762,972	4,459,963,807	0.26

QUANTITY OF MAIL MATTER HANDLED IN 1933-34 IN THE EMPIRE

	Japan proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Ordinary mail						
Domestic mail						
Despatched	4,327,177,681	75,122,427	19,754,022	268,703,793	133,835,809	1,462,025
Collection of money	6,628,468	190,128	12,683	378,152	30,919	—
Received	4,366,856,287	85,031,316	28,409,997	292,540,894	108,276,274	1,980,351
Collection of money	—	285,368	59,704	574,662	102,563	—
Foreign mail						
Despatched	30,147,919	625,487	—	467,504	12,273,152	10,335
Received	35,344,548	650,056	—	1,023,256	9,415,328	14,395

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Parcel post	Japan proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Mandated Islands
Domestic						
Despatched	60,602,593	633,860	202,850	2,281,990	767,170	10,685
Received	57,622,925	1,142,885	506,121	3,272,234	2,145,057	43,588
Foreign						
Despatched	637,749	7,620	—	12,419	18,282	73
Received	140,047	2,534	—	6,980	11,703	152
Total						
Despatched	4,418,565,941	76,389,393	19,956,872	271,465,706	146,894,363	1,483,118
Collection of Money	6,628,468	190,128	12,683	378,152	30,917	—
Received	4,459,963,807	86,626,791	28,916,118	296,843,364	119,848,362	2,038,486
Collection of Money	—	285,368	59,704	574,662	102,563	—

Postal Money Order can hardly be included into the business of communications. It is, however, one of the important lines of business handled by the post office for the convenience of the large mass of people. The number and amount of postal money orders handled during 1933-34 are given below:

POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN 1933-34

DOMESTIC

Territory	Issued No.	Issued Amount (in yen)	Paid No.	Paid Amount (in yen)
Japan Proper	33,332,829	682,431,763	35,208,631	731,180,972
Taiwan	1,051,069	27,736,385	610,567	16,612,763
Karafuto	459,899	14,102,622	221,766	9,119,062
Chosen	3,474,861	108,257,022	3,104,117	99,739,650
Kwantung Leased Territory	1,341,424	41,685,746	497,707	16,865,189
South Sea Mandated Islands	81,186	7,046,278	26,117	6,597,332

FOREIGN

Jopan Proper	27,380	1,202,894	136,483	4,780,421
Taiwan	9,869	300,789	1,543	50,005
Karafuto	47	3,215	109	10,767
Chosen	6,212	302,782	27,919	701,327
Kwantung Leased Territory	796	30,018	6,102	225,817
South Sea Mandated Islands	368	4,059	55	4,349

The number of postal money orders issued in Japan proper has been on the constant increase since 1875 when the business was first opened while the amount reached its highest mark in 1926 and continued decrease for five years until it began to regain the upward tendency in 1933.

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POSTAL MONEY ORDERS IN JAPAN PROPER 1875-1933

Fiscal Year		Number	Increase (in percentage)	Amount (in yen)	Increase (in percentage)
1875	Issued	115,703	—	2,123,146	—
	Paid	unknown	—	unknown	—
1897	Issued	5,522,282	461.28	50,655,614	228.59
	Paid	5,708,934	—	53,913,402	—
1902	Issued	8,872,471	6.07	88,366,758	7.44
	Paid	9,141,823	6.01	95,624,097	7.74
1907	Issued	13,764,799	5.51	161,451,080	8.27
	Paid	14,819,319	6.21	188,256,859	9.69
1912	Issued	16,623,165	2.08	216,825,773	3.43
	Paid	17,925,194	2.10	240,099,681	2.75
1916	Issued	20,014,404	2.04	279,364,560	2.88
	Paid	21,538,637	2.02	306,299,553	2.76
1921	Issued	27,298,164	3.64	696,274,035	14.92
	Paid	28,892,790	3.41	754,893,817	14.65
1926	Issued	30,400,558	1.14	749,757,291	0.77
	Paid	31,888,323	1.04	797,891,087	0.57
1930	Issued	31,233,521	0.27	673,278,926	—1.02
	Paid	32,820,607	0.29	715,000,527	—1.04
1932	Issued	31,877,079	0.21	654,639,462	—0.28
	Paid	33,674,636	0.26	700,624,150	—0.20
1933	Issued	33,360,209	0.47	683,534,657	0.44
	Paid	35,345,114	0.50	735,961,393	0.50

Telegraph Service

Telegraph service in Japan was started in August, 1869, but this was for Governmental messages exclusively. Public telegraph service was started in September of the same year between Tokyo and Yokohama. Telegrams in European languages were despatched for the first time in April, 1870. In August of the same year Osaka and Kobé began to exchange telegraph messages. In June, 1871 the laying of the submarine cable between Nagasaki and Shanghai was completed. In February, 1873, aerial lines connected Tokyo and Nagasaki and telegraph service for districts along the lines was opened. In January, 1879, Japan entered the international telegraph association. With revisions of rules and laws in subsequent years the business was started on a fair and steady road of progress. Wireless telegraph service was installed in 1908, and telegraphic picture transmission was undertaken from August, 1930.

Statistics on the telegraph services follow:

TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN JAPAN PROPER

Year	Number	Increase in the year
1929-1930	7,011	175
1930-1931	7,681	620
1931-1932	7,709	78
1932-1933	7,813	104
1933-1934	7,942	129

NUMBER OF TELEGRAPH OFFICES, SEPTEMBER 30, 1934

	Japan proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
1st class	4	1	—		3		—
Wireless	3	3	—			24	
2nd class	6	—	—	7			
Wireless Land	18	—	—		—	—	—
Wireless S. S.	20	—	—				

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		Japan proper	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	China	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
Post and telegraph offices		6,158	161	75	718	—	25	9
Minor offices		1,064	22	11	95	—	97	—
Wireless	Land	8	2	—	—	—	43	—
	S. S.	667	8	—	—	—		—
Total		7,948	197	86	820	3	189	9

TELEGRAMS HANDLED IN 1933-1934

		Domestic messages	Foreign messages
Japan Proper (Manchuria included)	Despatched	56,529,921	1,237,198
	Delivered	58,843,016	1,242,847
Taiwan	Despatched	1,505,767	25,705
	Delivered	1,582,689	36,238
Karafuto	Despatched	886,155	493
	Delivered	857,116	1,234
Chosen	Despatched	6,410,601	18,967
	Delivered	6,825,078	25,616
P. O. in China	Despatched	27,023	148,279
	Delivered	31,521	128,871
Kwantung Leased Territory	Despatched	3,081,004	289,790
	Delivered	2,834,127	312,546
South Sea Islands	Despatched	171,315	1,788
	Delivered	151,091	462

NUMBER OF TELEGRAMS HANDLED BY INLAND POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICES

(1929-1934)

		Domestic	Despatch per 10 of population	Foreign	Transit
1929-30	Despatch	63,905,977	10.4	1,294,828	117,898,056
	Arrival	66,507,676		1,336,570	
1930-31	Despatch	57,382,506	9.09	1,183,861	107,287,804
	Arrival	59,925,616		1,224,974	
1931-32	Despatch	55,507,280	8.8	1,193,654	102,771,973
	Arrival	57,784,498		1,224,442	
1932-33	Despatch	54,065,046	8.3	1,254,430	101,297,228
	Arrival	56,281,163		1,243,925	
1933-34	Despatch	56,529,921		1,237,198	—
	Arrival	58,843,016		1,242,847	—

LENGTH OF INLAND TELEGRAPH LINES

March 31, 1934

	Km.	As compared with the previous year
Land lines		
Aerial lines, routes	35,583	— 120
„ lines	234,188	— 891
Overhead cables,		
Routes	86	+ 2
Cores	21,839	+1,537
Underground lines		
Routes	723	+ 16
Cores	97,518	+2,626
Submarine cables		
Lines	15,271	— 15
Cores	18,331	— 26

PNEUMATIC TUBES

1932-1933

	Metre	As compared with the previous year
Length of routes	70,840	+ 349
Length of tubes	142,964	+ 1,609

FREQUENCIES AND HOURS OF FAULTS OF INLAND TELEGRAPH

1932-1933

Land and underground lines		
Contacts	Frequency	4,557
	Hour	22,104
Earth	Frequency	3,305
	Hour	17,021

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Disconnection	Frequency	2,134
	Hour	7,737
Leakage	Frequency	220
	Hour	2,570
Other	Frequency	889
	Hour	1,602
Total	Frequency	11,105
	Hour	51,034
As compared with the previous year	Frequency	+ 128
	Hour	+ 5,987
Per 100 km. of line	Frequency	3
	Hour	15
Submarine Cables		
	Frequency	76
	Hour	194,074
As compared with the previous year	Frequency	— 28
	Hour	— 82,906

TELEGRAPH APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES

1932-1933

Apparatuses	
Telephones for telegraph service	4,299
Ink writers	7
Sounders	5,782
Automatic telegraphs, duplex	161
Undulator and siphon recorders	15
Printing duplex telegraphs, Japanese	49
Printing automatic duplex telegraph, alphabet	4
Double-duplex printing telegraphs	7
Phototelegraphs	2
Telegraph repeaters	152
Automatic time switch	78
Others	124
Total	10,680
Batteries	
Primary	94,200
Secondary	5,952
Total	100,152

RADIOTELEGRAPH APPARATUSES

1932-1933

Spark transmitters	32
Dynamo transmitters	2
Vacuum tube transmitters	107
Long and middle wave receivers	214
Broadcasting receivers	211
Short wave receivers	132
Direction finders	7
Amplifiers	30
Record amplifiers	40
Accessories	680
Batteries	8,562

Wireless Telegraph Service

The study of wireless telegraphy was begun in Japan in 1896, or one year after the invention of wireless telegraphy by Marquis Marconi. In 1903, an experiment was made between Nagasaki and Taiwan by the Communications Department, with satisfactory results.

The First Station In November 1906, Japan sent her delegation to Berlin to represent her at the First World Conference on Wireless Telegraphy. In May, 1908, the first land wireless telegraph station was established in Choshi, (Chiba prefecture), whilst the first marine wireless telegraph equipment was set up on the Toyo Kisen liner "Tenyo Maru" in the same year. In July, 1908 wireless telegraph stations were established at Ohsezaki in Nagasaki prefecture, Shionomisaki in Wakayama prefecture and Tsunojima in Yamaguchi prefecture. In December, 1908, a wireless telegraph station was established at Otchishi in Hokkaido. At the same time sets were installed on some of our ocean liners. Japan was thus placed on a more or less secure foundation in the sphere of wireless telegraphy.

The circulation of regulations for private wireless telegraph offices in October, 1915, greatly facilitated the healthy growth of the business, and the service was extended to wider areas. It was utilized for steamship communication, and contact was also made with steamers and between ships and land stations, and also between aeroplanes and steamers or stations on land. With the enforcement of a law for the establishment of wireless sets on steamers, the number of stations rapidly increased.

International Communication The extension of wireless communication with other countries started in Japan in 1915, when messages were exchanged between Otchishi station and Petropavlovsk of Kamchatka. In 1916, the Funabashi station succeeded in exchanging messages with Hawaii. In 1920, the Iwaki station was established for handling mes-

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sages between Japan and America. In 1925, the Government issued a law establishing the Japan Wireless Telegraph Company with a capital of ¥20,000,000, with a view to becoming absolutely independent of foreign telegraph companies, with whose co-operation Japan had been exchanging wireless messages with all other countries, except America, Russia, and China.

The Government transferred to the Company its Iwaki radio plant and the ground at Yosami and Yokkaichi which it was holding with the intention of erecting radio stations for the services with countries in Europe.

The Company has, according to the Law, to equip and manage the facilities and then rent them to the Ministry of Communications in consideration of a subsidy. Although many improvements were introduced at considerable outlay over all former installations of Iwaki radio plant by the Company, the advent of short-wave methods compelled it to close the stations upon the completion of its new stations at Oyama and Fukuoka.

The Company's circuits now offer from Nagoya direct communication service with England, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Holland, Mexico and Brazil; and from Tokyo the circuits reach out to North and South America, Hawaii, the Philippines, French Indo-China, Siam, Dutch Indies, British India, and Syria. The Company has an extensive plan of development which will in future place Japan in direct touch with all the important countries of the world.

The Company now places the following stations in daily twentyfour hour service:

(a) Transmitting station at Oyama, near Tokyo.

Receiving station at Fukuoka, near Tokyo.

(b) Transmitting station at Yosami, near Nagoya.

Receiving station at Yokkaichi, near Nagoya.

Stations (a) are used for direct communication with San Francisco, Buenos Aires, Honolulu, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok, Bandoeng (Java), Bombay and Beirut (Syria); and, stations (b) for direct communication with London, Pari, Berlin, Rome, Geneva and Warsaw.

Messages originating in or destined to places beyond those mentioned above are retransmitted at those particular points.

Number of telegrams dealt with at wireless telegraph offices in recent five years was as follows:

		Domestic	Foreign
1928–29	Despatch	343,540	48,303
	Arrival	209,044	23,296
1929–30	Despatch	379,297	49,413
	Arrival	282,954	23,160
1930–31	Despatch	376,953	56,687
	Arrival	302,153	25,039
1931–32	Despatch	386,989	53,929
	Arrival	290,559	24,097
1932–33	Despatch	387,366	50,403
	Arrival	262,587	22,444

Telephone Service

According to the latest statistics the number of the telephone exchange offices in Japan proper was 4,786 and that of subscribers 806,515.

The following tables show the development and present scope of the telephone service:

POST TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE OFFICES WHICH HANDLED TELEPHONE IN 1933-1934

	Exchange offices	Other offices
Japan proper	4,786	6,521
Taiwan	112	165
Karafuto	25	48
Chosen	191	726
Kwantung Leased Territory	32	182
South Sea Islands	2	—

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NUMBER OF INLAND TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS

	Total subscribers	Applicants for subscription
1928-29	655,721	195,332
1929-30	690,043	182,217
1930-31	715,020	176,900
1931-32	729,914	172,150
1932-33	761,186	167,276
1933-34	796,538	—
1934 (September)	806,515	159,302

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE SUBSCRIBERS IN THE EMPIRE 1932-1933

Japan proper	Individual subscription	Party line subscription	Extention line subscription	Total
Tokyo Bureau	221,400	6,145	538	228,083
Nagoya Bureau	107,871	1,194	407	109,472
Osaka Bureau	197,462	3,292	1,074	201,827
Hiroshima Bureau	63,149	996	536	64,681
Kumamoto Bureau	66,854	1,124	353	68,331
Sendai Bureau	56,461	824	273	57,558
Sapporo Bureau	30,761	350	73	31,184
Total	743,958	13,925	3,253	761,186
Taiwan				15,500
Karafuto				5,173
Chosen				34,869
Kwantung Leased Territory				21,255
South Sea Islands				327

NUMBER OF INLAND TELEPHONE MESSAGES BETWEEN SUBSCRIBERS

1928-1929	2,730,238,110	1931-1932	3,111,359,022
1929-1930	2,881,123,698	1932-1933	3,206,443,375
1930-1931	2,992,928,336		

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE MESSAGES IN THE EMPIRE 1932-1933

	In the same subscription district			With other district	
	Messages between subscribers	Hours of conversation of office and by public telephone	Requests of call	Hours of conversation	Requests of call
Japan proper	3,206,443,375	35,444,101	38,537	190,635,368	1,929,068
Taiwan	77,639,368	89,161	546	2,472,413	48,880
Karafuto	24,328,144	26,322	—	543,838	22,977
Chosen	206,445,318	63,568	168	3,128,185	276,955
Kwantung Leased Territory	295,106,438	166,297	4,316	1,540,268	26,688
South Sea Islands	2,255,542	22	—	—	—

FREQUENCIES OF FAULTS OF URBAN TELEPHONES IN JAPAN PROPER 1932-1933

		As compared with the previous year
Faults in exchange offices	492,682	— 55,023
,, subscribers	538,949	+ 7,941
,, on routes	276,379	— 26,395
Total	1,307,960	— 73,478
Faults per 1 subscriber	1.7	— .7

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LENGTH OF TELEPHONE LINES IN THE EMPIRE 1933-34

	Japan proper Km.	As compared with the previous year	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
Land lines							
Aeriel lines, routes	57,515	+ 3,000	3,930	236	9,307	2,412	20
,, linee	588,378	— 4,516	26,045	4,680	57,310	31,966	83
Overhead cables, routes	5,165	+ 1,158	157	31	17	314	3
,, cores	1,658,552	+148,371	18,060	5,198	89,072	59,851	375
Underground lines							
Routes	3,370	+ 255	22	4	43	22	—
Cores	3,791,777	+239,470	35,417	3,353	55,662	44,941	—
Submarine cables							
Lines	968	+ 851	—	—	—	—	—
Cores	7,279	+ 3,380	—	—	—	—	—

Figures of Taiwan, Karafuto, Chosen, Kwantung Leased Territory and South Sea Islands are of 1932-33.

NUMBER OF TELEPHONE APPARATUSES AND BATTERIES IN THE EMPIRE 1932-1933

	Japan proper	As compared with the previous year	Taiwan	Karafuto	Chosen	Kwantung Leased Territory	South Sea Islands
Manual telephone exchanges	11,949	+ 761	254	1	—	198	1
Automatic telephone exchanges	2,274	+ 94	1	85	841	197	2
Telephones	860,934	+42,854	17,620	5,658	43,648	24,695	354
Batteries	876,826	— 2,709	24,516	5,999	71,446	17,171	470

Wireless Telephone Service

The first experiment with wireless telephony in Japan was made in 1911 by the Communications Department, with very satisfactory results. It was in 1923, however, that the service was opened for public use between Kobé city and steamers in the harbour. In 1926, this service was extended to Moji. The result being satisfactory, the Government decided further to extend the service and in December, 1932, the International Telephone Company, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, was established through the solicitation of the Communications Ministry to build up stations for the use of the Government and private bodies. This was done to facilitate wireless telephone service between Japan and the world at large, Japan's colonies and ships on the waters. The transmitting station of the company is established at Nazaki, Ibaraki prefecture, and the receiving station at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, and these stations are connected each other and with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office by cables. Wireless telephones are now available between Tokyo, Nagoya, Kanazawa, Kobé, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Toyohashi, Nara, Himéji, Shimonoséki, Fukui, Fukuoka, Yawata, Wakamatsu, Nishinomiya, Amagasaki and Suma. The service has been opened between Formosa and Tokyo, on June 20, 1934.

In 1934-35 international wireless telephone service has been successively opened between Japan and Manchoukuo, U. S. A., a part of Canada, Cuba, Philippines, Java,

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Smatra, England, and Germany. The service with other European countries will be opened soon.

Telephotograph Service This service is only available between Tokyo, Osaka and Formosa.

Radio

Radio broadcasting in Japan is under the control of a single organization, the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan, which in turn is supervised by the Ministry of Communications. Programmes are subjected to strict censorship and nothing that might harm the interests of the country and its people is allowed to go on the air. Advertising of all sorts is prohibited. Political speeches cannot be included in the daily programmes. Even election campaign speeches and Diet proceedings cannot be broadcasted. (See Chapter XXXVII.)

The First Programme The first radio programme in Japan went on the air on March 22, 1925, five years after the world's first regular commercial broadcasting by the station KDKA, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The station, using the call letters JOAK, was in Tokyo, and it had a power of only 500 watts. This station, established temporarily at Shibaura, on the water front of Tokyo Harbour, was replaced in July by a 1 kw. station at Atagoyama, a hill in the southern part of Tokyo. In the difficult times following the great earthquake and fire of September, 1923, which laid waste a greater part of Tokyo, the radio played an important part in comforting and encouraging the citizens who were working hard to rebuild their city and their homes.

Shortly afterwards, small stations were established in Osaka and Nagoya, which form with Tokyo the three largest population centres. The engineers in charge of these stations were sceptical about their success. There was no assurance that the Japanese public would respond by buying radio sets and listening in, or would like the programmes once they were heard. These fears, however, were groundless. For a time there were not enough receiving sets in the stores to meet the demand. Instead of a novelty, the radio became a daily necessity. Elated at their success, the promoters worked out a plan to centralize all the broadcasting in the country, which was heartily approved by the Ministry of Communications. Before the end of a year, the stations in Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya were merged, and the Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was formed to assure nationwide cooperation in meeting the demand for more efficient stations and better programmes.

The Subscribers The association started with 338,000 subscribers; on March 30, 1935, it has 1,979,096 or 30.6 in 1,000 of population. The present fee is ¥0.50 for each receiving set.

The Stations The development so far made has been in two directions, an increase in the number of stations and improvement in programmes. In the beginning there were three stations. Now there are 25, and several more are to be added. As the association was meant to be nationwide, every section of Japan had to be considered. The directors called in the engineers and explained the problem. Broadcasting had to be available in any home anywhere in the country. The engineers pointed out that the geographical formation

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of Japan, which stretches more than 3,380 kilometres from Hokkaido to Taiwan, broken by rugged mountains, made it advisable to broadcast from a number of stations suitably located. The country was divided into seven districts, in each of which a 10-kw. station has been built. These—in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Hiroshima, Kumamoto, Sendai and Sapporo—are the key stations. The remaining 18 are relay stations, ranging in power from 300 watts to 3 kilowatts. Their purpose is to bring the programmes of the seven key stations closer to the listeners, saving them the expense of powerful receiving sets. For double broadcasting, the power of the Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya stations was increased to 20 kilowatts.

International Broadcasting In 1930 Japan was able to undertake international broadcasting for the first time. The message of King George at the opening of the Naval Conference in London was clearly heard.

News was broadcasted from the League of Nations at Geneva on February 21, 1933, the opening speeches at the World Economic Conference was sent from London on June 12, and the reports by the Japanese delegates on July 24. The first international broadcasting between Germany and Japan was undertaken on November 15, and again on December 19. For the celebration of the birth of the Crown Prince of Japan international broadcasting was exchanged between Tokyo, Osaka, Geneva, New York and Berlin in December and on January 4, 1934. In 1934, 31 international broadcasts were exchanged between Japan and different countries of the world.

Overseas Broadcast The Overseas Short-wave Broadcast has been fixed as follows: for Europe and the Pacific Ocean 2:00-3:00 P. M.; for American continents and the Atlantic Ocean 6:00-7:00 A. M. on Tuesdays and Fridays.

These broadcasts will be sent out from the Nasaki Transmitting Station of the Japan International Telephone Company.

Location :—Nasaki, Ibaraki Prefecture, Japan. Position, Latitude 36° 10′ 44″ North : Longitude 139° 51′ East.

Transmitter—20 kw.

Wave length and Frequency :—JVH 20.55 metres 14,600 kilocycles.

Any change in wave length and frequency will be announced during the course of the regular daily broadcast.

Daily broadcast programme will be as follows :

Opening announcement and résume of the day's programme	10 minutes
News in English	10 minutes
Music entertainment, lectures, broadcasts from the scene of actual happenings or from the leading theatres and centres of amusement	30 minutes
News in Japanese	10 minutes
Resume of the following day's programme and concluding announcement	4 minutes
National Anthem	3 minutes

These make up the full one hour programme on the Overseas Broadcast.

In the near future the Tokyo station is to be increased to a power of 150 kilowatts and other stations to 100 kilowatts.

The extension programme also includes the construction of a large building for each of the studios in Tokyo and Osaka, which will incorporate the latest type of broadcasting equipment. These two cities will thus continue to be the broadcasting centres of the Empire.

The B. C. J. The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan was organized on August 20, 1925. The organization, being a public service corporation with no desire for profit, obtained a special charter with right to control and operate the whole broadcasting

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service in Japan and to undertake any scheme for the promotion of radio science, although all work is subject to the supervision of the Ministry of Communications. The corporation is headed by Mr. Kenzo Iwahara, former chairman of the Board of Directors of the Tokyo Broadcasting Station.

Business conditions of the corporation in 1931-1933 were as follows :

SUBSCRIBERS

(Japan Proper)

At the end of	Number of subscribers	Increase over the previous year	Percentage of the increase
1931	948,822	214,087	29
1932	1,320,143	371,321	39
1933	1,627,836	307,693	23
1934	1,897,398	269,562	16

BALANCE SHEET

March 31, 1934

Assets

Land	¥2,205,409.42
Bulding	1,696,904.95
Equipments	2,570,270.86
Loan	750,000.00
Securities	875,000.00
Sundry debtors	34,634.44
Suspense accounts	277,498.02
Cash on hand	3,117,311.18
Total	11,027,028.87

Liabilities

Capital account	¥ 1,390,200.00
Sundry creditors	69,386.83
Physical plant funds	6,597,846.08
Balance available for the year	2,969,596.46
Total	11,027,028.87

1933-34 ACCOUNT

Income

Subscription fees	¥13,378,286.60
Revenue from publications and sundry receipts	102,896.76
Total	13,481,183.36

Expenditure

Expenditure on programmes	¥2,304,006.70
Expenditure on engineering	1,270,0802.7
Expenditure on publicity	300,816.70
,, ,, service	425,540.53
,, ,, collection of fees	2,175,402.15
Administration expenses	1,268,437.35
Expenditure on research	42,243.63
Licence and contribution paid to the Government	1,336,941.19
Provision to staff's retiring allowance	214,000.00
Depreciation of physical plant	957,630.42
Sundry expenditure	226,487.96
Balance available for the year	2,969,596.46
Total	13,481,183.36

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CHAPTER XXV

LAND AND AIR TRANSPORTATION

State Railways

Historical Background

Japan's railway projects date from 1869, when the Government formed a plan to lay a trunk line linking Tokyo with Kyoto and Kobé, together with some branches to Yokohama and Tsuruga, a port on the Japan Sea. As the first step, half a million yen was sanctioned for the work between Tokyo (Shimbashi) and Yokohama, but the State Treasury was in no position to find this amount, while private capital declined to venture into this novel field of investment. It was at this time that an Englishman, Horatio Nelson Lay, by name, came forward with a proposal to furnish the required funds. The terms offered by him were accepted and a Japanese loan for one million sterling was placed on the London market. With the arrival of a British engineering corps and materials, the first sod was dug on the 28.962 kilometre Shimbashi-Yokohama section in March, 1870, and on the 32.18 kilometre Kobé-Osaka section in November, 1870. The gauge adopted for these lines was one of 1.067 metres, which has later become the standard gauge of the Japanese railways.

Tokyo-Yokohama and Other Lines The work between Shimbashi and Yokohama was completed in September, 1872, while the Kobé-Osaka line was opend to traffic in 1874 and its further extension to Kyoto in 1877. These sections have practically formed the nucleus of what now constitutes the Tokaido Line, one of the main arteries of railway traffic in Japan. In 1880, the Kyoto-Otsu section was completed and in 1884 a further extension with a length of 41.834 kilometres between Tsuruga and Nagahama, a town along Lake Biwa, was completed and opened to traffic in pursuance of the railway idea of linking up the Pacific and the Japan Sea. Meanwhile, a survey was made on the Otaru-Horonai section in Hokkaido, where colonization work was being strenuously encouraged. Construction of this section was soon undertaken and the 88.495 kilometre length was opened to business in 1882, thus bringing the total length of railway under Government ownership toward the close of 1884 to 185.035 kilometres.

Private Lines About this time the Government was in financial difficulties and the building of State railways practically came to a standstill except for a few extensions. It was at this time that, not being in a position to undertake the work itself, the Government began to encourage private enterprise, the encouragement mostly being in the shape of subsidies. Under these circumstances, many private railways were built in rapid succession, the most notable among them being the Nippon Railway, the Sanyo Railway, the Kyushu Railway and the Hokkaido Colliery Railway. The total length of line thus built by private capital in the ten years between 1881 and 1891 aggregated 1,874.485 kilometres, a length more

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than double that of the State which did not exceed 886.559 kilometres by the end of 1891.

The Trunk Line Prior to this, the Government decided to lay a trunk line through the Nakasendo, the old mountainous highway of Central Japan, but in view of engineering difficulties along this line it was subsequently abandoned in favour of the level region of the Tokaido. Work on the new route was finished in July, 1889, whereby a through service was opened for a distance of 611.42 kilometres between Tokyo and Kobé. Then a branch to Yokosuka was opened and a 160.9 kilometres section between Takasaki and Naoétsu was completed with the exception of 9.654 kilometres over the Usui Pass. This difficult section, for which the Abt rack rail system was adopted, was not opened for service until 1893.

The Railway Construction Law In view of the industrial progress being made in the country there was an urgent demand for the speedy construction of more railways. The entire length of Japanese railways at that time amounted to only 2,574.4 kilometres and as many as 5,792.4 kilometres were needed to complete the railway network over the whole country. The bulk of these contemplated lines was in remote districts with no prospect of immediate profit, and on that account did not appeal to private enterprise. These circumstances showed both the Government and the public the advisability of State acquisition of private lines and opinion was further strengthened by the financial failure of some of the private concerns. In view of this, in 1892, the Railway Construction Law was passed and the Government set to work constructing important lines. The law embodied a comprehensive programme of railway building and contained the guiding principles on which the railway system of Japan was founded. At the same time the matter of consolidating the different lines into one complete system was being studied by a committee of enquiry appointed by the Government. The acquisition of private railways was accomplished in October, 1907, the subsidiary businesses being taken over at the same time. Immediately after nationalization the State Railways were organized under a Railway Bureau, which was directly responsible to the Cabinet. But in May, 1920, a separate Department of State was created to deal with railway affairs and the Minister of Railways was appointed to control it.

Railway Network

The law of 1892 authorized the Government to build certain specified lines within a certan limit of time, and also to buy up such private railways as were judged necessary for the completion of a unified system. Pursuant to this programme the State Railways proceeded with the work of construction and in 1906 and 1907 purchased 17 companies' lines to a total length of 4,547.034 kilometres, thereby bringing under national control all the railway lines in Japan proper, with the exception of feeding lines of local importance. In 1922 after a careful survey of the State lines the Railway Construction Law was modified and some new lines were added to the original programme. At the same time it was decided that, pursuant to the new law, such local lines as formed a connecting link between the State lines projected or those lines considered necessary for completing a unified national railway system be purchased.

The total length of State lines not yet opened to business on March 31,

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1933, was 3,690 kilometres representing 1,098 kilometres of lines under construction and 2,592 kilometres of lines sanctioned, but not started on within the year. As compared with the preceding year the lines under construction increased by 375 kilometres and those to be started on increased by 102 kilometres.

Organization and Staff

Prior to the nationalization of the private lines, the State lines were operated on a departmental system based on the principle of centralization. The system worked well because the management of the State lines was a relatively small business, but when the Government assumed the management of all lines it was found unequal to the extra work, and in December, 1908, the Imperial Government Railways were removed from the control of the Minister of Communications and assigned to a newly created administrative body, the Railway Board. The administration was then decentralized and remains so to-day. The existing system of organization of the State Railways was established in May, 1920, when the said Railway Board was made, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 143, an independent department of the Central Government. According to the regulations, the Department of Railways not only controls the whole of the State lines, but supervises the provincial railways and tramways in Japan proper. It maintains one central and six regional offices. The Central Office is directly governed by the Minister of Railways and manages all matters relating to the State Railways as well as maintaining supervision over provincial railways and tramways. It is composed of eight departments according to the kinds of business dealt with. These are the Minister's Secretariat; Bureau of Local Railway Administration; Bureau of Traffic and Operation; Bureau of Construction; Bureau of Maintenance and Improvement; Bureau of Mechanical Engineering; Bureau of Electricity; and Bureau of Finance and Purchase. The Central Office also controls Regions, District Construction, District Improvement, District Electric Offices and Tokyo Railway Hospital. On April 23, 1930, by virtue of Imperial Ordinance No. 83, a further bureau, the Board of Tourist Industry was created as a separate bureau of the Department of Railways. The bureau is controlled by the Minister of Railways and attends to the business of the tourist industry, its object being to encourage people of other lands, by advertising and in other ways, to visit Japan and see her incomparable scenic beauty, natural charm and national manners and customs, and to encourage Japanese living at home to take trips to different parts of the Empire.

As stated above, the administration of the State Railways is decentralized into six regions, Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, Moji, Sendai and Sapporo. Each region is a complete unit and is in charge of a director who is vested with power to conduct, at his own discretion, all affairs relative to his jurisdiction, excepting matters of general and large import for which decision of the central administration has to be obtained.

On the State Railways of Japan the members of the staff are either Government officials or employees. On March 31, 1933, there were altogether 198,848 servants in the employment of the State Railways as against 198,678 in the preceding year. The total salary for the year under review was ¥136,735,245. This shows an increase of ¥2,446,023 (1.8%) from the year before. The average annual salary was ¥688.

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Finance By Railway Special Account Law, enforced since 1909, the budget of the State Railways was made separate of the general finances of the State. Furthermore, the law provides that all capital expenditure for railway construction and improvement should be met from the revenue accruing from all sources of traffic and that the expenditure should, in case the revenue is not sufficient to cover it, be supplemented by the proceeds of public loans issued as a charge on this special account.

Traffic

Goods and passengers carried by the State Railways in Japan proper since 1914-15 follow:

Fiscal years	Goods	Passengers	Goods revenues	Passenger revenues	Daily average revenue per km.
	metric tons	(unit in 1,000)	(¥1,000)	(¥1,000)	(In yen)
1914-15	35,337,241	166,092	51,750	54,671	88
1919-20	60,899,557	357,881	131,809	161,546	81
1921-22	58,312,333	454,535	167,241	214,519	99
1922-23	65,095,702	512,754	179,220	232,801	103
1923-24	65,818,955	579,288	178,109	249,563	102
1924-25	71,178,263	640,828	194,563	259,047	105
1925-26	73,090,274	683,563	198,786	262,074	103
1926-27	74,780,409	740,333	201,609	266,199	101
1927-28	78,621,788	795,722	211,749	271,523	101
1928-29	79,762,959	847,300	220,686	285,337	103
1929-30	77,224,824	862,939	217,949	279,030	99
1930-31	64,087,099	824,152	184,146	255,086	84
1931-32	60,590,746	787,222	176,124	239,972	77
1932-33	61,732,756	781,149	174,706	233,387	75
1933-34	69,402,000	830,936	191,044	252,144	—

Note: 1933-34 figures are liable to future revision.

Activities of the heavy industries and the expansion of trade were reflected on the railway traffic business, as both the passenger fares and freight receipts went up sharply from the year before. The passenger fares for the year 1933-34 amounted to ¥252,144,000, showing a gain of ¥18,757,000, and freight receipts totalled ¥191,044,000, representing a gain of ¥16,338,000 over the preceding fiscal year.

Motor Car Service The Department of Railways inaugurated a motor car passenger service between Okazaki and Tajimi and between Seto-Kinembashi and Kozoji for a distance of 65 kilometres in the business sphere of the Nagoya Regioned Office during the 1930-31 fiscal year. This was the first venture of the kind, and as the results proved satisfactory the Department opened similar services between Mitajiri and Yamaguchi over a distance of 17 kilometres in the business sphere of the Moji Regional Office and between Kameyama and Mikumo and between Omi and Kurokawa over a total distance of 42 kilometres in the business sphere of the Osaka Regional Office during the 1932-33 fiscal year. Motor car passengers carried during the 1933-34 fiscal year numbered 2,682,764 and motor car goods carried totalled 25,770 metric tons. The passenger fares amounted to ¥496,141 and freight receipts ¥41,269, with a total of ¥537,410. Details are:

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MOTOR CAR FREIGHT SERVICE

Regional offices	Goods carried	Average daily goods	Freight receipts	Daily average ton receipts
	(metric tons)			
Tokyo	2,127	6	¥8,892	¥9
Nagoya	11,611	32	19,573	54
Osaka	5,257	14	7,595	21
Moji	6,775	19	10,709	29
Total	25,770	71	41,269	113
Compared with the year before	(in.) 16,218	(in.) 45	(in.) 24,196	(in.) 66

MOTOR CAR PASSENGER SERVICE

Regional offices	Passengers carried	Daily passengers	Passenger fares	Daily fares
Tokyo	473,969	1,298	¥73,982	¥202
Nagoya	1,422,262	3,897	236,457	648
Osaka	417,670	1,144	75,531	207
Moji	368,863	1,011	110,171	302
Total	2,682,764	7,350	496,141	1,359
Compared with the year before	(in.) 1,472,333	(in.) 4,034	(in.) 259,925	(in.) 712

Ferry Service Ferry boats working under the Department of Railways carried for the year under review 6,757,058 passengers for which the total fares of ¥4,922,154 were received. Goods transported amounted to 2,509,512 metric tons, and the total freight receipts were ¥5,263,032. As compared with the year before, passengers decreased 122,911 and the fares gained by ¥739,262; goods gained by 221,114 tons and the receipts gained by ¥539,162. Details follow:

Regional offices	Passengers		Goods	
	Number	Fares	Tons	Freights
Osaka	731,701	¥289,734	115,231	¥192,637
Moji	5,231,782	3,188,016	1,534,734	1,912,914
Sapporo	793,574	1,514,404	859,547	3,157,481
Total	6,757,058	4,992,154	2,509,512	5,263,032
Compared with the year before	(de.) 122,911	(in.) 739,262	(in.) 221,114	(in.) 539,162

Accidents The number of accidents reported on the State Railways for the year was 5,009, and the casualties numbered 2,918. This shows a gain of 174 casualties over the year before. The railway suicides numbered 2,260, a drop of 327 from the year before. The Department of Railways' shipping accidents totalled 383, a drop of 55 from the year before.

Construction

Railway construction expenses for the 1932-33 fiscal year totalled ¥47,743,368 in contrast with ¥37,706,907 for the 1931-32 year and ¥41,715,774 for the 1930-1931 year. The same for 1933-34 amounted to ¥53,130,133. In 1933-34 the total length of new lines under construction was 1,188.4 kilometres.

Total Length

The total business length of the State Railways for the 1933-34 fiscal year was 15,737 kilometres and the total length of line 25,612 kilometres, showing an increase of 470 kilometres, showing an increase of 470 kilometres in the former and 619 kilometres in the latter. Details are:

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Regional offices	Business mileage	Total length of rails
Tokyo	1,983 (In kms.)	4,514
Nagoya	1,901	3,255
Osaka	2,957	4,906
Moji	2,757	4,450
Sendai	3,092	4,252
Sapporo	3,044	4,232
Total	15,734	25,612
Compared with the year before	(in.) 476	(in.) 619

Workshops

The number of factory operatives of the Department of Railways at the end of 1932-33 fiscal year was 14,188, to whom the monthly salary of ¥904,027 was paid. The factory production for the year totalled ¥35,965,491, showing a drop of ¥954,821 from the year before. Of this production ¥21,501,139 was for the repairing of rolling stock; ¥2,925,481 for the improvement of rolling stock, ¥1,245,872 for the manufacturing of rolling stock, and ¥10,283,999 for the manufacturing and repairing of railway stores.

Rolling Stock

The total value of rolling stock was ¥642,463,151, representing an increase of ¥8,901,079 from the year before. The amount of rolling stock owned by the State Railways on March 31, 1933, was 3,953 steam locomotives weighing 329,767 tons; 131 electric locomotives weighing 9,272 tons; and 10 special locomotives weighing 210 tons, with the total of 4,094 weighing 339,250 tons, showing an increase of 78 cars and 4,482 tons from the year before.

On the same date, the number of passenger cars was 10,418 with accommodating capacity for 651,389 people showing a drop of 342 cars and capacity of 2,817 from the year before. The number of freight cars was 64,923 with carrying capacity of 864,737 tons, indicating a drop of 215 cars and 4,208 tons from the year before.

On March 31, 1934 there were 3,913 steam locomotives, 141 electric locomotives, and 10, special locomotives with the total of 4,064 weighing 335,233 tons, a decrease of 30 in number and 4,018 in tonnage as compared with the previous year. The number of passenger cars was 10,629 with accommodating capacity for 672,782 people, an increase of 211 cars and 26,393 seats as compared with the preceding year. The number of freight cars was 65,804 with carrying capacity of 873,998 tons, an increase of 881 cars and 9,261 tons as compared with 1933.

Electric Power

The State Railways had four stations, 31 sub-stations and 13 transforming stations on March 31, 1933. The status of these electric stations on March 31, 1933 and 1934 follows:

	Dynamos		Prime motors and converters		Transformers	
	No.	Volume h.p.	No.	Volume kw.	No.	Volume k.v.a.
1933	12	122,244	138	305,653	402	667,944
1934	10	121,944	136	308,653	443	668,694

Electric power supplied by the State Railways' electric power stations for 1932-33 amounted to 139,197,271 kw. h. for which ¥1,300,223 were required. The net expenses per kw. h. was a little more than 9 rin (¥0.009). As compared with the year before, the supply dropped 107,938,492 kw. h. and expenses also ¥639,822, but the kw. h. expense increased 1.32 sen. Power supplied to the sub-stations for the year totalled 287,959,540 kw. h. with expenses of ¥4,564,114. The kw. h. expense was 1.6 sen. As compared with the year before, the power sup-

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ply gained 23,694,608 kw. h., and expenses increased ¥194,507. The kw. h. expense declined 0. 7 rin.

Finance

The State Railway revenue for the 1933-34 fiscal year totalled ¥870,165,166 against ¥761,894,098 for the 1932-33 fiscal year, while expenditures totalled ¥770,366,710. Revenue and expenditures since the 1926-27 fiscal year follow:

Fiscal years	Revenue (in yen)	Expenditures
1926-27	947,386,218	825,612,827
1927-28	1,006,458,791	859,806,853
1928-29	1,014,752,892	876,675,990
1929-30	1,004,911,356	892,160,458
1930-31	813,010,038	740,039,289
1931-32	767,657,721	678,774,890
1932-33	761,894,098	691,012,532
1933-34	870,165,166	770,366,710

Fixed assets of the State Railways for the last eight years follow:

Fiscal years	Value at the beginning of the year (In ¥1,000)	Value at the end of the year
1926-27	2,453,092	2,647,453
1927-28	2,647,453	2,858,794
1928-29	2,858,794	3,062,614
1929-30	3,062,614	3,246,724
1930-31	3,246,724	3,374,392
1931-32	3,347,392	3,413,786
1932-33	3,413,786	3,503,893
1933-34	3,503,893	3,613,169

BUSINESS INCOME AND EXPENSES
(In ¥1,000)

Fiscal years	Income	Expenses	Net profit
1926-27	484,082	353,175	130,907
1927-28	506,444	368,277	138,167
1928-29	529,256	393,380	135,875
1929-30	518,016	399,026	118,989
1930-31	458,140	382,552	75,587
1931-32	433,540	365,088	68,451
1932-33	425,954	364,874	61,079
1933-34	474,254	385,578	88,675

Private Railways

General The status of provincial railways in operation and those not yet opened on March 31, 1934, follows:

	No.	Length (kilometres)	Construction cost (in yen)
Railways in operation	265	7,183	1,002,724,369 (estimate)
Compared with the year before	(de.) 3	(de.) 59	969,582,057 (1933 actual)
Railways not opened yet	179	3,493	774,682,515 (estimate)
Compared with the year before	(de.) 4	(de.) 252	(de.) 26,274,415

Traffic Looking over the private railway passenger traffic for 1932-33, passengers carried numbered 427,668,098 (an increase of 6,942,997 over the preceding fiscal year), for which the total fares of ¥55,430,020 (a decrease of ¥1,567,766 from the year before) was realized. The average fare per passenger was, for the year ¥0.129. Goods transported by the private railways totalled 22,212,514 tons (a drop of 552,540 tons from the preceding year), for which freight of ¥17,845,070 (a drop of ¥93,910) was realized. The freight receipts per ton were ¥0.803. Railway accidents for the year numbered 1,844 and the number of casualties 937.

Rolling Stock The number of rolling stock on March 31, 1933, was 994, of which steam locomotives numbered 809, electric locomotives 179 and gasolene locomotives 6, with the total weight of 26,117 tons, showing a decrease of 3 cars and 42 tons. The number of passenger cars was 4,478 with a seating capacity of 307,070, while that of freight cars was 11,558 with total loading capacity of 113,185 tons.

Finance Business income and expenses for the private railways for 1932-33 follow:

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	Total (in yen)	Compared with 1932-33 fiscal year (in yen)
Business income:		
Passengers	57,055,467	(de.) 1,739,048
Goods	17,896,879	(de.) 78,253
Miscellaneous traffic income	1,904,665	(in.) 79,779
Other income	4,879,192	(in.) 527,402
Total	81,736,203	(de.) 1,210,120
Business expenses:		
Maintenance	7,912,647	(de.) 80,884
Train	17,706,309	(de.) 564,535
Traffic	13,622,101	(de.) 38,131
General expenses	5,214,914	(in.) 332,618
Tax	2,947,696	(de.) 129,335
Total	47,403,667	(de.) 354,005
Business profit	34,332,536	(de.) 856,115
Other ,,	24,009,786	(de.) 1,667,885
Interest payment, etc.	38,499,025	(in.) 5,544,387
Government subsidies	7,168,846	(in.) 7,168,846
Balance brought forward from the preceding year	4,766,894	(de.) 3,623,289

Profit disposed of as follows:

	(in yen)		(in yen)
Legal reserve	1,6 0,634	(de.)	251,960
Voluntary reserve	2,597,572	(de.)	565,161
Bonuses	901,351	(de.)	129,292
Dividends	26,342,075	(de.)	4,171,730
Others	2,148,453	(in.)	139,017
Brought forward	8,102,192	(de.)	6,536,875

Business income per kilometre per day was ¥31,170 (a drop of ¥1,138 from the year before) and the business expenses per kilometre per day was ¥18,077 (a drop of ¥0.525 from the year before), the net profit being ¥13,093 (a drop of ¥0.613).

Assets and Liabilities The assets and liabilities of the private railways at the end of 1932-1933 fiscal years follow:

ASSETS

Items	1932-33 fiscal year (in yen)	Compared with the year before (in yen)
Unpaid capital	366,989,733	(in.) 5,027,752
Construction expenses for lines in operation	969,582,067	(in.) 24,063,759
Estimated construction expenses for lines yet unopened	21,483,830	(in.) 3,461,257
Other development expenses	445,535,646	(in.) 20,755,389
Deposits	21,391,137	(de.) 78,470
Securities	87,027,577	(in.) 3,911,695
Others and total	2,104,840,840	(in.) 67,442,256

LIABILITIES

Capital	1,218,613,426	(in.)	54,788,853
Legal reserve	28,554,989	(in.)	1,986,014
Debentures	320,224,871	(de.)	2,871,839
Loans through mortgage syndicates	126,184,302	(in.)	28,715,782
Other loans	187,200,102	(de.)	2,814,963
Bills payable	124,216,893	(de.)	16,449,532
Suspense account	15,295,621	(de.)	3,376,011
Profit for the term	19,683,559	(de.)	1,140,389
Others and total	2,104,840,840	(in.)	67,442,256

Employees The private railway employees numbered 41,572, in 1932-33, to whom monthly salaries of ¥1,721,251 were paid, showing a drop of 760 employees and ¥45,466 a month from the year before. The average salary for one man was ¥52 a month and remained the same as the year before.

Tramcar Service

Lines in Operation Details of the tramcar lines in operation on March 31, 1934, were:

Kinds	No. of lines	Length in kilometres	Capitalization
Electric	94	2,092.75	¥2,058,822,376
Steam	8	127.67	1,861,000
Steam & gasolene	9	101.23	3,795,000
Gasolene	14	136.71	23,257,000

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Kinds	No. of lines	Length in kilometres	Capitalization
Horse-power	14	137.45	7,425,000
Man-power	7	56.62	210,663
Total	141	2,652.43	2,095,371,089
Compared with the year before	(de.) 3	(de.) 9.33	(de.) 61,882,400

Passenger Traffic Length of operation of passenger cars for 1932-33 totalled 346,814,853 kilometres, a drop of 2,498,918 kilometres from the year before, and that of operation of freight cars totalled 7,184,951 kilometres, a drop of 233,925 kilometres from the year before. The passenger traffic for 1933 follows:

Kinds	Passengers carried	Passenger fares	Average fare of one passenger
Electric	1,462,680,063	¥98,684,998	¥0.067
Steam	1,295,780	172,847	0.133
Gasolene	2,494,325	258,948	0.104
Horse-power	2,021,507	23,754	0.117
Man-power	1,656	219	0.132
Total	1,466,674,331	99,141,266	0.068
Compared with the year before	(de.) 99,801,558	(de.) 6,616,015	—

Freight Traffic The freight traffic for the year follows:

Kinds	Goods carried (in metric ton)	Freight receipts	Average receipt per metric ton
Electric	902,507	¥ 674,652	¥ 0.748
Steam	99,804	181,816	1.821
Gasolene	183,833	314,205	1.709
Horse-power	76,956	63,136	0.820
Man-power	93,821	68,180	0.727
Total	1,356,921	1,251,969	0.923
Compared with the year before	(de.) 126,944	(de.) 116,127	(in.) 0.001

Business Profit The business profit for 1932-33 totalled ¥41,541,733, the total business revenue being ¥109,669,986 and business expenditure ¥68,128,253. As compared with the year before, the business profit went off ¥3,105,303, or 7.5 per cent., the business revenue ¥6,210,792, or 5.7 per cent., and the business expenditure ¥3,104,989, or 4.6 per cent. Details follow:

Kinds	Business revenue (in yen)	Business expenditure (in yen)
Electric	108,548,051	67,066,647
Steam	335,570	282,558
Gasolene	608,436	611,092
Horse-power	107,792	102,676
Man-power	72,137	65,280
Total	109,669,986	68,128,253
Compared with the year before	(de.) 6,210,792	(de.) 3,104,989

Business profit was ¥41,541,733 (a drop of ¥3,105,803 from the year before), other profit ¥85,930,622 (a drop of ¥51,133,680), interest payment ¥24,853,608 (a gain of ¥3,557,784), other losses ¥9,111,339 (a drop of ¥3,533,063), net profit ¥93,507,410 (a drop of ¥25,330,330) and balance brought forward from the year before ¥38,245,503 (a gain of ¥962,262). The disposal of profit follows:

Legal reserve	¥ 4,125,540 (a drop of ¥1,326,780)
Voluntary ,,	4,665,743 (a drop of ¥ 679,384)
Bonuses	1,862,262 (a drop of ¥ 476,968)
Others	36,172,273 (a drop of ¥1,668,372)
Balance carried forward	22,184,956 (a drop of ¥2,214,577)

Assets and Liabilities Assets and liabilities at the end of the fiscal year follow:

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ASSETS

Items	End of 1932-33 fiscal year (in yen)	Compared with the year before (in yen)
Unpaid capital	340,888,854	-(de.) 48,088,508
Construction expenses for lines in operation	781,648,493	(in.) 16,997,103
Construction expenses for lines not yet opened	13,586,523	(in.) 11,625,530
Other development expenses	2,236,414,979	(in.) 51,689,160
Stores	19,340,490	(de.) 11,472,211
Provisional payments	134,252,867	(in.) 5,010,893
Suspense account	40,729,327	(de.) 16,816,829
Deposits	52,650,913	(de.) 21,158,388
Securities	196,745,871	(de.) 19,483,339
Cash	9,518,023	(in.) 191,947
Loss for the term	1,942,111	(in.) 1,163,495
Others	220,012,720	(in.) 28,688,135
Total	4,068,282,998	(de.) 58,529,282

LIABILITIES

Items	End of 1932-33 fiscal year (in yen)	Compared with the year before (in yen)
Capital	2,270,234,409	(de.) 67,256,682
Special funds	5,712,203	(de.) 215,887
Legal reserve	79,105,585	(de.) 6,916,614
Voluntary „	43,479,155	(de.) 7,915,598
Debentures	993,429,193	(in.) 9,778,601
Loans through mortgage syndicates	32,733,137	(in.) 14,143,169
Other loans	274,267,539	(de.) 18,056,532
Bills payable	111,541,225	(in.) 17,076,676
Money unpaid	46,899,794	(de.) 10,620,524
Suspense accounts	49,283,555	(in.) 4,547,759
Net profit for the term	43,863,136	(de.) 6,873,186
Others and total	4,068,282,998	(de.) 58,529,252

1934 Railway Business

State Railways The Imperial Government Railways carried 52,373,000 more passengers, loaded 6,918,680 tons more goods and earned ¥41,294,000 more in 1934 (calendar year) than they had in the previous year. Both the State and private lines had the best results in five years. The Government lines' profits tell just below those for the two-depression years of 1928 and 1929, when takings were respectively ¥506,023,000 and ¥496,979,000. State railway goods, as usual, were dominated by coal, with lumber, rice, gravel, fertilizers, charcoal, cement, iron, steel and petroleum following in that order.

December was the busiest month for hauling goods and April saw most passengers and reported the biggest monthly profit. Principal goods transported by the State Railways during 1933 and 1934 follows:

Goods	1934	1933
	(In metric tons)	
Coal	26,901,240	24,862,410
Lumber	6,903,860	5,886,040
Rice	3,343,210	2,923,860
Gravel	2,961,090	2,770,080
Minerals	2,547,090	2,081,980
Fertilizers	1,153,950	1,034,420
Cement	1,237,490	1,199,140
Iron and steel	909,580	704,220
Petroleum	693,780	559,250
Cotton yarn and cloth	589,410	527,910
Flour	331,640	328,410
Sugar	285,580	284,440
Total including others	74,934,350	67,952,770

STATE RAILWAY BUSINESS in 1934

Year	Transportation		Income		Total Receipts
	Passengers (1,000)	Goods (In metric tons)	Passengers	Goods (¥1,000)	(¥1,000)
1934:					
Jan.	69,291	5,690,940	21,461	14,695	36,156
Feb.	55,324	5,871,520	18,204	15,503	33,707
Mar.	66,713	6,736,950	24,173	18,203	42,376
Apr.	131,134	6,209,870	31,802	17,525	49,327
May	74,146	6,366,980	24,922	17,416	42,338
June	63,390	5,873,810	20,284	16,158	36,442
July	66,273	5,813,140	20,601	15,595	36,197
Aug.	67,113	5,865,970	25,507	16,318	41,825
Sept.	76,816	5,865,280	20,971	16,837	37,808
Oct.	78,357	6,776,860	24,224	20,104	44,329
Nov.	67,359	6,652,740	21,768	29,240	41,008
Dec.	67,393	7,219,270	21,874	21,095	42,969
Total	883,309	74,934,000	275,791	208,689	484,482

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Private Lines The eight leading private lines of the Kwanto had the best profits since 1931, their income totalling ¥21,093,000, compared with ¥20,964,000 for the year before. The eight Kwansai leaders also made more money, income jumping to ¥44,135,000, beating the 1931 mark of ¥43,726,000. April proved the best month for both the Kwanto and Kwansai private cars. April is popular because of the almost general movement of the populace into the country districts to look at the cherry blossoms. Kwanto companies showed better profit rates in both halves of 1934. There has been an increasing tendency for both Kwanto and Kwansai companies to go into sidelines. In most cases the idea is to embark upon some self-supporting business which at the same time attracts passengers. Pleasure resorts are the most common. Traction companies maintain theatres, golf links, bathing beaches, amusement parks and such enterprises. Some have combined department stores with their terminals, to draw suburban trade into the cities. Some supply electric power to the villages along their lines and have gone into real estate development directly and indirctly. Some operate bus lines as feeders to their regular services.

Tourist Industry

Three organizations, viz., the Board of Tourist Industry, the Japan Tourist Bureau (founded in 1912), and the Kokusai Kwanko Kyokai (founded in 1931), a foundation devoting itself solely to the carrying out travel publicity abroad, form the hub, from which radiate innumerable lines connecting it with other important organizations, such as the Society for International Cultural Relations and other cultural bodies, tourist associations in various districts, transportation concerns, hotels and all others that have anything to do with the tourist industry of Japan.

The Board of Tourist Industry is divided into two departments, one for general affairs and the other for business promotion. In addition to them, it has three boards of investigation dealing particularly with tourist resorts, hotel enterprises and treatment of tourists respectively. These boards comprise experts of the government and the public on the respective subjects. The Committee of Tourist Industry holds its general meeting at least once a year, when it decides what course to follow in carrying out any important undertaking.

The Kokusai Kwanko Kyokai runs an office in New York and Los Angeles, though the actual business is carried on there in the popular name of the Japan Tourist Bureau.

The branch offices of the Japan Tourist Bureau, both in Japan and abroad, number about 130 in all. Besides, it has agents in some important cities abroad in order to make the network of its service as extensive and satisfactory as possible.

Since the establishment of the Board of Tourist Industry, tourist organizations of a non-commercial basis have been successively founded in many parts of Japan, and at present the total number is in the proximity of 400.

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FOREIGNERS WHO VISITED JAPAN
in 1934-1935

Nationality	Duration of Stay: Less than 15 days	Less than 3 months	More than 3 months	Total	Purpose: Sight seeing	Official business
Americans	5,123	1,960	864	7,947	4,821	46
Canadian	217	84	89	380	188	3
British	3,155	2,419	817	6,391	3,384	52
German	452	486	375	1,313	476	15
French	363	397	123	883	403	26
Soviets	512	545	370	1,427	103	167
Hollanders	366	207	93	666	420	4
Hindues	108	156	405	669	137	
Philippinoes	175	135	75	385	244	2
Chinese	1,506	1,529	9,641	12,676	785	260
Others	873	955	631	2,459	876	134
Total	12,850	8,863	13,483	35,196	11,837	689
1933-34	10,046	7,007	9,211	26,264	9,455	471
Increase or Decrease(−)	2,804	1,856	4,272	8,932	2,382	218
Percentage of Increase or Decrease(−)	28%	26%	46%	34%	25%	49%

Nationality	Commercial business	Miscellaneous	Total (By Japanese vessels in parenthesis)	1933-34	Increase
Americans	604	2,476	7,947 (3,828)	5,792	2,155
Canadian	27	162	380 (187)	356	24
British	503	2,472	6,391 (3,306)	5,117	1,274
German	214	608	1,313 (837)	1,118	195
French	56	398	883 (454)	636	247
Soviets	293	864	1,427 (1,068)	1,091	336
Hollanders	74	168	666 (441)	350	316
Hindues	382	150	669 (268)	478	191
Philippinoes	23	116	385 (117)	326	59
Chinese	1,194	10,437	12,676 (8,993)	9,146	3,530
Others	290	1,159	2,459 (2,079)	1,854	605
Total	3,660	19,010	35,196(21,578)	26,264	8,932
1933-34	4,552	11,786	26,264(16,719)		
Increase or Decrease(−)	(−)892	7,224	8,932 (4,859)		
Percentage of Increase or Decrease(−)	(−)20%	61%	34% (29%)		

Railways in Chosen, Taiwan, Manchuria, etc.

Chosen

The first railway enterprise in Chosen dates back to 1899, when a railway linking Keijo (Seoul) with Jinsen (Chemulpo), 29.485 kilometres in length, was laid and opened to traffic by the Kei-Jin Railway Company. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War caused the military authorities of Japan to build the Keijo-Fusan, Keijo-Shingishu and Masan lines which were respectively opened to traffic in 1905 and 1906. In 1906 the Imperial Government of Japan nationalized the Keijo-Fusan Line and also took over the Keijo-Shingishu and the Masan Lines from the War Office of Japan, placing all these lines under direct control of the Railway Bureau of the Korean Residency-General. Meanwhile the work of construction was steadily pushed on and in 1910 the Heijo-Chinnampo line was completed. On the spanning of the Yalu River with a swing bridge in 1911 the peninsular railway was brought into connection with the South Manchuria Railway. In 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo and Keijo-Gensan lines were completed, while in 1915 part of the

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Gensan-Kwainei line was opened. In 1928 the Kankyo line which connects Kwainei to Gensan was completed, and in 1933 the Tomon line which connects Kwainei to Yuki was opened to traffic. The latter is connected with the Keito line of S. M. R. C. at Kainei, thus preparing a new eastern transportation facility between Chosen and Manchoukuo. On October 1, 1933, the total length of the State-owned lines in operation in Chosen was 3,263.9 kilometres. In 1932-33 the State Railways in Chosen conveyed 20,591,638 passengers, while the weight of goods hauled was 6,248,863 metric tons. The coaching receipts amounted to ¥18,111,091 and goods receipts to ¥20,575,819, and the total ¥38,686,904. In 1933 the number of private railway companies was 8. The aggregate length of these private railways open to traffic on March 31, 1933, was 1,139.1 kilometres.

The total length of tramways operated was 75.2 kilometres. (See Chapter XL for fuller informations.)

Taiwan

It was not until the cession of the Island of Formosa (Taiwan) from the Chinese Government to Japan that the island began to enjoy railway facilities, for, prior to that time, the only railroad existing was a small light railway between Keelung and Shinchiku built at the time of the Ching Dynasty. Soon after the cession, the Taiwan Government-General brought forward a plan, with the approval of the Diet, to build a railway connecting Takao with Keelung at the expense of ¥28,800,000. Work was started in 1889 from both termini and finished in April, 1908. This line now forms the trunk line in the island's communication system. The construction of this pioneer line was followed by other lines, that is, the Kyukyodo-Heito section completed in 1912, the Taito line in 1917 and the Giran line in 1924. On March 31, 1934 the total length of the Government lines open to traffic was 881.7 km. In 1933-34 these lines carried 17,140,859 passengers and 5,086,727 tons of goods, bringing in ¥19,331,049.

Karafuto Railway

The first railway in Karafuto (Japanese Saghalien) was constructed by the Military Department in 1906 between Otomari, formerly known as Korsakovsa, and Toyohara, formerly Vladimolocka, 41.83 km. in length. It was a light railway with a gauge of 0.61 metre and exclusively used for military purposes. With the withdrawal of the military Government in April, 1907, the railway was transferred to the control of the Karafuto Administration and opened to public traffic in August of the same year. As traffic went on increasing the gauge was widened to 1.07 metres, some time in 1910, while construction of sections further north of Toyohara was started. Late in 1911 the work on the Toyohara-Sakaehama section being completed, the Otomari-Sakaehama section, 94.13 km. which now forms the trunk line in the island's communication, was opened to traffic. Construction work has been continued since and a branch line linking the Kawakami Mine with Konuma, and the Honto-Noda section on the west coast were completed and opened to business in 1914 and 1920 respectively. In addition, the construction of a branch line which connects Toyohara, the capital of the island, with Maoka on the west coast, was started in 1921 and opened to business in 1928. In 1934 the length of the Government lines was 342.9 km. while that of private railways was 237.5 km.

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South Manchuria Railway

It was on September 5, 1905, that the Japanese Government, by virtue of Article 5 of the Peace Treaty concluded between Japan and Russia, acquired possession of the railways in Manchuria from Changchun to Dalny, now Dairen, and Port Arthur, now Ryojun, together with its branch lines, all the rights, privileges, and property attaching thereto, including the local mines formerly owned by the Chinese Eastern Railway. On June 7, 1906, Imperial Ordinance No. 142 was issued concerning the establishment of the South Manchuria Railway Company and on July 13 of the same year General Viscount Gentaro Kodama was appointed chairman of the promoters' committee which were composed of 80 members. On July 25, 1906, the presidency was assumed by General Viscount Masataké Terauchi, the then Minister of War, due to the death of General Kodama. The articles of association relative to the company were prepared by the committee on the basis of the Imperial Ordinance and the instructions of the Government. They were approved by the Government on August 18 and the establishment of the company was sanctioned by the Minister of Communications on November 1, 1906. The authorized capital of the company at first was ¥200,000,000, of which ¥100,000,000 represented the total of the appraised value of railways with properties and the mines at Fushun and Yentai as handed over to the company by the Military Field Railway Department. The other half of the capitalization was offered to public subscription and the shareholders were guaranteed a 6 per cent. dividend per annum by the Japanese Government. By March, 1920, 800,000 shares representing 80 million yen were paid up, but with the development of various activities after the World War the capitalization was increased to 440 million,[1] one-half of the increased capitalization being taken up by the Japanese Government. The company is authorized to issue debentures not exceeding twice the amount of paid-up capital, and not exceeding the amount of total capitalization. The company has often issued debentures on the home and foreign markets and on such occasions both the principal and interest have been guaranteed by the Government. At the end of 1933 the authorized capital of the company was ¥800,000,000, paid-up capital ¥512,208,000; the total length of lines open to business was 1,129.1 kilometres. The gauge of these lines was 1.067 metres at first, excepting the Mukden-Antung Line. The company shortly after its establishment rebuilt the lines to the standard gauge of 1.345 metres. The doubling of track between Dairen and Changchun, 705.5 kilometres, was completed in 1915. In 1932-33 the number of passengers was 8,610,159, the tonnage of goods hauled 16,572,816 metric tons, the income from these was ¥99,834,359. (See Chapter on Manchoukuo.)

Motor Transport and Its Development

Behind Japan's motor transport system there is no such history of experimentation and endeavour as characterizes the arrival of the motor car in the West. The first car seen in Japan was one imported from America by a foreign resident of Yokohama in 1897, and then for the

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next ten years there was no great increase in the number. In 1907 there were only 16 cars in the whole country. Then came a change. In 1912 there were 520 vehicles and a year later 1,000. In 1921, passenger cars numbered 4,683 and business cars numbered 7,439. The great earthquake and fire which destroyed Tokyo and Yokohama in 1923 brought about a great demand for motor cars because rail traffic was interrupted at various places and the help of motor cars was badly needed. In 1924, the number increased to 40,070, of which 27,959 were passenger cars and 12,097 were trucks. The rate of increase for the five years 1921-26 was for passenger cars 100.49 per cent. and for trucks 1,200.6 per cent. This rapid development of motor car transport has driven rikishas, electric cars and provincial railways into the background. Motor car passengers are increasing year after year, while passenger receipts on provincial railways are quickly decreasing. To the present, except in the vicinity of large cities, Japan has not been blessed with good roads, but the construction of first-class motor roads is being pushed ahead in all parts of the country and traffic is bound to make a phenomenal increase as the roads are completed.

Number of Cars The most recent figure on the number of cars in the Empire was taken by the National Resource Bureau of the Cabinet toward the close of 1933. According to this, the number was 106,788, including those cars in the territories. According to the investigation of the same Bureau the total number of motor cars at the end of October 1934, was 121,192.

NUMBER OF CARS

1933 and 1934

	Passenger Cars		Trucks		Special cars		Total
	Japan proper	Colonies	Japan proper	Colonies	Japan proper	Colonies	
1933	61,691	6,528	33,177	2,938	2,032	422	106,788
1934	68,746	7,378	38,346	3,991	2,142	589	121,192

Number of Cars in Principal Prefectures in 1934

	Passenger cars	Trucks	Special cars	Total
Tokyo	17,443	8,583	381	26,407
Osaka	5,034	2,965	165	8,164
Hyogo	2,695	1,475	85	4,255
Kanagawa	3,091	1,842	86	5,019
Aichi	2,852	1,968	62	4,882
Shizuoka	2,267	1,455	95	3,817
Fukuoka	2,462	805	100	3,367
Kyoto	2,492	1,083	58	3,633

Tokyo prefecture had the most and next came Osaka, Kanagawa, Aichi, Hyogo Shizuoka, Kyoto, and Fukuoka prefectures in the order named.

Commercial Passenger Cars Although the available figures are old, the business mileage of commercial passenger motor vehicles by fixed lines at the end of 1930 totalled 122,284 kilometres. If the business mileage of motor trucks by fixed lines be added, the total amounts to more than 160,900 kilometres. There were many cases of duplication of services by competitive lines, but if the actual business mileage is estimated as being one-third of the above total, it will be found that it was more than double that of the

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Government-owned and private railway and tramcar services combined. The total number of companies and individuals engaged in bus business in 1933 reached 3,491. Among prefectures Fukuoka led with 219. The other prefectures which had over 100 were as follows: Kumamoto 198, Fukushima 197, Hokkaido 133, Oita 122, Kagoshima 107 Saga 100, Akita 100, and Nagasaki 100. These figures do not necessarily represent the prosperity or better facilities for motor transportation in the districts, but in many cases simply indicate the absence of any effective control of the business. The worst instance of the case is a load in Kumamoto where 10 buses are running.

The Ministry of Railways is going to control over such disorder or competition according to the Motor Transportation Business Law promulgated in 1934.

The prefectures which had geographical and geological handicaps had smaller numbers such as Okinawa 12, Tottori 27, Nara 28, Fukui 28, and Kochi 30. The prefectures in which the six big cities are located had comparatively small numbers indicative of a good control, i. e. Tokyo 71, Hyogo 80, Kanagawa 60, Osaka 42, Aichi 83 and Kyoto 62.

(As to the production and supply of motor cars in Japan see Chapter XIX.)

Motor Cycles The number of motor cycles in all Japan at the end of 1914 was 111, which became 265 in 1919, 332 in 1920, 424 in 1921, 519 in 1922, 609 in 1923, 516 in 1924, 962 in 1925, 852 in 1926, 1,008 in 1927, 1,119 in 1928, 1,477 in 1929, 2,213 in 1930, 2,888 in 1931, 3,439 in 1932 and 10,011 on October 31, 1934.

Automobiles Imported

Japan's imports of automobiles and parts are mostly from America. The largest total imports were ¥34,903,822 in 1930. Imports since 1918 have been as follows:

(In ¥1,000)

Year	Value
1918	7,661
1919	11,228
1920	10,478
1921	8,067
1922	7,309
1923	18,482
1924	21,186
1925	11,682
1926	15,722
1927	18,281
1928	32,244
1929	33,608
1930	20,778
1931	16,329
1932	14,821
1933	14,382
1934	32,813

American Cars Used America dominates the Japanese motor car trade, supplying 90 per cent. of the total. At the end of 1927 there were approximately 54,000 motor vehicles in this country, principally of American manufacture. The Ford Motor Company, Yokohama, assembles materials imported from America and sells its products in the Japanese market. General Motors, Osaka, works on the same principles. Sales are well distributed over the utility range, with commercial vehicles in the lead. The growth of the one-yen taxi business brought a strong demand for cheap passenger cars, notably Fords, Chevrolets and Whippets among the Americans, Citroens among the French and Morris cars among the British. One-yen taxi concerns have been formed in all the leading cities of Japan. These concerns rent the cabs to drivers who pay, in addition to the rent, for the gasolene consumed. So great has been the success of the one-yen system that the metred taxicabs have all but disappeared from Japan. Moreover, there has been a considerable change in the type of car used. Cheap cars are

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principally in evidence, although some second-hand machines, hand-me-downs of the older companies, are to be found.

Tractors Tractors have not found a large market in Japan. Those bought have found their way into industrial fields, for the farms of Japan are small and comparatively few tractors can be utilized in agricultural work, though forestry has found a use for several. About 1,000 are now in use throughout the country.

Aviation

History of Development

The Early Period During the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877, two balloons were built. In 1891, Mr. Chuhachi Ninomiya made a model of an aeroplane shaped like a bird from his own design, and, in 1894, another shaped like an insect. In 1897, Mr. Isaburo Yamada obtained a patent for a kite balloon of his own invention. Two of these kite balloons were used in the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1907, a balloon corps was organized in the Telegraph Corps at Nakano, and, in June, 1909, a special military balloon investigation association was established. In March, 1910, a gliding test of aeroplane No. 1 of the Hino type was made at Toyamagahara, Tokyo, and, in October that year, a flying test of an aeroplane of the Narahara type was made. On December 19 of the same year, Lieutenant Tokugawa (now Major-General) flew 3,000 metres in four minutes in a Farman aeroplane at Yoyogi, and Captain Hino flew in a Glady aeroplane. This was the first time that an aeroplane flight was carried out in Japan.

The First Civilian Flight In the spring of 1911, airship No. 2 of the Yamada type was taken out of the hangar at Osaki, Tokyo, and made a successful cross-country flight. In March and April of the same year, an American flyer carried out an exhibition flight in Osaka and Tokyo; on April 8, Mr. Shinzo Morita, who had studied flying in France, flew in a 45 h.p. monoplane over the Joto parade-ground in Osaka, this being the first flight by a civilian flyer in this country; and, in April that year, the aerodrome and flying ground at Tokorozawa were completed. In June, 1912, Mr. Atwater, an American flyer, conducted a series of exhibition flights by hydroplane on the sea off Nishinomiya near Osaka; and, in July that year, five officers were selected from each army division to be trained as flying officers. This marks the beginning of instruction in flying to military officers in this country. In the autumn of 1912, a number of aeroplanes and airships participated in the grand military manœuvres. In February, 1913, the Teikoku Hiko Kyokai (Imperial Aeronautical Association) was established; on May 4 that year, Mr. Koha Takeishi, a civilian flyer, started on a Naruo-Osaka-Kyoto flight, but, when landing in the Fukakusa parade-ground in Kyoto, he met with disaster and died as the first victim of civilian aviation in Japan.

Contest of Civilian Aviators In 1914, a contest by civilian aviators was held at Naruo, near Osaka, under the auspices of the Imperial Aeronautical Association, and, during the Tsingtao campaign Japanese military aeroplanes took part in actual fighting for the first time and displayed their ability in scouting, in bombing the enemy fortress and in an aerial com-

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bat with enemy planes. In 1915, a meet of civilian flyers was held in Osaka, and a military flying battalion was formed. Between January and April, 1916, American aviators visited Japan and performed trick flying at Naruo and other places; and, on April 27 that year, night flying was successfully carried out for the first time in this country. In 1917, the flying battalion was enlarged into the first and second battalions and a balloon corps. In April that year, Mr. Bird Smith, an American flyer, again visited Japan and carried out a series of high-class exhibition flights in Osaka and Tokyo. In April, 1918, Mr. Masao Goto, a private flyer, succeeded in making a non-stop flight between Tokorozawa and Osaka for the first time.

Military Flying School In April, 1919, the Military Aeronautical Department and the Military Flying School were established; and, on October 22 that year, the first mail transport flight between Tokyo and Osaka was carried out with success. In 1920, the Aeronautical Institute was established at Tsukishima, Tokyo; and, in May that year, two Italian aviators paid a visit to Japan by air. In March, 1921, the regulations for the control of aviation were put in force. In the autumn of 1922, the Japan Aerial Transport Institute started a regular flying service between Sakai and Shikoku by hydroplanes. In 1923, the military air force was made an independent arm. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun started a regular air service between Tokyo and Osaka in January and the Japan Aerial Navigation Co., Ltd., one between Osaka and Beppu in July that year. In March, 1924, the dirigible S. S. No. 3 exploded and, in September that year, the trial flight of the newly built airship Astra was carried out.

Air Mail Traffic In April, 1925, air mail traffic was started between Tokyo and Osaka; and, on July 25 that year, an aeroplane of the Asahi Shimbun took off from the Yoyogi parade ground in Tokyo and, on October 27, reached Rome after a flight of 16,000 kilometres (in stages) via Moscow, Paris and London. In 1926, the Japanese Navy purchased from Italy the dirigible S-No. 3, which was one with a semi-rigid envelope, introduced into Japan for the first time. In June, 1927, the Aviation Law came into effect. In May, the Coast Defence Association successfully carried out a flight round the mainland, and, in October that year, the airship S-No. 3 exploded, while participating in the grand naval manœuvres. In April, 1928, Mr. Habuto, a civilian aviator, established a new record by flying 2,000 kilometres in 13 hours and 23 minutes; and, in July that year, aerial defence manœuvres were conducted in Osaka.

The Air Transport Co. In 1929, the Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., was established and inaugurated a regular air passenger carrying service between Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, later extending it to Seoul and Dairen; and two Army scouting planes of the 88 type flew between Tachiarai and Heito without stopping, making a record of aerial connection between the mainland and Taiwan. On their homeward flight, one of the planes flew for 15 hours and 15 minutes, thus establishing a new record of staying in the air in this country. In 1930, the Japan Students' Aviation League was formed and associations for the study of aviation were established one after another in different universities and colleges in Tokyo and Osaka. Mr. Yoshihara, a civilian flyer, flew from Berlin to Tokyo via Siberia in 11 days and simultaneously, Mr Azuma, also a civilian flyer, reached Tokyo

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from Los Angeles via New York, London, Berlin and Siberia. In March, 1931, the airship No. 8 which had been made in Japan and belonged to the naval air force at Kasumigaura took off and stayed in the air for a record length of time of 60 hours and one minute.

The Aeronautical Institute In May, the Aeronautical Institute which ranks as the best research station in the world was completed six years after the starting of its construction. In the same month, the aeroplane "Young Japan" belonging to Hosei University, a member of the Students' Aviation League, set off for Europe from the flying ground at Haneda near Tokyo and, at the end of August, reached its destination, Rome. After the outbreak of the Manchurian trouble in September that year, our military planes participated in actual warfare for the first time since the Tsingtao campaign. In October of the same year, the aeroplane (Fokker No. 3-M) of the Japan Air Transport Company succeeded in flying between Taiwan and the mainland. In 1932, as a consequence of the Manchurian trouble, 64 "Aikoku" (Patriotic) planes were constructed with money contributed by the people generally, and, moreover, defence from aerial attack became much discussed in our principal cities and important economic centres. On February 23, our Navy planes fought with enemy planes in the air over Shanghai. In the fighting, Lieutenant Kotani was killed, while Lieutenant Ikuta shot down a Boeing plane of the enemy. The trial night flights between Tokyo and Tachiarai on the nights of April 20 and May 2 that year proved a success.

Present Condition of Civil Aviation

Modest but definite progress of commercial aviation in Japan is indicated in the annual report of the Japan Air Transport Company, which reports mails carried by the company's planes during the year 1934 totalled 1,268,435, recording almost a 50 per cent. increase over the 647,601 of the previous year. Commencing with April 1, 1935, the company has resumed night flying and also has inaugurated a special early morning service bringing Mukden within a day's reach from Tokyo by way of Seoul and Dairen. The early morning service will be extended to Hsinking, the capital of Manchoukuo, on May 1. Further expansion of commercial aviation is expected to be facilitated considerably by the 15-year Government subsidy plan adopted by the Communications Ministry last year with a tentative budget of ¥200,000,000 for the whole period and originally a sum of ¥5,500,000 for the 1935-36 year but later cut to a smaller amount. During the last fiscal year the Japan Air Transport Company maintained the longest route of service totaling 2,118 kilometres between Tokyo and Dairen by way of Nagoya, Osaka, Fukuoka, Urusan, Seoul, Heijo and Shingishu. Of the other aviation concerns Japan Aviation Research Institute maintains a 290-kilometre service between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku, by way of Takamatsu; the Tokyo Air Transport Company a 150-kilometre service between Tokyo and Shimoda; the Tokyo Asahi Shimbunsha, Ltd., a 415-kilometre service between Tokyo and Niigata; and the Japan Marine Air Transport Company a newly opened service between Matsue, Shimane Prefecture, and Hirosaki on th Japan Sea coast. The Tokyo-Shimoda service is operated only between May and September and the Tokyo-Niigata service between May and October. In 1934 the total

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distance of commercial air routes in Japan was 3,751 kilometres.

Except the Japan Air Transport Company, which has a paid-up capitalization of ¥4,000,000 all Japanese commercial aviation firms are still operated on extremely limited scale, while even Japan Air Transport is assisted by an annual Government subsidy of ¥500,000. The operation of a commercial aviation concern in this country is still impossible without liberal monetary help from the State.

Japan at present has a total of only 152 civil airplanes, of which 34 are in use for regular air services. The Japan Air Transport Company has begun to witness a gradually sinking business since recently with a decrease of Government subsidy. It opened to business in April, 1929, and since its operation to service the company has contributed a great deal to the development of civil aviation in Japan. However, the results have not proved satisfactory, especially with recent years. Its profit rate was dropped considerably of late. Its business results since the opening of business follow :

	Paid-up capital (¥1,000)	Profit	Profit rate (In per cent)	Annual Dividend rate
1st h. 1929	2,500	355	28	5
2nd h. 1929	2,500	622	49.8	6
1st h. 1930	2,500	887	71.0	6
2nd h. 1930	3,955	1,033	52.2	6
1st h. 1931	4,000	979	49.0	6
2nd h. 1931	4,000	390	42.3	6
1st h. 1932	4,000	939	47.0	6
2nd h. 1932	4,000	924	46.0	6
1st h. 1933	4,000	844	42.2	6
2nd h. 1933	4,000	274	13.7	5
1st h. 1934	4,000	379	19.0	5
2nd h. 1934	4,000	254	12.7	5
1st h. 1935	4,000	189	9.5	5

The company will be given subsidy totalling ¥19,970,000 spreading over 11 years after its founding. For the first five years especially three years following its founding the subsidy was larger, but since then the amount has been decreasing. In the third year the subsidy totalled ¥3,580,000, but in the 10th year it will come down to ¥770,000 and in the last year it will be reduced to ¥120,000. The company opened aviation service between Tokyo and Toyama. The service to Formosa will start in January, 1936. The Fukuoka-Shanghai service is on the programme, but this depends on the improvement of Sino-Japanese relations.

REGULAR AIR SERVICE ROUTES IN JAPAN

Route	Distance (in kilometres)	Time required for flying	Carrying	Company or body operating route	No. of flights
Tokyo-Osaka	435	2 h. 30 m.	Passengers, freight and mail	Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd.	Twice (both ways) per day (except Sundays)
Osaka-Fukuoka	500	3 h.	,,	,,	,,
Fukuoka-Urusan	240	1 h. 50 m.	,,	,,	Once (both
Urusan-Keijo	310	2 h. 10 m.	,,	,,	ways) per
Keijo-Heijo	200	1 h. 10 m.	,,	,,	day (except)
Heijo-Shinwiju	160	1 h.	,,	,,	Sundays
Shingishu-Dairen	273	1 h. 40 m.	,,	,,	,,
Osaka-Shanghai			,,	,,	Thrice a week
Osaka-Fukuoka	500		,,	,,	Not yet
Fukuoka-Shanghai	950		,,	,,	opened
Osaka-Takamatsu	140	1 h. 10 m.	,,	Japan Air Transport Institute	Once (both ways) per day (except Sundays)
Takamatsu-Matsuyama	150	1 h. 10 m.	,,	,,	,,

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Route	Distance (in kilometres)	Time required for flying	Carrying	Company or body operating route	No. of flights
Tokyo-Shimoda	150	55 m.	Passengers and freight	Tokyo Air Transport Co.	Once (both ways) on Monday, Wednesday and Friday each week
Ito-Shimoda	45	25 m.	,,	,,	,,
Shimoda-Numazu	74	35 m.	,,	,,	,,
Numazu-Shimizu	36	20 m.	,,	,,	,,
Tokyo-Niigata	380	2 h. 30 m.	Freight and mail	Asahi Regular Air Service Ass'n	Three times (both ways) each week in summer

Remarks: Except on the Dairen-Shinwiju route of the Japan Air Transport Company, considerable reductions are made for the through rates both for passengers and goods that are carried beyond one fixed section between Dairen and other places.

Flying Grounds

Public and private flying grounds in Japan are as follows:

Public Grounds The Tokyo Airport. The Tokyo flying ground is situated at Suzuki-Shinden, Haneda-machi, Tokyo prefecture (Long. 139° 40′ E. and Lat. 35° 30′ N.). It is a flying ground on land and covers an area of 528,926 square metres. Its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and as much from north to south. It slopes at a gradient of 1/500 and is divided into 330,000 square metres of exposed land, 198,000 square metres of grass land and 33,000 square metres of concrete paved zone. The usual direction of wind there is from south to north. In the grounds, there are a signal pole, a weighing beam, a compass correction stand, and a factory.

The Osaka Airport. The Osaka flying ground is situated at Kizugawajiri, Funa-machi, Minato-ku, Osaka (Long. 135° 23′ E. and Lat. 34° 39′ N.). It is a flying ground both on land and water in category and covers an area of approximately 350,000 square metres. Its runway extends for 720 metres from east to north and 400 metres from north to south. The ground inclines in a minor degree from north to south and is overgrown with clover. The gliding range for hydroplanes is the sea outside Osaka harbour. The direction of wind there is generally from east to west. Chief provisions in the ground are a signal-pole, two tower-cranes, and a compass correction stand.

The Fukuoka Flying Ground. The Fukuoka flying ground is situated at Najima, Tadara-mura, Kasuya-gun, Fukuoka prefecture (Long. 130° 26′ E. and Lat. 33° 39′ N.). It is a flying ground for hydroplanes and its gliding range extends over the eastern part of Fukuoka Bay. The direction of wind there is generally from south to north. It is provided with a signal-pole, a crane, a weighing beam for hydroplanes, a compass correction stand, a gliding incline, an anchorage, etc.

The Urusan Flying Ground. The Urusan flying ground is situated at Urusan, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and for the same distance from north to south.

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The Keijo Flying Ground. The Keijo flying ground is situated at Nyoito, Ryukomen, Koyo-gun, Keikido (Kyongki-do), Chosen. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 600 metres from east to west and for the same distance from north to south.

The Dairen Flying Ground. The Dairen flying ground is situated at Choushuitzu, Kwantung Province. It is a flying ground on land and its runway forms a circle with a 600-metre diameter.

Private Grounds The Nakajima Aeroplane Works. This flying ground is situated at Minami-Hamakawa, Oi-machi, Yebara-ku, Tokyo, and is for use by hydroplanes.

The Hokkai Times Ground. The Hokkai Times flying ground is situated at Kita Nijushijo and Nijugojo, Sapporo. It is a flying ground on land and its runway extends for 190 metres from east to west and 360 metres from north to south.

The Kawanishi Aeroplane Co. This flying ground is situated at Naruo-mura, Muko-gun, Hyogo prefecture, and is for use by hydroplanes. Its gliding range is on the sea off No. 1, Ohigashi, Naruo, Naruo-mura.

Aeronautical Wireless Stations

The following wireless stations exist with the special object of supplying aeroplanes flying the Tokyo- Dairen and the Osaka-Shanghai routes with weather reports and also of reporting their arrival and departure :

Name	Call signal	Site
Tokyo Wireless Station	JXS	Otemachi Nichomé, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo.
Hakoné „ „	JXH	Segyodaira, Mishima-machi, Takata-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Kameyama „	JXK	Ochizaki, Kameda, Kameyama-machi, Suzuga-gun, Miyé prefecture.
Osaka „ „	JXO	Dojima Nichomé, Kita-ku, Osaka.
Fukuoka „ „	JXF	Najima, Tadara-mura, Kasuya-gun, Fukuoka prefecture.
Itsuhara „ „	JXI	Itsuhara-machi, Shimokata-gun Nagano prefecture.
Tomiyé „ „	JXY	Minami Tomiyé-mura, Matsuura-gun, Nagasaki prefecture.
Urusan „ „	JXM	Hokumen-Dotei, Urusan, Urusangun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen.
Keijo „ „	JBB	Hommachi Itchomé, Keijo (Seoul), Keikido (Kyonkido) Chosen.

Land Marks for Aviators

In order to secure the safety of aerial navigation, the following places are marked with their names in large white "Kana" letters :

Mark	Place
Numazu	Tsuruta, O-oka-mura, Sunto-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Hamamatsu	Matakogawa, Tomizuka-mura, Hamana-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.
Kameyama	Nomura, Kameyama-machi, Suzuka-gun, Miyé prefecture.
Shōdoshima	Shikai-mura, Azuki-gun, Kagawa prefecture.
Imabari	Ohama, Chikami-mura, Koshichi-gun, Ehimé prefecture.
Murozumi	Aburada, Murozumi-machi, Kumaké-gun, Yamaguchi prefecture.
Nakatsu	Tsunoki, Nakatsu-machi Shimoké-gun, Oita prefecture.
Yukuhashi	Yukibashi, Yukibashi-machi, Kyoto-gun, Fukuoka prefecture.
Urusan	Sansanri, Urusanmen, Urusan-gun, Keisho-Nando (South Kyongsang-do), Chosen.
Kwokan	Nasanri, Kwokanmen, Yeido-gun, Chusei Hokudo (North Choongchong-do), Chosen.

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Taidén	Kudori, Gainamen, Taidén-gun, Chusei Nando (South Choongchong-do), Chosen.
Ten-an	Seiseiri, Ten-anmen, Ten-an-gun, Chusei Nando (South Choong-chong-do), Chosen.
Shariin	Tetsuzanri, Shriinmen, Hozan-gun, Kwokai-do (Whanghai-do), Chosen.
Heijo (Pyongyang)	Jinkori, Seisenmen, Daido-gun, Heian Nando (South Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Teishu	Jogaido, Teishumen, Teishu-gun, Heian Hokudo (North Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Shingishu	Mirokudo, Kojomen, Gishu-gun, Heian Hokudo (North Pyong-an-do), Chosen.
Pitzuwo	Pitzuwo, Kwantung Province.

Civilian Aeroplanes Civilian aeroplanes on October 31, 1934, for which certificates of airworthiness and registry certificates have been granted, are as follows:

Classification	Description	Number	Total number
Free from all restrictions	Aeroplanes	17	17
	Hydroplanes		
Not qualified for trick flying	Aeroplanes	122	140
	Hydroplanes	18	
Total	Aeroplanes	136	157
	Hydroplanes	21	

Note: 50 planes were damaged by the typhoon of September 21, 1934.

Civilian Aviators in Japan Licensed Japanese civilian aviators on October 31, 1934, are as follows:

Classification	1st class	2nd class	3rd class	Total
Aeroplane and hydroplane pilots	226	307	89	622
Navigators	19	203	—	222
Mechanics	—	—	—	78
Dirigible balloon pilots	—	—	—	2

Aerial Lighthouses According to the first plan of the Department of Communications 19 aerial lighthouses will be established along the Tokyo-Osaka route and the same number along the Osaka-Fukuoka line. For the former the four larger ones, at Hakoné (Shizuoka prefecture), Yaizu (Shizuoka), Chita (Aichi) and Ikoma (Nara) are already erected. This has been changed and 20 lighthouses have been erected between Tokyo and Osaka. The erection of the same number of aerial lighthouses between Osaka and Fukuoka is also comtemplated. In the following list those under the heading Tokyo and Osaka have already been erected, while those between Osaka and Fukuoka will be erected:

Tokyo-Osaka Place	Prefecture
Totsuka	Kanagawa
Hiratsuka	,,
Manazuru	,,
Jikkoku	Shizuoka
Numazu	,,
Tagonoura	,,
Yaizu	,,
Kanaya	,,
Hamamatsu	,,
Toyohashi	,,
Manzu	,,

Tokyo-Osaka Place	Prefecture
Chitamotomiyayama	Shizuoka
Akeno	Miye
Chisezaki	,,
Seki	,,
Kata	,,
Tsuge	,,
Uyeno	,,
Kasagi	Kyoto
Ikomayama	Nara

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Osaka-Fukuoka Place	
Suma	Hyogo
Murozu	,,
Tamatsu	Okayama
Okayama	,,
Hayashima	,,
Kasaoka	,,
Hachigaminé	Hiroshima
Kamikitagata	,,
Minaga	,,
Kumanoato	,,
Hiroshima	,,
Iwakuni	Yamaguchi
Takamori	,,
Kushihama	,,
Nakaseki	,,
Ubé	,,
Karita	Fukuoka
Wakamatsu	,,
Kanegazaki	,,
Hiyamizutogé	,,

Organizations connected with Aviation

The Aviation Council This body is under the direct control of the Minister of Education and returns reports on matters submitted by him; it also deliberates on important matters concerning the study of the basic theories of flying-machines and makes recommendations to the Cabinet Ministers concerned. It is composed of a president and 20 councillors, and, in case of particular need, councillors ad interim are appointed. The councillors are the Vice-Ministers of the Departments of War, Marine, Education, and Communications, as well as those who have deep knowledge and wide experience, while the councillors ad interim are selected from among scholars and experts.

The Imperial Aeronautical Association The Imperial Aeronautical Association was established in 1913 with the object of encouraging and protecting the development of science and art pertaining to aviation and of flying machines and their parts and accessories as well as diffusing knowledge of, and cultivating taste for, aerial flight among the people. A sum of ¥500,000 granted from the Privy Purse was made a foundation-fund, and, with interest accruing from it and with receipts from dues paid by its members (¥2.00 per member), the Association carries on its undertaking, the principal items of which are presenting persons who fall victims to aviation and accidents connected thereto with condolence money, awarding bounties to persons connected with aviation, and giving lectures, cinema shows, and exhibitions concerning aviation. It also publishes a monthly journal containing aviation news at home and abroad. It has an Imperial Prince as patron and a board of directors of 30 members, including a president, two vice-presidents, and a managing-director. In addition, it has five auditors and over 105 councillors, from whom directors are elected. Its offices are located at No. 7, Sakurada Hongo-cho, Shiba-ku, Tokyo.

The International Aviation Commission This Commission is a permanent organ created in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty relating to Aviation, and makes or receives proposals bearing on alterations and modifications of the provisions of the treaty to and from the signatory Powers, and reports to them such alterations and modifications as are adopted.

The International Aviation Federation This Federation consists of various corporations relating to aviation in different countries and chiefly aims at the progress of civil aviation through mutual consultation and also the promotion of mutual facilities. Besides, it undertakes recognition of world flying records. The Imperial Aeronautical Association represents Japan in the Federation.

The Aeronautical Institute The Aeronautical Institute was first established at Etchujima in Tokyo in

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April, 1918 by taking over the business of the Commission on Investigation of Aeronautics organized in the Tokyo Imperial University in April, 1916, with the object of making researches in aeroplanes, airships, balloons, motors, aviation psychology and other matters concerning aviation. Subsequently, in the earthquake and fire of 1923, the institute was destroyed and was newly constructed at Komaba in the grounds of the Department of Agriculture of the Tokyo Imperial University in 1927. It is divided into the departments of air pockets, aeroplanes, physics, chemistry, metallurgy and material, and ranks first in the world in point of equipment. The present president is Baron Chuzaburo Shiba, Doctor of Science and Professor at the Tokyo Imperial University.

Training Institutes Below are lists of institutes established for the training of aviators:

PRIVATE INSTITUTES AND SCHOOLS FOR THE TRAINING OF CIVILIAN AVIATORS

Name	Site	Representative
Japan Air Transport Institute	Shin-Koyenchi, Ohama, Sakai, Osaka prefecture.	Choichi Inouyé
Japan Flying School	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	Tamotsu Aiba
Kita-Nippon Flying School	Ujiina-mura, Sapporo-gun, Hokkaido.	Takanori Nakamura
Nishida Aeroplane Institute	Kizugawajiri, Funamachi, Minato-ku, Osaka.	Chuyémon Nishida
Hamamatsu Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Tomuzuka-mura, Hamana-gun, Shizuoka prefecture.	Tetsuo Hasegawa
Dai-ichi Aeronautical School	Funabashi-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Yetsutaro Munesato
Nagoya Flying School	Obatagahara, Higashi-Kasuga-gun, Aichi prefecture.	Fukuhi Mihara
Ando Flying Institute	Shin-Maiko, Asahi-mura, Chita-gun, Aichi prefecture.	Kozo Ando
Tokushima Aeronautical School	Kamona-machi near Tokushima	Tomokagé Sakata
Japan Light Aeroplane Club	Saminuma, Tanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Otojiro Ito
Misono Flying School	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	Nishio Suzuki
To-a Flying College	Tsudanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture.	Sami Kawabé
Tokyo Flying School	Susaki, Fukagawa-ku, Tokyo.	Tatsugoro Yendo
Japan Students' Aviation League	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture.	—
Teikoku Flying School	Tsudanuma-machi, Chiba prefecture	Kikuo Suzuki,
Asia Aeronautical School	Suzaki, Fukagawa-ku, Tokyo	Kintaro Iinuma

FLYING MACHINE AND MOTOR MANUFACTURERS

Aeroplane Manufacturers

Name	Site of factory
Mitsubishi Aeroplane Co., Ltd.	Oyé-machi, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Kawasaki Shipyard, Ltd.	Higashijiriiké, Hyogo, Kobé
Aichi Time-Piece and Electric Apparatus Co., Ltd.	No. 15 Funagata, Sennen-cho, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Nakajima Aeroplane Works	Ota-machi, Nitta-gun, Gumma prefecture
Ishikawajima Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Tachikawa-machi, Tokyo prefecture
Kawanishi Aeroplane Co., Ltd.	Hyogo.
Tokyo Gas & Electric Industry Co., Ltd.	No. 100–1 chome, Iriarai, Omori-ku, Tokyo

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Motor Manufacturers

Mitsubishi Aeroplane Co., Ltd.	No. 7 Oyé-machi, Minami-ku, Nagoya
Kawasaki Shipyard, Ltd.	Higashijiriiké, Hyogo, Kobé
Tokyo Gas and Electric Industry Co., Ltd.	No. 100 Iriyamazu, Iriarai-machi, Yebara-ku Tokyo
Tokyo Factory of the Nakajima Aeroplane Works, Ltd.	Ogikubo, Suginami-ku, Tokyo
Aichi Time-Piece and Electric Apparatus Co., Ltd.	No. 15 Funagata, Sennen-cho, Minami-ku, Nagoya

Balloon and Dirigible Manufacturers

Fujikura Industrial Co., Ltd.	No. 182 Osaki-machi, Yebara-ku, Tokyo
Tokyo E. C. Industrial Co., Ltd.	No. 437 Ikejiri-machi, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo

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CHAPTER XXVI

SEA TRANSPORTATION

Historical Background

The dawn of Japan's history is associated with marine activities. The national mythology is rich in stories of sea adventures. Later authentic records fully demonstrate the energy and spirit of the early Japanese, who had to fight their way through stormy seas in the primitive craft of those days. The period covered by the latter half of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth century marks the golden age of marine activity of Old Japan. This was in a great measure due to the stimulus received by the Japanese through the appearance of Portuguese and other foreign ships in Japanese waters. Japanese vessels not only were in evidence in South China and the South Sea Islands, but cruised the Pacific as far as Mexico and fought their way through the Indian Ocean and the Cape of Good Hope to Europe. Military rulers encouraged maritime enterprises and numerous large vessels were built. Thus, the shipping trade between Japan and the South Seas and India, carried on under letters patent and numbering no less than two hundred ships at one time, engaged in commerce with twenty different countries, which were eventually dotted with regular Japanese colonies.

Ban on Shipping Activities Unfortunately, while the maritime prosperity of Japan was thus making progress by leaps and bounds, the Tokugawa Shogunate took the drastic measure of secluding the country and forbidding all foreign intercourse. Its first act was to place a strict ban on the propagation of Christianity in 1613. Subsequently, in 1634, all commercial relations with foreign countries were stopped, and in 1636 the construction of large ocean-going vessels was forbidden. For a long period of more than two centuries thereafter, the ocean trade of Japan was held in a state of forced suspension.

The Well-timed Visit The Commodore's visit in 1853 was well timed, inasmuch as by this time many Japanese amongst the intelligent class were dimly aware of the conditions outside Japan, and the Shogun's Government amid the confusion of opinion took a firm step and signed the treaty. This event was followed in 1854 by the conclusion of similar treaties with leading nations of Europe. Commercial intercourse with foreign countries was thus resumed, and the time-worn restrictions on navigation and ship-building were withdrawn. Then was formed the nucleus of the present mercantile marine of Japan. The Shogun's Government, finding the old Japanese systems of ship-building and navigation utterly out-of-date, promptly decided upon introducing the ideas of the outside world. For this purpose, students were sent abroad, while foreign experts were engaged to work in Japan. A ship-building yard was established in Yokosuka, and a naval school in Nagasaki.

After the Meiji Restoration

The First Steamship Co. In the third year of Meiji the Government promulgated the Mercantile Marine

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Regulations. In the same year, the pioneer steamship concern was inaugurated and a new leaf in the history of the Japanese mercantile marine was turned. The first company to be incorporated was the Kwaiso Kaisha, or Forwarding and Transport Company, which was later re-named the Teikoku Yusen Joki Kaisha (Imperial Mail Steamship Co.). Mampei Kimura was one of the chief promoters. A regular service was maintained between Tokyo and Yokohama and between Osaka and Kobé. Yataro Iwasaki, founder of the Mitsubishi interests, incorporated a shipping company called Kutsumo Shokai, later re-named the Mitsubishi Shokai in 1870 and inaugurated a regular passenger service between Tokyo and Kochi in Shikoku, from which Iwasaki hailed. Three steamers formerly owned by Lord Yamanouchi, former feudal lord of Tosa, were employed in the service. When the Japanese Government sent a punitive force against Formosa in 1874, all foreign steamship companies interested in the Far Eastern shipping trade declared neutrality and rejected the Government's offer to charter their ships. Perplexed at this, the Government ordered the Mitsubishi Shokai and Teikoku Joki to offer their ships, and thus the transportation of troops was smoothly effected.

The N. Y. K. Comes into Existence Shigenobu Okuma, then Minister of Finance, and Toshimichi Okubo, then Home Minister, made efforts to organize the Yubin Kisen Mitsubishi Kaisha after the termination of the expedition. The above two firms were dissolved and the Government's ships were handed over to the new company. The Mitsubishi interests made large profits under Government protection. Kaoru Inouyé and Admiral Tsugumichi Saigo, who were Okuma's political opponents, organized a corporation to rival the Mitsubishi's as a means of overthrowing Okuma and ordered, in 1882, Eiichi Shibusawa, Takashi Masuda and others to form a semi-Government shipping company under the name of the Kyodo Unyu Kaisha. Keen competition later ensued between the two and threatened to lead them to ruin. Consequently, the Government ordered them to effect a merger. In 1885 the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was incorporated through the investment of ¥5,000,000 by the Mitsubishi and ¥6,000,000 by the Kyodo Unyu. At the time of founding, the company owned 58 steamers with an aggregate of 68,700 tons. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company of America was then operating a regular line between Yokohama and Shanghai with the s. s. Golden Age, the Costa Rico and two other ships, all of which were purchased by the Japanese Government in 1874 for the transportation of Japanese soldiers on the expedition to Formosa. Iwasaki waged a freight war with the Pacific Mail at that time and finally purchased these four ships for $8,000,000. This price included the Shanghai wharf now owned by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha at Whampoo.

The O. S. K. About this time the Osaka Shosen Kaisha was established in Osaka. It was then a small concern maintaining services in the Inland Sea of Japan, but later developed into a large company. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha, while maintaining the services originally inaugurated by its predecessors, opened new lines to Korea and North China, and one between Shanghai and Vladivostok; and in 1891, it inaugurated the service between Kobé and Manila and commenced to despatch occasional ships to Australia. In 1892, the N. Y. K. Japan-Bombay service was opened, the

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first regular Japanese steamship service with a far away foreign country. The rapid progress of Japanese shipping can be proved by the fact that in the beginning of 1891 the total tonnage owned in Japan was 100,000, and this figure was increased by 10,000, tons in the following year.

The Sino-Japanese War During the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5, when the greater part of Japanese space was requisitioned for transport purposes, a large number of steamers was purchased by Japanese owners and many others were chartered by them, and Japan, having complete command of the sea, was able to maintain its established oversea services. At the close of the war, Japan found its merchant marine had grown by 100 per cent. compared with the figures of before the war. Meanwhile, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha lost no time in consolidating its established lines and in 1896 it inaugurated three trunk lines, viz., the Yokohama-London-Antwerp line, the Hongkong-Japan-Seattle line and the Yokohama-Manila-Australia line. In 1898 the Toyo Kisen Kaisha was established, and it maintained a few regular fast service between Hongkong and San Francisco via Japanese ports with three fine new passenger boats. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha opened a new line on the Yangtzekiang in 1898. In the following year, this company opened a line from Formosa to Hongkong, via Amoy and Swatow. The increase in Japanese tonnage at that time was remarkable. Whereas, at the end of 1897 it amounted to only 270,000 tons, it suddenly increased at the end of 1898, to 477,000 tons, the ratio of growth continuing, until the gross tonnage of steamers of 1,000 tons and over at the end of 1903 amounted to 521,000.

Foreigners' Services Mention must not be omitted of the valuable contribution made by foreign experts to the development of the Japanese mercantile marine. Through the remarkable foresight of Iwasaki, not only foreign captains, officers, engineers and pursers were freely engaged afloat, but numerous experts, business and technical, were employed on shore to conduct the business of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. A large number of these foreigners remained in the company's service for a considerable time after its formation. Foremost among them were A. R. Brown, Alexander Macmillan, T. H. James, J. W. Ekstrand, W. H. Hasewell, Hector Frazer, etc., whose names are still familiar to old timers in the Far Eastern shipping trade.

One noteworthy fact in connection with the development of the shipping business is the advance made by Japanese mariners. Japan imported the science of navigation from the West and early in the Meiji Era, captains, chief engineers and mates were mostly foreigners. When the Nippon Yusen Kaisha was first organized in 1884, the company owned 57 steamers with a total tonnage of 60,000 and employed about 174 foreigners, the number being increased to 224 during the Sino-Japanese War. During the Russo-Japanese War, Japanese mariners were centres of praise, and their credit was greatly raised. After the war, in 1907, the number of foreigners was reduced to 87 and in 1920 there was not a single foreigner in a Japanese ship.

The Russo-Japanese War The Russo-Japanese War broke out early in 1904, and Japan found itself compelled to undertake transport work of the biggest magnitude ever known in its history. This situation naturally created the necessity of purchasing additional tonnage, with the result that at the end of 1906 the

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total merchant marine reached a little more than one million gross tons, and Japan thus ranked sixth among the great maritime Powers of the world. Through the expansion of trade after the war, sufficient employment was found for these steamers. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha opened its South American service before the war terminated. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha started in 1909 its Far East—Puget Sound service. Elsewhere, the expansion was also pronounced, for in 1907 four large Japanese companies trading on the Yangtze-kiang pooled their interests and formed the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japan-China Steamship Company) and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in the meantime inaugurated the Tsuruga-Vladivostok and the Osaka-Kobé-Moji-Dairen lines. The general slump in the shipping trade which prevailed all over the world during this period was felt in Japan, but the country was not so badly hit as to prevent its further growth, for, at the end of the year when the World War broke out, the total gross tonnage of ships flying the Japanese flag was 1,590,000, of which 1,310,000 tons represented ships of more than 1,000 gross tons each. Turning to the share which Japanese merchant shipping contributed to its foreign commerce, it was found that, whereas, prior to the Sino-Japanese war (1894-5), only 10 per cent. of imports and exports were carried by Japanese ships, the proportion increased to 40 per cent. after the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), and just before the commencement of the World War, it was further augmented to 48 per cent.

The World War An extensive dearth of tonnage and the consequent pressing demand for space all over the world, caused by the World War, created a unique situation for Japanese merchant shipping, so much so that the total gross tonnage suddenly swelled by a million tons within a brief period and the yearly shipbuilding capacity increased from 50,000 tons to a half million gross tons. The share contributed by Japanese vessels to the transportation of imports and exports increased to nearly 80 per cent., the remaining 20 per cent. being carried by foreign ships. Many new shipping services to all corners of the globe were opened one after another, and besides rendering distinguished service to the cause of the Allies, the Japanese mercantile marine maintained a regular fortnightly Japan-England mail service, and despatched extra ships to European waters during the war. Further more, in response to the call of the United States after that country participated in the War a group of Japanese shipowners delivered a number of steamers aggregating 150,000 tons to the United States Government on charter at rates considerably lower than those which shipowners at that time could have obtained in the open market.

The inevitable aftermath of the war abnormalities—shipping depression—set in early in 1920, and this is still being felt all over the world. Japanese shipping in common with that of all other nations is undergoing a severe test to its perseverance and fortitude. Despite this Japanese shipping has considerably increased. Of the latest developments in Japanese shipping the Toyo Kisen Kaisha transferred all of its Pacific ships to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, by which the latter became one of the greatest shipping companies of the world.

Aid and Encouragement In 1874, the Government established the policy that the shipping business should receive Government subsidies and it gave to the Mitsubishi Co., which rendered great services during the

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Formosan affair, thirteen ships and guaranteed to subsidize the company with ¥250,000 for navigation and with ¥15,000 for training seamen for a term of fifteen years. In return for this, the company was to run regular ships on prescribed routes, carry mails without charge, and meet any requisition of ships by the Government. Each succeeding Government has recognized the functions that shipping companies have to discharge in peace and war, and have never failed to apportion money from the national treasury even in times of retrenchment. Some of the principal decrees connected with the encouragement of shipping are as follows:

(1) The first subsidy to the Mitsubishi Company in September, 1874.

(2) The second and third orders to the same company in 1875 and 1881.

(3) The subsidy to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha in September, 1884.

(4) The subsidy order issued to the Osaka Shosen Kaisha in 1886.

(5) Enactment of the Navigation and Shipbuilding Act in 1895.

(6) Amounts to subsidize lines to Bombay, Australia, Europe and America were granted.

(7) Subsidized lines were extended later to the Inland Sea, the Kinkai (near seas), the Yangtze River route, Canton, Tientsin, Dalny, the South Seas, West Coast of America, the South American routes, etc.

Working Agreements

Japan's three largest shipping concerns, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha and the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the last-mentioned being a subsidiary of the first, entered into an agreement in April, 1931, on shipping co-operation as a counter-measure for the shipping depression. The basic principles involved in the agreement were the mutual respect of services operated by them, the readjustment of steamship routes, the extension of the pooling system and co-operative management. The agreement is to last for 10 years. As the result of this agreement, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha abolished its South American Atlantic service, leaving its operation to the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha discontinued the operation of its Puget Sound line, leaving the entire interest of the service to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, and the Osaka Shosen Kaisha entrusted the management of its North European line west of Suez to the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The mutual use of agents, joint acceptance of passenger and goods transportation, joint utilization of shipping, land and sea equipment, and the joint purchase of fuel and ships' materials were agreed on among them.

The Present State

Owing to the improvement of dollar exchange, the earning of freight quoted in the U.S. dollar was reduced by 20 or 30 per cent. Where the freight is quoted in sterling some difficulties were experienced in placing steamers, while the intended boycotting of Indian cotton by the Japanese cotton spinners served also to depress the market. For these reasons, the freight market was not as active in the latter part of 1933 as it was during the earlier season of the year. However, the indication was that it clearly had passed the worst stage such as it experienced in the last several years, and the sea transportation circle looked with much hope for the future for the first time in many years.

To explain the situation more fully, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd., showed the possibility to resume the

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payment of dividend, which had been withheld for many terms. Chosen Yusen Kaisha, Ltd., declared that it would be able to pay dividend of 3 per cent. Meiji Kaiun Kaisha, Ltd., which was able to pay dividend of 4 per cent. in the previous term would perhaps increase it by 1 or 2 per cent. In this manner, the sea transportation circle is in a somewhat buoyant atmosphere, the like of which was not seen for many years.

Tramp Ships The most important overseas work of Japanese tramp ships is connected with the shipment of Oregon lumber from Puget Sound to Japan and other Oriental countries; of Australian wheat to British India and Japan; of Manchurian staple products, mostly beans, to Europe; grain from N. America to Europe; coal from Wales to Port Said; and of Saghalien lumber to Japan. In the near-sea service, the transportation of soy beans and bean cake from Dairen to Japan and Kyushu coal from Wakamatsu to different ports is the most important business. In the ocean-going service, the Oregon lumber freight is taken as the criterion for all other steamer freights and in the near-sea service the Wakamatsu-Yokohama coal rate is the important one.

Government Subsidies

There are eight steamship companies working overseas and domestic services under governmental subsidy. These concerns are the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, the Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, the Nanyo Yusen Kaisha, the Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, the Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha and the Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha. The subsidy is paid to these companies for a period of one year from April to March in most cases, while in certain cases the subsidy runs over a period of three years.

The N. Y. K. Yokohama-London service has Kobé, Shanghai Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Suez, Port Said and Marseilles as intermediate ports of call. Its San Francisco line has Honolulu as the only intermediate port of call on both outward and homeward (eastward-bound) trips. On the westward-bound trip it has Nagasaki, Shanghai, and Hongkong as such. The company's Yokohama-Seattle (eastward-bound) service has Victoria or Vancouver as ports of call and its westward-bound service has Kobé, Moji and Shanghai as ports of call. Its South American Coast line between Yokohama and Valparaiso (eastward-bound) has Honolulu, Manzanillo, or Salina Cruz, Callao and Iquique as ports of call and its westward-bound line has as ports of call Kobé, Moji and Hongkong. The N. Y. K. Yokohama-Melbourne service has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Manila, Davao, Thursday Island, Brisbane and Sydney both ways.

The O. S. K. South American East Coast line (Yokohama-Buenos Aires) for its outward bound trip has as ports of call Kobé, Nagasaki, Hongkong, Singapore, Cape Town, Rio de Janeiro and Santos. On homeward bound the line has Santos, Rio de Janeiro and Christoval as ports of call. The O. S. K. African East Coast line operates between Kobé and Cape Town and on its outward bound has Moji, Hongkong, Singapore, Colombo, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Dar-Es-Salaam, Beira, Lourenço Marques and Durban. On homeward bound the line has Durban, Lourenço Marques, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Singapore and Moji as ports of call. These are the most important steamship lines operated under Government subsidy.

The Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, owner

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of motor and steam vessels aggregating 310,000 tons deadweight, has reached new heights of prosperity under the able management of Mr. S. Kurokawa, President, the net profit for the half-year ending December 31st, 1934, having amounted to over ¥1,460,000. During the last few years, seven speedy new motor vessels have been built and placed in commission on the Orient-New York express service whilst three 19-knotters now under construction will be added to the fleet early next year. This concern which was mainly engaged in tramp shipping before, now maintains several regular services of international importance, thus contributing much towards the betterment of Japan's foreign payments.

In addition, the Nanyo Yusen Kaisha operate under Government susidy the South Sea Line between Kobé and Sourabaya and Java lines. The former line has Macassar, Sourabaya, Samarang and Batavia on outward trip. Ships sail direct for Kobé on homeward trip. The Nisshin Kisen Kaisha operates the China Coast line between Shanghai and Canton as southern line and between Shanghai and Tientsin or Taku as northern line. The company also maintains the Shanghai-Hankow line with Chenkiang and Nankiang as ports of call, the Hankow-Ichang line with Shasi as port of call, the Hankow-Hsiangtan line with Changsha as port of call, the Hankow-Chagteh line, and the Ichang-Chungching line, all these five lines being known as the Yangtze River services.

The Kinkai Yusen Kaisha, affiliated with the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, operates a subsidized regular service between Kobé and Tientsin or Taku during the winter time with Moji as port of call and also the Yokohama-Newchwang (Yingkow) service with Nagoya as port of call, both under Government subsidy. It also runs a regular service between Hakodaté and Odomari in Karafuto. The N. Y. K., O. S. K. and Harada Kisen Kaisha jointly maintain a Kobé-Tsingtao regular steamer service. The Tsuruga-Vladivostok regular service is operated by the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, which is affiliated with the Osaka Shosen Kaisha. The Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha, Hokkaido, operates a regular service between Hakodaté and Petropavlovsk in Kamchatka seven times a year during the warm season. Stores and other supplies of daily necessity are carried by ships on the service for Japanese fishermen engaged in Kamchatka fishery. A regular connecting service between Aomori and Muroran is maintained by the Kita Nippon.

Nippon Yusen Kaisha regular liners sailing between Japan and Europe will call on their outward trips at Istanbul and Beirut more than twice every three months, those sailing between the same places will call on their outward and homeward trips at Piraeus more than twice every three months, and those sailing between Japan and the United States will call on their homeward trips at Havana in Cuba once every two months, all under Government subsidy.

Open Ports The open ports in Japan are Yokohama, Kobé, Niigata, Ebisuko, Osaka, Nagasaki, Hakodaté, Shimizu, Takétoyo, Nagoya, Yokkaichi, Uno, Onomichi, Itozaki, Tokuyama, Imaharu, Shimonoseki, Hagi, Moji, Wakamatsu, Hakata, Karatsu, Suminoyé, Kuchinotsu, Miiké, Misumi, Kagoshima, Izuhara, Naha, Hamada, Sakai, Miyazu, Tsuruga, Nanao, Fushiki, Funakawa, Aomori, Otaru, Nemuro, Kushiro, Muroran, Otomari and Maoka.

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Promotion of Seamen's Welfare

There are two important organizations for the promotion of seamen's welfare. They are subsidized by the Central Government. They are the Seamen's Aid Society of Japan and the Imperial Society of Life-Saving service.

Shipping for 1934

The general condition of Japanese shipping for 1934 showed a favourable tendency. While the condition of the world's shipping, as a whole, might be said to have emerged somewhat from a severe depression, there was no room for doubt that the demand for tonnage still continued at a low ebb, so that its supply was still in a glutted condition. Japanese shipping did not escape this general influence. A Government policy encouraging the construction of better freighters on condition that old ships be scrapped was announced by the Communications Ministry. The Government would grant subsidies for building new ships. The old ships to be scrapped must be aged more than 25 years and must be registered at home, Korea, Formosa or the Kwantung Leased Territory. The ships to be constructed must be freighters of more than 4,000 gross tons each. In pursuance of the policy, applications for building new ships were filed with the Communications Ministry by the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, Setsuyo Shosen Kaisha, Kuribayashi Shosen Kaisha and Dairen Steamship Company through the Ship Improvement Society. The Osaka Shosen decided to build a 6,300-ton freighter with a speed of 18.5 knots. It is to be fitted with Diesel engines and is to be completed in May, 1936, at the Mitsui Tama Shipbuilding Yard. For building it the Osaka Shosen will scrap two ships. The Setsuyo Kisen decided to build a 6,300-ton ship with a speed of 18.5 knots and powered with Diesel engines. This ship is expected to be completed in July, 1936, and two old ships will be scrapped. The Kuribayashi Shosen will build a 4,200-ton freighter with a speed of 14.5 knots. It is expected to be completed in July, 1936. Two old ships will be scrapped. The Dairen Steamship Co. will build a 5,000-ton ship with a speed of 15 knots. The ship is expected to be completed in June, 1936. Two old ships will be scrapped.

Commencing with April, 1935, a regular steamship service was opened between Niigata and North Korean ports with an annual Government subsidy of ¥20,000. The Japan Sea Steamship Company was founded under joint investment of the North Japan Steamship Company, subsidiary of the Osaka Shosen Kaisha, and the Shimatani Steamship Company. The Korean Government-General also decided to order the Chosen Yusen Kaisha to work the same service with the same amount of subsidy. The Dairen Steamship Company which was looking forward to come in for a share could not attain its object. The new service is destined to assume the leading position of all services in the Japan Sea.

Ship Price Ship price in Japan for 1934 rose considerably over the previous year. They were from 20 to 50 per cent. higher than in 1933. This was due to high prices of iron and steel and the scrapping of many old vessels due to the encouragement of the construction of superior Diesel-engined cargo boats by the Communications Ministry. Ship sale prices in 1934 were :

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	New Ships	Secondhand Ships	Old Ships
	(In yen per ton)		
Large	170	85	50
Medium-sized	180	90	60
Small	200	100	80

Charter of Foreign Vessels As the price of scrap iron in Japan reached ¥50 a ton, ships imported into Japan in 1934 totalled 30 vessels with a total tonnage of 150,000 tons, a drop of 7 vessels and 125,000 tons from 1933. Ships scrapped in Japan in 1934 numbered 21, having an aggregate tonnage of 96,000 tons and represetning a decrease of 13 vessels of 50,000 tons from 1933. Foreign ships chartered by shipowners at the end of 1934 totalled 380,000 tons, a peak of recent charters. Most of these ships were from China, Norway and England. Partly due to the short period and partly to the high charterage offered by the Japanese, foreign shipowners were inclined to charter their vessels to Japanese. The average charter rates in Japan, compared with 1933, were :

Size of Ships	Charter rates for 1934 (in yen per ton)		Rates year before	
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest
2,000 tons	4.50	2.90	3.80	2.30
3,000 tons	3.80	2.40	3.25	1.85
5,000 tons	3.50	2.20	2.75	1.60
8,000 tons	2.70	1.80	2.25	1.60
9,000 tons	2 40	1.80	2.20	1.50

The Japanese Government has prohibited importation of foreign ships since May, 1933, except to replace those to be scrapped, and, because of this, chartering foreign ships becomes inevitable. The Government feared that reckless chartering of foreign ships would lead to activities of foreign ships in the Oriental waters, which would eventually hinder the progress of Japanese shipping. The Japan Shipowners' Association also entertained the same fear. But some Japanese shipping concerns did not share the fear. They contended that unless foreign ships were chartered, foreign shipowners would turn their attention to the Oriental waters as a prospective field of exploitation.

Building Programme The most noteworthy decision in the country's shipping circles for 1935 was adoption of a large scale plan providing for the construction of superior passenger boats by the Nippon Yusen Kaisha for its regular Orient-European line. The company's Yokohama-London regular passenger service is operated by 10 ships once every two weeks in competition with British, French, German, Italian and American ships. Four of these 10 ships, the Suwa Maru, the Fushimi Maru, the Katori Maru and the Kashima Maru are already more than 20 years old, and the company has fully realized their building costs. It takes about ¥8,000,000 to build a 10,000-ton passenger boat, since the building cost today is ¥800 a ton. The N. Y. K. has been working the service with these old ships in the face of various disadvantages and, feeling the need of overcoming the recently growing competition, the company decided to build new ships. The company was prompted by the expansion announcements of various foreign companies, which intended to construct new passenger boats for this service. The Norddeutscher Lloyd is planning to build two passenger ships each of 18,000 gross tons, with a speed of 20 knots per hour. These ships will be placed on the Far Eastern Service in co-operation with the Hamburg-Amerika Line. Lloyd Tiriest of Italy placed two superior passenger boats each of 18,000 tons on the new service. The air route between Europe and the Far East made considerable development within recent years. A regular air service between London and Singapore covers the whole distance in eight

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days, while the N. Y. K. service takes 28 days. The need of building faster passenger boats is keenly felt. Nippon Yusen entered into a contract with the Cunard Line for trans-Pacific, Far East and European passenger services.

The Yamashita Steamship Company changed its business policy of drawing profit by chartering ships to operation of freight lines at its own risk and expense. As the result, it caused its sister institution, the Manchoukuo Sea and Land Transportation Company to buy four ships weighing 30,000 tons from the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, the Osaka Shosen Kaisha and the Fuso Steamship Company. It has also contracted to buy the Heijun Maru, 6,669 tons, and the Heian Maru, 6,694 tons, from the Industrial Bank of Japan, which foreclosed them in default of loans to the Nippon Steamship Company. The Industrial Bank has also decided to sell two other freighters, the Yoko Maru, 10,000 tons, and the Heimei Maru, 6,500 tons, to the Tochigi Trading Company. Formerly these ships were owned by the Nippon Steamship Company, but were taken over by the bank in 1925 upon the dissolution of the Nippon Steamship Company. Under the joint investment of Nippon Steamship, the bank established the Nippon Kyodo Steamship Company. By the sales of these four ships, Kyodo Steamship was cleared of all its ships. The total sales price was ₹1,700,000.

Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha Established A new steamship company jointly owned by the four Japanese companies, Nippon Yusen, Osaka Shosen, Ishihara Industry and Nanyo Yusen, which are interested in the Dutch East Indian service, was initiated at a Communications Ministry conference on June 22, 1935. The name of the new company is called the Nanyo Kaiun Kaisha and its capital amounts to ₹10,000,000. The company will take over the business interests on the Java services of the four concerns and will compete with the Java-China-Japan Line. The company will navigate 14 vessels, of which 12 vessels belong to the four companies, and 2 vessels are chartered ships.

PRINCIPAL SHIPOWNERS

Shipowners	Location of head office	No. of ships	Tonnage
Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd.	Maruno-uchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	98	718,281
Osaka Shosen ,, ,,	Sozemachi, Kita-ku, Osaka	103	505,770
Kokusai Kisen ,, ,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	27	149,851
Kinkai Yusen ,, ,,	Marunouchi, ,, ,,	44	129,279
Mitsui Bussan ,, ,,	Muromachi, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	31	111,253
Kawasaki Kisen ,, ,,	Kaigandori, Kobé-ku, Kobé	19	70,198
Toyo ,, ,, ,,	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	11	64,775
Kawasaki Dockyard Co., Ltd.	Kawasakimachi, Kobe-ku, Kobé	11	64,692
Ishihara Gomei Kaisha,	Nishiura-machi, Kichijo-in, Shimokyo-ku, Kyoto	12	63,950
Tatsuma Steamship Co., Ltd.	Honmachi, Nishinomiya, Hyogo-prefecture	15	62,484
Nihon Godo Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	18	62,303
Nisshin Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	,, ,, ,,	20	47,711
Railway Department	,, ,, ,,	14	41,776
Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Odomari-machi, Odomari-gun, Saghalien Island	19	40,157
Yamashita Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Sakaemachi, Kobé-ku, Kobé	9	39,441
Kokai Trading Co., Ltd.	Enoko-Higashino-machi, Nishi-ku, Osaka	8	36,236
Nippon Tanker Co., Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	5	34,331

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Shipowners	Location of head office	No. of ships	Tonnage
Kyoritsu Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Muromachi, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	12	34,331
Kishimoto „ „ „	Minami-Horie-dori, Nishi-ku, Osaka	6	34,300
Karafuto „ „ „	Tomarioru-machi, Tomarioru-gun, Saghalien Island	7	33,916
Mitsubishi Trading Co., Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	5	33,026
Shimatani Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Maemachi, Kobe-ku, Kobe	8	32,038
Kuribayashi Trading Co. Ltd.	Kaigancho, Muroran	11	29,726
Shimomura Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Sozecho, Kita-ku, Osaka	4	23,055
Kokura Petroleum Co. Ltd.	Kofunecho, Nihonbashi-ku, Tokyo	3	21,931
Meiji Kaiun Kaisha, Ltd.	Akashicho, Kobé-ku, Kobé	6	21,874
Matsuoka Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Seidomura, Mukogori, Hyogo prefecture	5	21,676
Hachima Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Sekizaicho, Nishinomiya, Hyogo prefecture	4	20,279
Nihon Kyodo Kisen Kaisha, Ltd.	Marunouchi, Kojimachi-ku, Tokyo	4	20,245
Others and total		872	3,471,072

LIST OF LARGE N. Y. K. BOATS

	Gross tonnage	Passenger accommodation			
		1st class	2nd class	3rd class	Steerage
M.S. Asama	17,000	207	80	—	500
M.S. Tatsuta	17,000	207	80	—	500
M.S. Chichibu	17,500	207	80	—	500
M.S. Terukuni	12,000	125	69	60	—
M.S. Yasukuni	12,000	125	69	60	—
M.S. Heian	11,616	Cabin class	82	Tourist	260
M.S. Hikawa	11,622	„	82	„	260
M.S. Hiyé	11,622	„	82	„	260
M.S. Heiyo	10,000	Tourist cabin	84	3rd class	500
S.S. Taiyo	14,458	308	221	—	426
S.S. Tenyo	13,402	195	84	—	508
S.S. Shinyo	13,027	141	82	—	508
S.S. Korea	11,810	151	41	—	432
S.S. Siberia	11,790	143	41	—	432
S.S. Fushimi	10,936	182	59	31	54
S.S. Suwa	10,672	116	55	32	54
S.S. Haruna	10,421	116	55	32	88
S.S. Hakoné	10,421	116	55	32	88
S.S. Hakozaki	10,413	116	55	32	88
S.S. Hakusan	10,380	116	55	32	102
S.S. Kashima	9,908	122	52	37	64
S.S. Katori	9,849	120	52	30	64
S.S. Rakuyo	9,419	42	51	—	663
S.S. Anyo	9,257	32	62	—	596
S.S. Bokuyo	8,619	37	53	—	448
S.S. Ginyo	8,613	37	38	—	456

LIST OF LARGE O. S. K. BOATS

Name of S.S.	Gross tonnage	Nominal horse power	Year constructed
S.S. Arizona	9,633	5,500	1920
M.S. Rio de Janeiro	9,626	5,000	1929
S.S. Buenos Aires	9,625	5,000	„
S.S. Manila	9,486	5,600	1915
S.S. Arabia	9,480	5,500	1917
S.S. Africa	9,475	5,500	„
S.S. Hawaii	9,469	4,800	1915
S.S. Horai	9,205	7,400	1912
S.S. Mizuho	8,511	6,400	„
S.S. Fuso	8,188	6,100	1909
M.S. Takachiho	8,154	7,100	1933

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Statistics Statistics of Japanese ships, prepared by the Ministry of Communications follow:

SHIPS REGISTERED

(On September 30, 1934)

Steamships

Tonnage	Japan Proper Nos.	Japan Proper Gross tons	Korea Nos.	Korea Gross tons	Formasa Nos.	Formasa Gross tons	Kwantung Nos.	Kwantung Gross tons	Total Nos.	Total Gross tons
20– 100	1,727	74,979	208	8,787	125	5,304	26	1,235	2,086	90,305
100– 500	560	129,732	21	4,093	13	2,865	18	4,579	612	141,269
500– 1,000	197	148,255	4	3,046	2	1,290	4	3,086	207	155,677
1,000– 3,000	349	649,981	20	33,893	—	—	20	37,628	389	721,502
3,000– 6,000	337	1,510,844	1	3,204	—	—	42	190,230	380	1,704,278
6,000–10,000	134	1,001,274	—	—	—	—	6	40,435	140	1,041,709
over 10,000	19	234,596	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	234,596
Total	3,323	3,749,661	254	53,023	140	9,459	116	277,193	3,833	4,089,336

Sailing Ships

20– 100	13,181	596,256	817	26,635	48	2,482	191	8,102	14,237	633,475
100– 500	1,852	264,574	4	650	4	577	1	149	1,861	265,950
500– 1,000	3	1,720	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	1,720
over 1,000	4	9,507	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	9,507
Total	15,040	872,057	821	27,285	52	3,059	192	8,251	16,105	910,652

Other Sailing Ships Measured In Koku

(10 koku counted as one ton)

200–500	226	68,527	—	—	—	—	—	—	226	68,527
500–100	7	4,647	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	4,647
Total	233	73,174	—	—	—	—	—	—	233	73,174
Grand total	18,596	4,629,035	1,075	80,308	192	12,518	308	285,444	20,171	5,007,300

REGISTERED SHIPS IN JAPAN PROPER

(Since 1870)

End of	Steamers Nos.	Steamers Gross tons	Sailing Ships Nos.	Sailing Ships Gross tons	Other sailing ships measured in koku Nos.	Other sailing ships measured in koku Gross tons	Total Nos.	Total Gross tons
1870	35	24,997	11	2,611	—	—	46	27,608
1882	198	64,313	399	51,684	—	—	597	115,997
1887	252	107,808	342	46,320	—	—	594	154,128
1892	375	157,147	239	34,163	—	—	614	191,310
1897	626	426,624	171	27,412	—	—	797	454,036
1902	1,033	605,122	3,591	329,839	1,260	548,422	5,884	989,803
1907	1,574	1,109,444	4,210	357,275	1,168	442,399	6,952	1,510,959
1912	1,981	1,430,329	6,443	441,039	1,671	554,834	10,095	1,926,851
1916	2,159	1,696,631	9,314	585,503	1,171	380,116	12,644	2,320,236
1921	2,955	3,167,737	14,280	960,947	830	264,419	18,065	4,155,126
1926	3,246	3,607,038	14,184	873,468	564	177,073	17,994	4,498,213
1930	3,351	3,907,908	15,380	896,272	367	117,041	19,098	4,815,884
1932	3,308	3,874,619	15,038	867,658	308	97,060	18,654	4,752,283
1933	3,295	3,780,197	14,981	862,846	275	87,041	18,551	4,651,747
1934 (Sept.)	3,323	3,749,661	15,041	872,057	233	73,174	18,596	4,629,035

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SHIPBUILDING YARDS

Private shipbuilding yards capable of building a ship more than 50 tons (end of 1933)	
Under private management	487
Under corporation management	67
Other shipyards	5
Total	559

SHIPS LAUNCHED DURING 1933:

(Ships smaller than 100 tons omitted)

Steamers	Number	39
	Tonnage	75,907
Sailing Ships	Number	28
	Tonnage	3,913
Total	Number	67
	Tonnage	79,820

SHIPS BUILT AT PRIVATE YARDS

	Nos. of Private yards	Steamers Built No.	Steamers Built Gross tons	Sailing Ships Built No.	Sailing Ships Built Gross tons
1897	81	112	12,431	66	4,391
1902	186	73	15,541	165	13,013
1907	224	76	28,838	220	16,841
1912	228	168	48,155	372	23,839
1916	219	94	144,024	519	45,831
1920	352	69	226,081	12	1,711
1926	324	27	51,303	5	560
1930	430	49	148,382	11	5,849
1932	531	46	56,084	20	2,679
1933	559	39	75,907	28	3,913

For 1934 the total number of ships built and their tonnage already reached 139 and 129,656 respectively in the ten months from January to October.

HOLDERS OF CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY AS MARINERS

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1882	1,901	325	2,226
1887	2,737	532	3,269
1892	3,804	718	4,522
1897	7,044	938	7,982
1902	15,977	333	16,310
1907	20,750	352	21,102
1912	26,139	351	26,490
1916	33,976	351	34,327
1921	45,775	349	46,124
1926	60,154	132	60,286
1930	76,787	132	76,919
1932	89,177	132	89,309
1933	92,751	132	92,883
1934 (June)	94,203	132	94,335

HOLDERS OF MARINERS' SERVICE BOOK

End of	Japanese	Foreigners	Total
1902	79,753	774	80,527
1907	164,293	1,109	165,402
1912	206,806	1,889	208,695
1916	254,597	2,853	256,950
1921	357,174	5,000	362,174
1926	—	—	446,900
1930	212,917	4,823	217,740
1932	233,910	5,098	239,008
1933	175,251	2,877	178,128
1934 (June)	180,666	2,885	183,551

Government Subsidy The Government subsidy for the 1935-36 fiscal year, which was adopted at the last Diet session, amounted to ¥9,682,821, representing a drop of ¥312,943 from the preceding fiscal year. The subsidy involves ¥2,997,547 for the San Francisco Line; ¥1,413,744 for the Seattle Line; ¥1,202,200 for the South American East Coast Line; ¥348,246 for the South American West Coast Line; ¥300,000 for the African Line; ¥720,000 for the European Mail Service; ¥160,000 for the South American Line; ¥716,000 for the China Coast Line; ¥50,000 for the Dairen Line; ¥300,000 for the Shanghai Line, ¥100,000 for the North China Line; ¥12,000 for the Tsingtao Line; ¥22,000 for the Japan Sea Line; ¥20,000 for the Petropavlovsk Line; ¥10,000 for the Honshu-Hokkaido Connection Line; ¥20,000 for the Naha Line; ¥214,000 for the Hokkaido Line; and ¥20,000 for the Niigata-North Korea Line.

DISPOSITION OF JAPANESE TRAMP SHIPS

(Prepared by Nippon Kaiun Shukaisho)

(In 1,000 tons gross)

Services	Dec. 1, 1934	Feb. 1, 1935
European	309.1	284.1
North American Atlantic	306.2	289.1
Japan-North American Pacific	370.4	413.3
Australia and Indian	251.8	350.2
South Seas and Straits Settlements	470.5	599.0

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Nearseas	1,392.7	1,191.3
In dock	181.7	143.2
Tied-up ships	—	24.6
Others	14.5	34.2
Total	3,247.2	3,230.5

Freighters Japanese freighters are concentrating their energy on the exploitation of Far East-New York cargo service. At the end of 1934 there were 42 Japanese freighters (six Nippon Yusen Kaisha, eight Osaka Shosen Kaisha, four Kokusai Kisen Kaisha, 13 Mitsui Bussan Kaisha and 12 Kawasaki Steamship Company ships) working the same service. This year the number is expected to increase to 55. This large fleet of Japanese freighters are in contrast to 15 freighters belonging to three foreign steamship companies on the same service.

Shipping Income on International Trade Net profit realized in connection with shipping on the international trade in 1933 amounted to ¥120,062,000, showing an increase of ¥26,361,000 over the previous year, according to the Finance Ministry. The income for the year amounted to ¥227,930,000 against the expenses totalling ¥101,868,000. The following table gives Japan's invisible exports and income in connection with shipping for 5 years :

RECEIPTS IN CONNECTION WITH SHIPPING
ON THE INVISIBLE TRADE OF JAPAN

(in ¥1,000)

	Total Amount of Invisible Exports (Receipts)	Receipts in Connection with Shipping	Excess of Exports(+) or Imports(−) of Invisible Trade	Excess of Receipts over Payments in connection with Shipping
1929	976,371	238,534	+ 94,829	159,175
1930	955,591	194,420	− 14,903	125,335
1931	886,388	166,911	−149,044	100,641
1932	771,653	181,843	+ 2,000	99,701
1933	958,323	227,930	+ 66,233	126,062

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CHAPTER XXVII

JUSTICE AND POLICE

Judicature

The Judicature's Position

Since the promulgation of the Japanese Constitution in 1889, the right of the sovereignty of the Emperor has been divided into three distinct departments, viz., legislation, judicature and administration.

In accordance with Article 57 of the Constitution, "the Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor." Judges are appointed from among those possessing such qualifications as are determined by law and they are guaranteed by the Constitution against being deprived of their positions unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. Not only are the judges guaranteed their positions, but they have authority, in exercising judicial power, to judge on their own independent views, using the statutes as the sole standard of judgment, without being in any way swayed by interference from others and unaffected by authority arising from any quarter.

Since the judges are entirely independent of the administration, the results of judicial decisions are equally independent thereof, and the decisions are not affected by the administrative power except in cases of pardon or provisional release.

Composition of the Courts

In Japan, the ordinary Courts of Law for the adjudication of civil and criminal cases consist of (1) District Courts (Ku-Saibansho), (2) Local Courts (Chiho-Saibansho), (3) Courts of Appeal (Koso-in), and (4) the Supreme Court (Taishin-in). The District Courts, the Courts of Appeal and the Supreme Court are all collegiate courts with special divisions, in each of which sit a number of judges.

District Courts The District Courts are presided over by single judges. A three instance system is adopted in the adjudication of all ordinary cases, and any one may lodge an appeal against a judgment rendered in the first instance and demand revision of that rendered in the second instance.

In the matter of civil cases, the District Courts possess judicial power to adjudicate on the following matters in the first instance :

1. Demands for money less than 1,000 yen or for articles, the value of which is less than 1,000 yen.

2. The following cases irrespective of value :

(a) Legal actions brought by lessors against lessees, or vice versa, for the receipt, vacation, use, occupation or repair of houses or other building or parts thereof, or for the seizure of the furniture and fixtures or belongings of lessees by lessors.

(b) Legal actions only concerning the boundaries of real estates.

(c) Legal actions only concerning occupations.

(d) Legal actions brought by employers against employees, or vice versa, for contracts of employment, the terms of which do not exceed one year.

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(e) Legal actions brought by travellers against hotel or inn keepers, or vice versa, for matters concerning board or lodging, or by travellers against water or land forwarding agents, or vice versa.

(f) Matters concerning bankruptcy.

In criminal cases, the District Courts, as the courts of law for adjudication in the first instance, possess judicial power concerning the following matters, provided they have not been subjected to preliminary examination:

1. Offences punishable with detention or fine.

2. Offences punishable with penal servitude, imprisonment for fixed terms or by imposition of fines, except those punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment for more than one year.

Local Courts In civil cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Demands other than those falling under the jurisdiction of the District Courts or of the Courts of Appeal.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the District Courts;

(b) Demands determined by law for revision of decisions or orders rendered by the District Courts.

Further, with reference to criminal cases, the Local Courts possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the first instance:

Criminal cases falling neither under the jurisdiction of the District Courts nor under the special jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

2. In the second instance:

(a) Appeals lodged against judgments rendered by the District Courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered by the District Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Courts of Appeal The Courts of Appeal possess judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. Appeals lodged against judgments rendered in the first instance by the Local Courts.

2. Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the first instance by the Local Courts, except those falling under the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

Powers to adjudicate in the first and second instances in civil cases brought against the members of the Imperial Family belong to the Tokyo Court of Appeal.

The Supreme Court The Supreme Court (Taishin-in) is the highest court of law and possesses judicial power concerning the following matters:

1. In the final instance:

(a) Appeals against judgments rendered by the lower courts;

(b) Complaints determined by law against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the Local Courts or by the Courts of Appeal;

(c) Complaints against decisions to reject appeals made by the District or Local Courts.

2. In the first, and at the same time, final instance: Preliminary examination and adjudication of offences against the Imperial House, offences of internal disturbance, and offences committed by members of the Imperial Family, for which punishment heavier than imprisonment should be imposed.

Public Procurators

A public procurator's office, with the necessary number of procura-

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tors, is attached to each court. The work of the public procurator is, in accordance with the code of criminal procedure, to take legal actions, to go on with necessary legal proceedings, to demand a right application of the law, and to observe the right execution of a judgment. According to the code of civil procedure, he has also rights to ask for a report whenever he thinks it necessary and present his opinions to the court on it, and as a representative of public welfare he carries out his supervising business as laid down by the law in all judicial and administrative matters related to the court. But the public procurator acts absolutely independently of the court.

Court Officials and Procurators

Qualifications Candidates for the office of judge or procurator are chosen by the Minister of Justice from among those who have passed the higher judicial service examination. The selected candidates then have to serve a term of over one and a half years of probation in the courts or in a public procurator's office and pass a further examination, after which, should the report on their estimated ability be favourable, they will receive an appointment as judge or procurator. But those who have been professors of law in the Imperial Universities or lawyers of over three years standing can be appointed as judges or public procurators without examination and estimation.

The following are not to be appointed as either judges or public procurators.

(1) Those who have been convicted of a grave crime, with the exception of those political offenders who have been rehabilitated.

(2) Those who have served sentences on minor offences.

(3) Those who have been adjudicated bankrupt and could not be exempted from the responsibility.

Position of Judges and Public Procurators Judges are permanent officials appointed by His Majesty directly, or by His Majesty's order indirectly, or by His Majesty's approval, according to the grade of their position. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment judges are not to be moved to another post or place, be suspended from office, be deprived of position, or receive a reduction of salary, without their consent, except in so far as the Minister of Justice may order retirement from service by the decision of a general meeting of the Court of Appeal or the Supreme Court on account of disability caused through weakness of body or mind.

The retiring age is for the President of the Supreme Court 65 years, and for other judges 63 years.

The public procurators are appointed by His Majesty directly or by His Majesty's order indirectly or by His Majesty's approval. Unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment the public procurators are not to be deprived of their positions against their own will.

The Procurator-General at the age of 65 years and all other public procurators at 63 years of age must retire from service. A public procurator must obey the orders of higher authorities and judicial policemen must obey the orders issued by the public procurators or through them within the district of jurisdiction of the public procurator's office.

The Jury System

In 1923 the Jury Law was issued, and Japan finally adopted the jury system under which persons other than judges are allowed to take part

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in criminal trials. The jury system is used in such criminal cases as where the punishment may be capital, or penal servitude or imprisonment for life. Other criminal cases in which the sentence may be penal servitude or imprisonment for a term longer than 3 years are tried by jury only upon demand of the accused and when they come within the jurisdiction of the Local Courts. The following cases are not submitted to trial by jury:

(1) Offences which come under the special authority of the Supreme Court.

(2) Offences against the Imperial House, causing an internal disturbance, helping an enemy, disturbing international relations, and sedition.

(3) Violations of the Peace Maintenance Law.

(4) Violations of the Military Secrets Preservation Law, the Army or Navy Criminal Laws or any other offences in connection with military secrets.

(5) Violations of the Public Election Laws.

The accused can refuse to have his case tried by jury or withdraw his own demand to be tried by jury at any time previous to the statement of the case by the public procurator, under which circumstances the case cannot be referred to a jury.

The jury is composed of 12 men. At the trial, the chief judge, after having heard all the evidence for and against the accused, sums up the facts and main points of the case, and charges the jury to deliberate and render its verdict by a majority vote. The verdict must be a simple statement as to guilt or otherwise. If the court considers the verdict improper the case may be referred to another jury at any stage of the trial.

In a case where sentence has been passed on a jury's verdict of guilt, no appeal can be made to the Court of Appeal, but a demand for revision may be presented to the Supreme Court.

Penal System

History It was in the time of the Emperor Suiko, 620 A.D., that the first written Penal Code was issued in Japan. The code was very simple, but later the Chinese penal code, the "To", was introduced and the Japanese code was drafted in a more systematic manner and promulgated by the Emperor Mombu, in 702, as the "Taiho Ritsu-Ryo." Five kinds of punishment were mentioned, namely, flogging, whipping, penal servitude, exile, and death, but in most cases these could be varied to confiscation of property or payment of a fine. Grave crimes were treason, atrocities, blasphemy, undutifulness to one's parents, adultery, etc. Confession of the accused was required as a necessary procedure of a criminal suit, and naturally torture was recognized as an indispensable means of obtaining such a confession. Several hundred years after the issuance of the Taiho Ritsu-Ryo the Shogunate Governments adopted extremely terroristic penal systems with the purpose of preventing the occurrence of criminal cases. One of the most important of them was the One Hundred Criminal Regulations of the Tokugawa Shogunate. It was a secret criminal code which was not published and was accessible to the judges only, an expression of the despotism of the ruling class that had as its motto, "leave the people ignorant of the niceties of law."

With the downfall of the Tokugawa Shogunate the Great Emperor Meiji abolished the system of intimidation and reformed the old penal code. The codification of Civil Law was carried on under the advice

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of Monsieur Gustave Boissonade, a French scholar of jurisprudence who had been invited to Japan for that purpose. A new Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Law, the characteristics of which were that, though the lawful punishment of criminals is assured, the penalties are tempered with sympathy toward the accused and are in no ways severe, were enacted and promulgated. "No crime shall be punished unless there is a regulation in the law," (nullum crimen et nulla poena sine lege), is one of the guiding principles of the code, which was formulated on the French penal code of 1810. Within a few years it was found that the new code was out of date and various amendments were discussed from 1884 to 1907, in which year a thorough revision was made and the present Penal Code issued. Since then the social conditions of the people have undergone rapid changes, more advanced theories regarding penalties have been gaining ground and so many defects have been noticed in the present code, that in 1926 the Extraordinary Legislative Committee passed a resolution that the Penal Code should be revised. A special investigation committee set to work and in 1931 an outline and draft of a revised penal code and prison law was drawn up. It is expected that the thorough study of the draft that is now going on will soon be completed.

Penalties Penalties are divided into six kinds, namely, the death penalty, penal servitude, imprisonment, monetary penalties, custody, and fines. Confiscation is recognized as an additional punishment. The death penalty is by hanging and is carried out in prison. Penal servitude and imprisonment are for limited terms and for life; limited terms extend from one month to 15 years. Under penal servitude labour is compulsory, but a prisoner serving a term of imprisonment is not compelled to work, though he may be allowed to do so at his own request. A monetary penalty is 20 yen and above, unless made lighter on decision. Custody is from one to under 30 days, and a fine is from 10 sen to less than 20 yen. Those who cannot pay monetary penalties and fines are kept in workhouses as an alternative.

The classified number of penalties imposed during the five years 1929-1933 follows:

Year	Death Penalty	Penal Servitude for life	Penal Servitude for a term	Imprisonment for life	Imprisonment for a term	Detention	Total
1929	13	38	23,932	—	134	5,237	29,354
1930	15	43	27,007	—	360	5,765	33,190
1931	19	38	28,065	—	316	5,500	33,938
1932	22	57	31,339	—	378	4,491	36,287
1933	28	61	34,493	—	440	4,458	39,480
Average for 5 years	19	47	28,968	—	326	5,090	34,450

Suspension of Sentence and Provisional Release The present penal law allows probation. The execution of a penalty often leads to self-abandonment and turns comparatively harmless people, who are not yet addicted to criminal deeds, into habitual jail-birds. This is found to be especially so when the penalty is one of penal servitude for a short time, and it is, therefore, far better for people convicted of light and incidental offences to be excused from the real infliction of the penalty

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under special conditions and to be given proper admonitions in order to make them repentant by self-examination. Consequently, the Japanese courts are empowered, under certain conditions, to postpone the execution of sentence for from one to five years, beginning with the day of the sentence and according to the nature and condition of the case, on persons sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment for less than 2 years.

Probation is cancelled (1) when the probationer, during the time of probation, commits another offence and is sentenced to imprisonment or is given a heavier sentence, (2) when the probationer is sentenced to imprisonment or a heavier penalty is imposed because of some other crime committed before the granting of probation, and (3) when, in cases not mentioned above, the probationer is found to have had at some previous time a sentence of imprisonment or some other heavier penalty inflicted on him. Should the term of probation expire without being revoked the sentence is automatically cancelled thereby. The draft of the penal code of 1931, besides confirming the system of probation, admits the principle of postponement of passing sentence in specially pitiable cases of a non-serious nature.

Release on parole was practised as early as 1790 in the House of Correction at Ishikawajima, Yedo; the present law admits it and it is widely practised. As reformation is one of the chief aims of punishment, when convicts are evidently repentant and there is no fear of their committing further crimes, it is unnecessary to continue the punishment. Therefore, it is stated in the present Penal Code, "when the convicts who are under penal servitude or imprisonment are found to be evidently repentant, provisional release may be authorized by the administrative office after they have finished one-third of the limited term or ten years of the term for life" (Article 28).

Provisional release may be cancelled (1) when the persons on parole have committed another offence during the term of the release and have been sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty, or (2) when they are sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of some other offence committed before the provisional release, or (3) when they were sentenced to a monetary or heavier penalty because of another offence committed before the provisional release and that penalty must now be fulfilled, or (4) when they break the provisional release rules. In this case the rest of the term of sentence must be served.

Juvenile Criminals Article 27 of the Code of Criminal Procedure says, "public suit may not be instituted when the suit is found unnecessary because of the character of the criminal, his age and environment, the condition of his crime and his behaviour after the incident," and leaves the decision as to whether proceedings should be taken to the public procurator. The existing criminal system of Japan is thus inclined to some extent to subjectivism, putting emphasis on the offender himself rather than on the offence. Its evident expression is found in dealing with young offenders. According to the provisions of the Juvenile Criminal Law, 1922, young boys or girls who are under 18 years of age are called juveniles and their offences are dealt with, not under the penalty system, but by a system of protection. Even when they are punished, the penalty is inflicted in a special way. Protective measures are (1) to give

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admonitions, (2) to leave them to the guidance of school principals, (3) to let them solemnly declare their sincere repentance in a written statement, (4) to place them, under certain conditions, in the care of their parents, (5) to place them under the care of temples, churches, protective bodies or other proper persons, (6) to hand them over to the care of the juvenile probation officers, (7) to send them to reformatories, (8) to send them to houses of correction, and (9) to put them under proper treatment in hospitals. These measures may be continued till the juveniles reach the age of 23 years. When juveniles are admitted to probation or provisional release they are not put under police supervision as is the case with the adults, but are left to the care of the juvenile probation officers. For the protective disposition of juvenile offenders juvenile courts have been established.

Special Measures for Juveniles Special measures for the penal punishment of juvenile offenders are:

(1) The death penalty or penal servitude for life is not inflicted upon a person who is under 16 when the crime is committed. When the crime is so grave that the death penalty or penal servitude for life should be passed, the sentence is mitigated to penal servitude or imprisonment for 10-15 years.

(2) When a juvenile criminal should be sentenced to a penal servitude or imprisonment of more than three years at its maximum, the minimum and the maximum limits are fixed within the scope of the penalty to be inflicted on the crime committed. And when he should be sentenced to a penalty of more than 5 years at its minimum, the term is diminished to 5 years. That is to say, in case of a juvenile convict an indeterminate sentence is admitted.

(3) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment are put in a special jail or in a section of the common prison secluded from adults. If they reach the age of 18 during the term of confinement they may still be kept secluded till they reach the age of 23.

(4) Juveniles sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment can obtain provisional release (a) after 7 years in case of a life-term sentence, (b) after 3 years in case of (1) above mentioned, (c) after serving one-third of the time in case of (2) above.

(5) Juveniles are not sent to work houses.

Second and Habitual Offenders

In case of those who repeat criminal deeds and commit other offences, especially in the case of professional and habitual offenders, it is necessary to put them into confinement for considerable lengths of time in order to give them time to reform their character and at the same time protect society at large from their depravations. To deal with these people Japanese criminal law provides a system of aggravating penalties for the recidivists and admits special dealing with habitual thieves as a complementary system.

Repetitious Offenders (Art. 56-59, Penal Code) When a person commits another crime and is sentenced to limited penal servitude within five years from the day of release from former penal servitude or from remission of execution of a penalty, he is classified as a second offender. Under the name of repetitious offenders come all second offenders and up. The cases of remission of penal execution are extinction of prescription, special pardon and the case stated in the Penal Code, Art. 5. Amnesty and probation not only

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remit penal execution, but also cancel the effect of the penalty altogether, and the crimes concerned cannot be taken as the basis for forming a repetitious offence. Again, when a person commits a crime during a term of probation the offence for which the probation was admitted is not counted as the first offence. The penalty inflicted on a repetitious offender is aggravated.

Habitual Thieves Habitual offenders are most numerous in burglary and larceny cases. The habitual offenders often regard prison as their residence and repeat crimes immediately after their release, to the great harm of the community, in order to get back "home". They have, therefore, to be separated from society by the infliction of comparatively long sentences. In many cases it has been impossible to increase the penalty, or when it has been increased it has still been too short, and as there is no provision in the existing Penal Code for unlimited imprisonment the Thief Prevention Law was enacted in 1930. According to this law, when persons commit burglary or larceny habitually by the use of weapons, or by forming a band of more than two, or stealthily breaking into houses by night, they are punished by being sent to penal servitude for more than 2 years in the case of a thief and more than 7 years in that of a burglar. The draft of the revised penal law of 1931 adopts the system of incarceration for unlimited terms for habitual offenders (draft, Article 91-95).

Peace Preservation

Penalties are imposed as deterrents, but are not always effective, especially in the case of insane people and habitual drunkards, as well as in that of habitual offenders. For that reason it is advisable that, in addition to meting out punishment for any wrong-doings, it should be possible to segregate such people from law-abiding society. To meet this need, most of the countries of the world have a supplementary system of Peace Preservation Laws, which restricts to a certain extent the freedom of released persons as long as their dangerous character is unimproved. In Japan the existing Penal Code makes no provision for such a system, but the draft of 1931 suggests four kinds of peace preservation regulations, namely, preventive surveillance, curative treatment, compulsory labour, and preventive detention.

Surveillance When persons who are defective in mind or body or are deaf-and-dumb are to be sentenced to imprisonment or some heavier penalty, the Court can decide to place them under surveillance. In case the sentence has already been passed for one reason or other, surveillance will follow the execution of the sentence, but in some cases it may be carried out before the commencement of execution or at any time during its course, (draft, Art. 127). Those who are put under this measure are to be kept in the surveillance house and receive treatment for their defectiveness, while being under surveillance. They may be released when further surveillance is found unnecessary by order of the administrative offices. In principle the time of surveillance is 5 years, but this may be renewed by the Court when thought necessary. When the sentence of penalty and the surveillance disposition are pronounced at the same time, the Court may choose either one of them as either of the two became unnecessary by the enforcement of the other.

Curative Treatment When drunkards or users of narcotics commit

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offences while in a state of intoxication or insensibility and it is found necessary to correct them of their bad habits, the Court may order them to be kept in Homes of Correction for a period of 2 years and receive proper curative treatment.

Compulsory Labour When persons who habitually commit crimes because of vagrancy or hatred of labour are to be sentenced, the Court may order compulsory labour together with the regular sentence for a period of 3 years, during which time they are to be kept in compulsory labour houses and compelled to work diligently under strict discipline in order to acquire the good habit of work. The chief official of the labour house may send them to work for the Government or to public or private factories, to farms or other places of labour, allowing them to stay outside the Compulsory Labour Houses, if deemed expedient.

Preventive Detention When the convicts who are to be released at the expiration of a term of penal servitude are found to be addicting to incendiarism or likely to commit murder or burglary, the Court may order them to undergo preventive detention, (draft, Art. 139). They are to be kept in Houses of Prevention and get the treatment necessary for leading them to full repentance. The duration of the treatment is 2 years in principle, but may be prolonged by the Court. This measure is to take effect after the expiration of the regular term of penal servitude, (draft, Art. 140-142).

Criminal Compensation System

A nation has the responsibility of compensating innocent persons who have been wrongfully punished or have been kept in detention during trial. The Criminal Compensation Law was enacted in 1931. Cases to be compensated according to the Law are as follows:

(1) When a verdict of "not guilty" or an acquittal has been given by the examining judge to a person who has been kept in detention, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the detention.

(2) In case a verdict of "guilty" is reversed by a higher court and the accused has already suffered the execution of the penalty or was kept in detention before the execution, the State makes compensation for the loss caused by the penalty or detention.

When the accused is dead, the bereaved get the compensation. The bereaved in the terms of the Law are meant to be the spouse, children, grandchildren, parents, grandparents and those whose names were in the same census registration at the time of the death of the accused.

As compensation for unlawful arrest or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid against the warrant of arrest or for each day of detention after the arrest or for each day of detention after the execution of the warrant of detention.

As compensation for penal servitude, imprisonment, or detention, a sum of less than 5 yen is paid for each day of the whole period. The same rule applies to detention before the execution of the death penalty.

As compensation to the bereaved of a person who has mistakenly suffered the death penalty, a sum of money considered reasonable by the Court is given in addition to the compensation for detention.

As compensation for a monetary penalty or fine wrongly imposed, the amount of money corresponding to that of the monetary penalty or fine already paid is given back. In case a person was unable to pay the amount imposed and in lieu was kept

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in a labour house a sum of 5 yen for each day of detention is paid as compensation.

Claims for compensation should be made to the Court returning the verdict of "not guilty" or to the Court in which the examining judge pronounced the acquittal.

Statistics

In the following there are attached a number of statistics relevant to the judicature of the country for reference:

I NUMBER OF COURTS (Oct. 1, 1934)

	Supreme Court	Courts of Appeal	Local Courts	Branch Courts	District Courts	Branch Offices
	1	Tokyo	11	17	64	413
		Osaka	9	12	43	277
		Nagoya	6	9	30	203
		Hiroshima	6	13	36	252
		Nagasaki	8	17	53	284
		Miyagi	6	16	36	228
		Sapporo	5	3	20	96
Total	1	7	51	87	282	1,753

II CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF CASES INVESTIGATED BY THE PUBLIC PROCURATORS (1933)

Name of Offence	Number of cases new	old	Persons examined	Prosecutions cases	persons
Criminal Code Offences					
Against the Imperial House	37	10	67	10	12
Against the execution of official duties	1,048	38	87	227	316
Escaping from prison, etc.	30	—	33	14	14
Giving shelter to a criminal or destroying evidence	116	1	217	21	32
Sedition	3	2	330	1	47
Fires through incendiarism or negligence	13,881	114	14,897	2,828	2,979
Inundating and interfering with irrigation	196	3	485	6	11
Interfering with traffic	858	19	1,183	124	151
House-breaking	4,747	60	6,117	1,300	1,415
Disclosing a secret of another person	44	—	50	5	5
Disclosing national secret	1	—	8	—	—
Opium smoking	16	3	45	12	21
Polluting drinking water	61	—	74	15	19
Forgery of currency	65	—	106	31	64
Forgery of documents	5,114	333	8,453	675	960
Forgery of negotiable securities	608	57	1,069	160	292
Forgery of seals or stamps	4,079	20	4,224	21	33
Perjury	1,482	167	2,657	83	148
False accusation	1,086	51	1,690	39	42
Obscenity, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	3,001	92	4,651	842	1,238
Gambling and lotteries	19,218	98	85,836	12,170	50,390
Disturbing worship, etc.	312	5	510	41	54
Malversation	735	51	2,414	283	799
Murder	2,445	42	2,896	1,132	1,338
Inflicting injury	28,129	256	39,687	8,104	9,759
Inflicting injury by negligence	19,080	317	20,369	5,207	5,350
Criminal abortion	502	18	1,377	96	173
Desertion of children	298	4	389	12	15
Arresting or confining others unlawfully	128	9	303	10	29
Intimidation	1,690	33	2,674	362	402

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Name of Offence	Number of cases new	Number of cases old	Persons examined	Prosecutions cases	Prosecutions persons
Kidnapping and abduction	1,503	55	2,354	128	166
Defamation	2,371	82	3,440	151	172
Unlawful interference with another man's credit and business	843	83	1,654	42	93
Theft and burglary	122,232	364	136,609	19,910	21,413
Fraud and blackmail	89,431	2,155	119,179	5,782	7,378
Usurpation	48,243	908	55,577	2,379	2,648
Receiving stolen property	4,677	112	5,410	660	830
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	2,336	100	3,699	112	124
Total	380,646	5,662	532,869	62,995	108,928
Offences against Special Laws	121,905	1,142	174,131	45,415	69,565

Name of Offence	Non-prosecutions cases	Non-prosecutions persons	Miscellaneous cases	Miscellaneous persons	Total cases	Total persons	Not yet decided cases	Not yet decided persons
Criminal Code Offences								
Against the Imperial House	24	31	6	10	40	53	7	14
Against the execution of official duties	720	1,063	92	176	1,039	1,555	47	82
Escaping from prison, etc.	10	11	5	7	24	32	1	1
Giving shelter to a criminal or destroying evidence	84	163	9	15	114	210	3	7
Sedition	2	260	2	23	5	330	—	—
Fires through incendiarism or negligence	10,536	11,232	520	559	13,884	14,770	111	127
Inundating and interfering with irrigation	177	444	11	13	194	468	5	17
Interfering with traffic	464	693	261	305	849	1,149	28	34
House-breaking	3,028	4,049	418	519	4,746	5,983	61	134
Disclosing a secret of another person	36	42	2	2	43	49	1	1
Disclosing national secret	1	8	—	—	1	8	—	—
Opium smoking	2	10	5	14	19	45	—	—
Polluting drinking water	36	47	10	12	61	74	—	—
Forgery of currency	23	28	9	12	63	104	7	2
Forgery of documents	3,551	5,446	881	1,349	5,107	7,755	340	698
Forgery of negotiable securities	351	491	134	245	645	1,028	20	41
Forgery of seals or stamps	3,956	4,056	110	121	4,087	4,210	12	13
Perjury	1,104	1,716	232	377	1,419	2,241	230	416
False accusation	921	1,365	108	158	1,068	1,565	69	125
Obscenity, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	1,706	2,553	456	707	3,004	4,498	89	153
Gambling and lotteries	6,204	28,109	861	6,739	19,235	85,238	81	598
Disturbing worship, etc.	200	362	70	77	311	493	6	7
Malversation	356	1,113	90	301	729	2,213	57	201
Murder	1,012	1,118	289	364	2,443	2,820	44	76
Inflicting injury	17,548	25,676	2,485	3,714	28,137	39,149	248	538
Inflicting injury by negligence	11,601	12,247	2,138	2,254	18,946	19,851	451	518
Criminal abortion	354	1,018	53	116	503	1,307	17	70
Desertion of children, etc.	194	259	89	103	295	377	7	12
Arresting or confining others unlawfully	105	214	16	40	131	283	6	20
Intimidation	1,145	1,957	200	264	1,707	2,623	16	51
Kidnapping and abduction	872	1,350	516	748	1,516	2,264	42	90
Defamation	2,028	2,815	156	209	2,335	3,196	118	244
Unlawful interference with another man's credit and business	736	242	105	187	883	1,522	43	132
Theft and burglary	87,119	97,004	15,272	17,680	122,301	136,097	295	512
Fraud and blackmail	61,904	78,861	22,000	29,152	89,686	115,891	1,900	3,788

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Name of Offence	Non-prosecutions		Miscellaneous		Total		Not yet decided	
	cases	persons	cases	persons	cases	persons	cases	persons
Usurpation	37,074	41,713	8,904	9,860	48,357	54,221	794	1,356
Receiving stolen property	3,714	4,498	367	490	4,741	5,818	48	92
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	2,076	3,131	184	303	2,372	3,558	64	141
Total	260,974	336,395	57,076	77,225	381,045	522,548	5,263	10,321
Offences against Special Laws	51,994	71,870	24,520	30,508	121,929	171,943	1,118	2,188

III BOYS AND GIRLS DEALT WITH IN JUVENILE COURTS

Year	Number of persons dealt with		Number of persons who finished examination: Not put on trial	Put under protective disposition	Sent to the public procurator	Sent to other courts	Total
1929	Boys	12,346	7,752	4,227	2	25	12,006
	Girls	1,019	573	409	—	1	983
1930	Boys	12,835	8,328	4,123	3	17	12,471
	Girls	998	565	405	—	—	970
1931	Boys	13,141	8,572	4,218	7	22	12,819
	Girls	1,015	555	429	—	1	985
1932	Boys	13,402	8,478	4,543	1	17	13,039
	Girls	1,154	670	441	—	1	1,112
1933	Boys	16,171	10,841	4,865	—	19	15,725
	Girls	1,201	716	441	—	1	1,158

IV NUMBER OF JUVENILES DEALT WITH IN THE HOUSES OF CORRECTION

Year	Persons received	Number of persons who went out of the House of Correction: Released	Provisional release	Cancel of decision or its revision	Abscondence	Death	Sent to other house	Misc.	Total
1929	1,224	43	76	666	66	3	—	9	863
1930	1,252	65	82	745	83	1	—	1	977
1931	1,259	71	65	774	52	1	—	3	966
1932	1,172	71	63	730	54	—	2	7	927
1933	1,061	83	22	676	13	1	—	3	798

V NUMBER OF PRISONS (Oct. 1, 1934)

Prisons	Branches	Total
52	103	155

VI YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CASES

/ Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Average for 5 years
Criminal Code Offences						
Theft	12,970	14,807	15,498	17,771	19,259	16,061
Gambling and lotteries	1,514	1,444	1,379	1,144	1,405	1,377
Fraud and usurpation	4,503	5,175	5,441	5,990	6,792	5,580
Forgery of documents, negotiable securities and seals or stamps	417	495	484	500	508	481
Injury	1,342	1,460	1,402	1,561	1,528	1,459
Receiving stolen articles	245	303	350	340	516	351
Murder	418	490	558	666	684	562
Burglary	641	673	651	800	757	704
Incendiarism	416	444	613	772	818	613
Interference with the execution of official duties	82	55	97	83	94	82
Destruction and concealment of another man's property	16	14	11	9	18	14

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/ Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Average for 5 years
Forgery of currency	37	26	31	50	68	42
Abortion	24	26	39	32	30	30
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	183	221	204	243	279	226
House-breaking	261	298	248	282	288	275
Perjury	35	37	38	38	46	39
False accusation	12	10	15	15	12	13
Others	366	438	437	442	442	425
Offences against Special Laws						
Criminal law of the army and navy	42	41	28	46	56	43
The forest law	44	40	37	40	37	40
The military service law	9	18	8	9	12	11
The mail and telegraphy law	1	7	7	5	2	4
Others	559	924	858	971	1,368	936
Police laws, and prefectural laws	5,222	5,744	5,504	4,478	4,461	5,082
Total	29,354	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	34,450

VII YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO THE TERM OF SERVITUDE

/ Year	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Average for 5 years
Penal Servitude						
Penal servitude for life	38	43	38	57	61	47
Over 15 years	5	20	52	38	56	34
Less than 15 years	55	57	58	68	53	58
Under 10 years	692	765	760	890	996	821
Under 5 years	1,693	1,764	1,723	2,046	2,309	1,907
„ 3 „	2,628	2,719	2,766	3,210	3,685	3,002
„ 2 „	5,244	5,560	5,745	6,840	7,479	6,174
„ 1 year	8,288	9,894	10,668	12,049	13,111	10,802
„ 6 months	3,686	4,390	4,464	4,638	5,033	4,442
„ 3 „	1,641	1,838	1,829	1,560	1,771	1,728
Total	23,970	27,050	28,103	31,396	34,554	29,015
Imprisonment						
For life	—	—	—	—	—	—
Over 15 years	—	—	—	—	2	0
Less than 15 years	—	—	—	—	1	0
Under 10 years	—	—	—	—	3	1
Under 5 years	—	—	—	—	11	2
„ 3 „	1	—	—	—	1	0
„ 2 „	4	5	7	2	1	4
„ 1 year	2	11	6	3	5	5
„ 6 months	17	28	54	69	48	43
„ 3 „	110	316	249	304	368	269
Total	134	360	316	378	440	326
Detention	5,237	5,765	5,500	4,491	4,458	5,090
Death penalty	13	15	19	22	28	19
Total	29,354	33,190	33,938	36,287	39,480	34,450

VIII YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF CRIMES

	1929		1930		1931	
	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists
Theft	5,358	7,612	6,585	8,222	6,771	8,727
Burglary	688	243	455	215	436	207
Gambling and lotteries	963	551	931	513	856	523
Fraud and terrorism	1,750	1,585	2,133	1,734	2,264	1,861
Usurpation	804	364	933	375	974	342
Receiving stolen goods	135	92	216	87	225	125
Forgery of currency	25	12	19	7	21	10

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	1929		1930		1931	
	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists
Forgery of documents, seals or stamps	330	87	391	104	389	95
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	149	34	189	32	167	37
Injury	1,034	307	1,117	341	1,100	302
Murder	375	34	423	55	498	49
Abortion	20	4	23	3	34	5
Sedition	25	7	18	—	19	1
Incendiarism	330	36	423	21	567	46
Others	501	239	569	265	578	248
Offences against special laws	540	101	894	117	826	116
Total	12,796	11,308	15,319	12,091	15,725	12,694

	1932		1933		Average for 5 years	
	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists	First offenders	Recidivists
Theft	7,950	9,821	8,610	10,649	7,055	9,006
Burglary	541	248	519	215	468	226
Gambling and lotteries	721	423	893	512	873	504
Fraud and terrorism	2,669	1,992	2,917	2,231	2,347	1,881
Usurpation	1,001	328	1,208	441	983	370
Receiving stolen goods	229	111	357	159	236	115
Forgery of currency	39	11	62	6	33	9
Forgery of documents, seals or stamps	393	107	358	120	378	103
Obscenities, illicit sexual intercourse and bigamy	196	47	252	27	191	35
Injury	1,231	329	1,178	350	1,132	326
Murder	604	52	606	73	501	53
Abortion	25	7	24	6	25	5
Sedition	39	2	43	3	29	3
Incendiarism	727	45	771	47	574	39
Others	569	258	582	272	560	256
Offences against special laws	917	142	1,332	146	902	124
Total	17,851	13,923	19,737	15,257	16,286	13,055

IX THE NUMBER OF CONVICTS AT THE END OF EACH YEAR

Classes		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Average for 5 years
Convicts	men	36,859	40,595	41,671	45,730	49,272	42,825
	women	634	593	582	594	650	611
Accused	men	3,916	4,628	4,611	5,536	5,924	4,923
	women	103	133	131	165	247	156
Detained in the house of labour	men	317	472	492	461	514	451
	women	5	9	13	16	16	12
Infants	boys	5	5	4	2	3	4
	girls	3	4	3	4	1	3
Total	men	41,097	45,700	46,778	51,729	55,713	48,203
	women	745	759	729	779	914	781
Sum total		41,842	46,439	47,507	52,508	56,627	48,985

X YEARLY COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF NEW CONVICTS

Classes	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Average for 5 years
Convicts	29,344	33,190	33,988	36,287	39,480	34,450
Suspects	16,644	16,864	16,635	17,498	17,560	17,040
Accused	27,995	34,413	33,737	36,533	38,594	35,254
Kept in the house of labour	5,456	7,909	9,658	11,272	10,851	9,029
Infants (a) born in prison	3	2	6	4	7	4
,, (b) taken in with mother	27	29	26	19	27	26
Total	30	31	32	23	34	30
Sum total	79,469	92,407	94,000	101,613	106,519	94,804

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Prison System

Historical Background

A short historical retrospect of our penal system will show that it is only in comparatively modern times that "Imprisonment" became the recognized method for the punishment of crime.

Up till recent times the idea at the root of the Japanese penal system was minatory. In other words, the so-called principle of general prevention by warning the people at large against the commission of crimes by imposing heavy punishments upon criminals was adopted. Accordingly, the punishments were principally capital and corporal and extremely cruel in character. For instance, the Criminal Code of the Yedo Period (1502-1867) recognized the exposing in public of the heads of persons executed; crucifying, burning at the stake and other similar cruel punishments were imposed. In those days the jails were used merely as places of detention for various offenders until their trial, not as places for reforming offenders. Imprisonment was a very unusual form of punishment, for prisons were unknown and imprisonment was not a legal penalty.

Exile and Banishment Punishments which brought loss of liberty for specified periods to the criminal were exile and banishment. Persons punished with exile were sent to distant islands and places such as Satsuma, islands of the Goto group, Oki, Iki and Amakusa, and there they were forced to work under such miserable conditions that most of them died of starvation. Banishment was a penalty designed to expel persons convicted of crimes from certain fixed areas, and, as the result of the enforcement of this punishment in certain districts industries declined and farms and fields lay waste, giving rise to many social evils such as the increase in the number of ronin (masterless samurai), mushukumono (vagabonds) and other dangerous elements. In 1778, therefore, as a remedial measure, the Tokugawa Shogunate instituted the system of kozan-yékifu (mine labour) and, in 1790, that of ninsoku-yoseba (places for the detention of convict-coolies). The system of kozan-yékifu dealt with vagabonds with no previous convictions. These were sent as coolies to pump water out of the Sado gold-mine. In and after 1788, those who had been punished with flogging or marked with tattooes as ex-convicts and were homeless or those who, it was feared, might perpetrate crimes in the future were sent there also.

Prototype of Present Prisons The ninsoku-yoseba were to all intents and purposes the prototype of present day prisons and penal servitude. These places for the detention of convict-coolies were located at Ishikawajima and Tsukudajima in Yedo and at Kamigo-mura, Tsukuba-gun, Hitachi province, and there vagabonds and those who had been punished with flogging or marked with tattooes as ex-convicts were detailed to work as oil pressers or at other kinds of labour for a fixed wage, with the ulterior object of giving them such instruction and training as would fit them to lead the lives of respectable members of society. In and after 1820 those who were punished with banishment heavier than that from the confines of Yedo (Tokyo) were put to forced labour for a fixed period of time in lieu of that punishment. Thus the ninsoku-yoseba, which had been instituted as workhouses for vagabonds, were turned into prisons for the reclama-

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tion of criminals through ordered life and labour. In its correctional idea ninsoku-yoseba was entirely identical with the London "Bridewell," which was established in England in 1550 "to punish, correct, and reform by labour of a diversified nature," and the Amsterdam workhouse (tuchthuis) founded at the end of the 16th century and well known for its motto, "Schrick niet! ick wreeck geen quaet, maer dwing tot goedt, straf ist myn handt, mar lieflijck myn gemoedt." (Do not fear! I will not take revenge upon you for your misdeed; on the contrary, I wish to lead you to good. Although I am rigorous in handling you, my heart is filled with kindliness towards you.) In and after 1790 the prisoners detained in the ninsoku-yoseba who behaved well and showed notable signs of penitence were liberated on certain conditions and this may be taken as the enforcement of provisional release of prisoners for the first time in Japan. When it is remembered that the system of provisional release of prisoners in Europe originated in a favoured release of prisoners from a convicts' colony in Australia in 1791, it is an interesting coincidence that the same system was inaugurated simultaneously both in the West and the East.

Improvement of 1872 In 1871, with a view to carrying out a great improvement in our prison system, the Emperor Meiji despatched the Vice-Director of Prisons, Mr. Jinsai Obara, to Hongkong and Singapore to inspect and study the prison systems there, and, as a result, the Prison Regulations, the first written law concerning prisons in Japan, were promulgated in 1872. According to the provisions of these regulations, the reclamation and education of the inmates of prisons should be based on love and benevolence. At the beginning of the Regulations, it is stated: "Prison is a place for the incarceration of criminals for chastisement. They are placed there because of love and benevolence towards them and not because of any desire to inflict cruelty upon them; prison is intended for chastising them and not for subjecting them to hardships. Punishment is imposed on them because it is unavoidable and because it is a means of removing evil from the State. The authorities of prisons shall conscientiously observe this principle in treating prisoners." The Regulations were framed on a progressive system and on very advanced lines, but subsequently their operation was suspended for a time, and, in 1881, the Revised Prison Regulations were published. The Regulations were again revised in 1889, and, with the revision of the Criminal Code in 1907, the existing Prison Law was enacted that year and published the following year.

Management of Prisons

Prisons are placed under the control of the Minister of Justice. Prior to 1900, they were under the control of the Minister of Home Affairs, but, since that year, they have come under the supervision of the Minister of Justice. With the transfer of affairs relating to prisons from the Department of Home Affairs to the Department of Justice, the Bureau of Prisons was established in the latter Department for the administration of matters concerning the execution of sentences, prisons, provisional releases of prisoners, and the identification of criminals by finger-prints. A Director, several secretaries and a hygiene official of the Department, several clerks and three assistant-experts in finger-prints were appointed to conduct the business of the Bureau.

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Today there are 52 ordinary prisons, 3 reformatory prisons for minors, and 103 branch-prisons, and of 1933, was 56,627. (See Table IX, p. 763.)

The kinds and regular number of prison officials are as follows:

Governor (officials of sonin rank)	43
Assistant-governors (officials of sonin rank)	34
Doctors (accorded treatment as officials of sonin rank)	93
Chaplains (accorded treatment as officials of sonin and hannin ranks)	142
Instructors (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	37
Industrial work experts (accorded treatment as officials of sonin rank)	19
Assistant industrial work experts (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	421
Assistant doctors (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	44
Pharmacists (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank)	10
Chief warders (officials of hannin rank) (including 5 chief wardresses)	479
Interpreters (officials of hannin rank	4
Warders (accorded treatment as officials of hannin rank) (including 171 wardresses)	6,669
Workers, miscellaneous	627
Total	8,622

Prison superintendents are appointed from among officials ranking as governors and assistant-governors by the Minister of Justice, and branch-prison governors from among assistant-governors and chief warders.

Classification

In the Japanese prison system there are four kinds of prisons: (1) prisons for those sentenced to penal servitude; (2) prisons for those sentenced to imprisonment; (3) houses of detention for persons destined to spend time in detention, and (4) prisons of confinement for (a) those sentenced to death, (b) those awaiting trial. In view of the different characters of these prisons, they should, in principle, be established independently of one another, and, in the case of their being erected in the same area, they are usually separated. At present, workhouses are not classified as prisons, but are attached to prisons for the sake of convenience.

Treatment of Prisoners

Object of Treatment As to what is the primary and fundamental purpose of punishment of imprisonment, nothing is stated in the Criminal Code or in the Prison Code now in force. Some Japanese jurists are of opinion that punishment must remain in its essence retributive and deterrent, accordingly a prisoner must be made to expiate his offence by a dull, soulless, and monotonous servitude, but such new scholars of criminal law and penology as Dr. Yeiichi Makino, Professor of Criminal Law, Tokyo Imperial University, Prof. Kameji Kimura and Dr. Akira Masaki, Assistant Director, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, interpret it as a form of education and emphasize its socializing effects. Be that as it may, Japanese juridical authorities have for more than ten years endeavoured to reform prisons on the latter principle. On April 4, 1924, Dr. Kisaburo Suzuki, the then Minister of Justice, declared at a meeting of officials connected with prisons and criminal affairs, "The enforcement of punishments consists in the adoption of such measures as may improve the quality of convicted persons and socialize them as good and law-abiding members of society." Further, at a meeting of the governors of prisons and reformatory prisons for minors held on October 11, 1927, Dr. Kado Hara, the then Minister of Justice, gave the following instructions:

"The object of enforcing punishments on the inmates of prisons is to cause them to reflect on and repent their offences and to turn

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them into good members of society. There are many and various means of attaining this object, but they are, in the final analysis, to cultivate their character, to give them training for different occupations, and to maintain their health in good condition, while improving the circumstances which constitute the causes of their offences so as to enable them to lead a decent life. In order to realize the end aimed at, therefore, a mere confinement and watching of them is not sufficient; on the contrary, it is necessary to know their individual characteristics and to inquire into and ascertain the motives and causes of their crimes, giving them thereby appropriate treatment."

Classification System Inasmuch as punishment by the restriction of personal liberty is enforced today principally with a view to education, criminals are properly classified according to ages, characteristics, terms of imprisonment, numbers and kinds of offences, and are then confined in different prisons so as to facilitate the enforcement of adequate measures for their education in accordance with their categories and, further, to prevent prisons from becoming breeding-places of crime through mutual contact and contagion as the result of promiscuous confinement of all grades. When it is impossible to distribute them among independent prisons and they are confined in the same area, prisoners are usually classified strictly and confined separately according to their categories. There are prisons for minors at Odawara, Kawagoyé, Himéji, Okazaki, Iwakuni, Kurumé, Morioka, and Hachioji and in Hokkaido for the confinement of those under 18 years of age sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, prisons for aged persons at Hamamatsu and Yonago and for women at Tochigi, Miyoshi and Miyazu. Further, there are prisons for the confinement of persons sentenced to terms of imprisonment exceeding 10 years at Kosugé, Takamatsu, Hiroshima, Okayama, Miyagi, and Abashiri; the Abashiri agricultural prison is intended for training prisoners as agricultural labourers. At Uraga, located in an old warship anchored off the port, is a branch of the Odawara prison for minors. There juvenile offenders are given training as fishermen, and sometimes engage in coastal and deep-sea fishing in sailing-vessels or steamers.

In addition to the above-mentioned classified confinement, with a view to proper individualized treatment, they are examined by doctors, alienists, psychologists and educationists to find out their psychopathic idiosyncrasies, hereditary natures, physiological peculiarities, adaptabilities to occupations, educational possibilities, etc. in different prisons previous to their confinement. Further, a "social diagnosis" is made by collecting reports on them from city, town and village offices, police stations, schools, and organizations devoted to their protection in order that they may be suitably classified for treatment.

Progressive System A treatment on the progressive system is accorded to convicts who form the bulk of the inmates of prisons. This treatment aims at leading them to repent and their treatment is graded in proportion to their aspiration and diligence, thereby gradually bringing them to the conditions of ordinary social life. The relaxation of the enforcement of penalties not merely extends the scope of the personal liberty of convicts, but serves to cultivate a sense of responsibility on their part and strengthens their will for self-reclamation. In short, its chief pur-

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pose is not to make "good convicts", but to turn them into "good citizens." The treatment in question does not apply to persons who are sentenced to imprisonment for less than 6 months, aged and decrepit persons, and those of unsound mental or physical faculties. Any prisoner committed for the first time is kept in solitary confinement for a certain period of time and a close study is made of him. In the basis of the results he is classified according to character, physical and mental condition, number of convictions, age, nature of crimes, term of service, home, health and thought.

The Four Stages The stages of the progressive treatment are: (1) those under investigation; (2) those in course of correction and training; (3) those in process of improvement; and (4) those who have developed a sense of responsibility. After being subjected to a study of character, convicts are received into the first class to begin with. Those who are accorded this treatment are given fixed marks according to the terms of imprisonment and promotion to higher classes is given only when a sufficient number of marks have been earned by diligence, good conduct, and growth of the sense of responsibility and of the will for self-improvement. Those belonging to the first and second classes are kept in confinement in association, while those belonging to the third class are kept in confinement in association in the day time, but in solitary confinement at night, those belonging to the fourth class are confined in a special room.

The Treatment Governors of prisons may cause convicts in each workshop to elect some from among them to keep the workshop in good order and look after other necessary matters. The elected ones must be popular, trustworthy and belong to the third class. Prisoners belonging to the third class must jointly, once a month, carry out the work of cleaning and sweeping of prison grounds and keeping them in order. Except in cases of special need, prisoners belonging to the fourth class do not undergo physical examination or have their cells searched, and, further, are permitted to talk with one another so long as it does not interfere with the maintenance of discipline. They are also permitted to elect two representatives that they may express their desires to the authorities. These representatives are nominated by the governor of the prison concerned from among several candidates elected by prisoners belonging to the fourth class. Prisoners of the fourth class may be permitted to take a walk in a place designated for that purpose in the prison grounds in hours of recess, or hold meetings, take a walk in a group, or hold athletic meetings on days free from labour. They give a pledge to the governor, holding themselves responsible for the physical examination of those of their own class, for the search of their cells and keeping them in order, and the maintenance of order among themselves. In case of any one of them violating the pledge, the privileged treatment will be suspended for a part or all of them. Any one of those belonging to the first class who earns more than ¥5.00 for labour may be permitted to use less than one-fifth of the monthly total in buying postage stamps and in other ways that are deemed necessary; any one of those belonging to the second class less than one-fourth of the monthly total; any one of those belonging to the third class less than one-third of the monthly total; and any one of those belonging to the fourth class less than one-half of the monthly

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total. While those of the first class are not permitted to change the kinds of labour they engage in, those of the second class and up are permitted to do so. Those who have superior skill or high efficiency and belong to the third class are charged with the task of directing industrial work and those who are similarly qualified in the fourth class are given the task of directing and supervising it. Those of the third class who have particularly superior skill and high efficiency are permitted to work for their own profit in time other than working hours, but that time is limited to two hours per day.

Moral Education Prisoners belonging to the first and fourth classes are chiefly given individual moral and religious instruction, while those belonging to the second and third classes receive the same instruction en masse. Listening to music broadcast on the radio and listening to the playing of gramophone records is permitted to those belonging to the second and higher classes. The time for the enjoyment of this privilege is fixed at twice a month for those belonging to the second class, which may be increased to three times and four times for those belonging to the third and fourth classes respectively. The governor may permit members of the third and fourth classes to hold moral cultural meetings, the number of times being limited to once for those belonging to the third class and twice for those belonging to the fourth. Prisoners of the fourth class are permitted to read books or see pictures in the prison library on days free from labour and may also borrow suitable newspapers and magazines from it. Those of the third and fourth classes may be permitted to play athletic games, the number of times for such amusements being limited to once a month for those of the third and twice for those of the fourth class. While those belonging to the first class are permitted to interview or send letters only to their relatives and those who are concerned with their protection, those belonging to the second and higher classes are permitted to interview or send letters to those who do not interfere with their moral instruction, besides their relatives. The number of times of interviews and of writing letters increases in proportion to advances in class.

Provisions, drinks and other articles for the maintenance of the health of prisoners are uniform and do not differ according to classes. Those belonging to the fourth class are given white garments, are permitted to decorate their cells with flowers or pictures, and are lent table-ware and other sundry articles for common use.

Suspension of Progress In case any prisoner violates the prison regulations, the treatment on the progressive system may be suspended for up to a period of 3 months, but, in case it is recognized that there are certain circumstances which have to be taken into consideration before the suspension or in case the prisoner shows signs of sincere penitence, the enforcement of the sentence of suspension may be postponed for a fixed period of time. If he further violates the prison regulations during that period, the sentence of suspension will be enforced, but, if he passes the said period without any further violation, it will not be carried out. Further, in case a prisoner shows marked signs of penitence after the sentence has been delivered, this will be taken into consideration and the sentence repealed in full or in part. In case a prisoner who has been punished with suspension of the treatment

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again violates the prison regulations, he may be transferred to a lower class according to the circumstances of the case. When a prisoner who has been punished with such degradation shows marked signs of penitence, he will be restored to his former category without reckoning his marks.

When any person of the fourth class has served one-third of his term of imprisonment and the prison governor considers him fit for provisional release, his case should be reported on to the Minister of Justice. Even one who belongs to lower classes and who has served one-third of his term and shows notable signs of penitence and is considered to be fully adapted to social life may be specifically granted provisional release, subject to the approval of the conference for provisional treatment on the progressive system.

Prison Labour

Paragraph 2 of the Japanese Criminal Code provides: "Any convict sentenced to penal servitude shall be detained in a prison and subjected to a fixed amount of labour." This "fixed amount of labour" constitutes prison labour. It is not legally imposed on convicts punished with imprisonment or custody, but its imposition is permitted in case they desire it. Since the institution of the ninsoku-yoseba at Ishikawajima, hard labour has been recognized as an essential part of the discipline of prisoners, and present-day criminal theory in Japan is opposed to punishment by the restriction of personal liberty without the imposition of hard labour. Accordingly, the prison authorities are encouraging industrial work at their own request by prisoners punished with imprisonment or custody.

The Three Systems Industrial work in prisons is managed on three systems, viz.: the public account system, the "made-to-order" system, and the contract system. Under the public account system, a prison itself purchases materials, provides itself with the necessary machinery, implements and tools and makes prisoners manufacture or repair articles or carry on labour under the direction of prison officials, and sells the products. Under the "made-to-order" system, the chief materials are supplied by the outside buyers and prisoners either manufacture or repair articles under the direction of industrial work experts and assistant industrial work experts on the prison staff, and, when the articles are either manufactured or repaired, the wages of the workers and the cost of requisites in the manufacture or repair are calculated and the prices of the articles fixed by the standard of current prices. The articles are then delivered to the buyers on payment of the account. Under the contract system, applicants have to supply not only materials, machinery, implements and tools, but also experts for the direction of work, a prison only offering the labour of prisoners and receiving their wages in exchange. In the contract system now in force in Japan, the prison authorities undertake the supply of provisions, etc. to prisoners as well as their supervision and selection for work and nothing like the lease system that was in vogue in South American countries at one time is recognized.

Among the above-mentioned three different systems, the public account system does not permit any third party other than the prison officials to direct prisoners in the prosecution of their work as in the case of the contract system and, moreover, enables the prison authorities to select and impose on pris-

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oners such kinds of work as are suited for their moral instruction and vocational education. In these respects, it is considered to be the most desirable for the enforcement of penological measures and its adoption is greatly encouraged.

Current Prices Considered When the selling prices of the articles produced in prisons are lower than current market prices, there is a fear of their adversely affecting private undertakings generally. Paragraph 17 of the prison industrial work regulations, therefore, provides : "The selling prices of the manufactures and agricultural products turned out under the public account system shall be calculated by the standard of current market prices, after taking into account the cost of materials and wages paid for the work, but the prices of articles intended for self-supply need not be fixed by the standard of current market prices." As, however, prisoners' wages are low, the selling prices are liable to become low, and the cry that prison products compete unfairly with products of private industries was heard many years ago, and as early as 1891, the competent authorities issued to the prisons throughout the country the following instructions, "As industrial work by prisoners may, it is feared, obstruct the business of the local people by reason of the methods adopted for its execution, care shall be exercised lest the local industrialists of minor standing should suffer or those private undertakings that bid fair to develop be nipped in the bud by using an excessive number of prisoners in one line of industry or by starting such industries as have hitherto been carried on by many local inhabitants and conducting them on a large scale." At the present day, the prisons principally adopt the "State use system", namely, a policy of manufacturing articles needed by the Government offices and public organizations and are taking pains to avoid competition with private undertakings as much as possible.

Training for Occupation In imposing work on prisoners, the most suitable kinds of work are given them not only by taking into consideration health, economy, terms of imprisonment, ability, occupations in free life, and future means of livelihood, but also by scientifically examining their individual adaptabilities to occupations. Industrial work in prisons is the most suitable means of giving moral instruction to prisoners ; in particular, to train them in certain lines of work in the course of detention is the best way to prevent their again perpetrating crimes. Since 1926, therefore, houses for the training of prisoners for occupations have been erected in different prisons throughout the country and there prisoners have been trained for occupations requiring special skill such as those of carpenters, joiners, furniture-makers, tin-smiths, plasterers, timber-mill workers, painters, smiths, shoemakers, etc. The term of training is 6 months, during which fundamental theories and practice are taught.

Reward Given as Favour Working hours are from 12 to 13 hours a day and differ according to months. It is permitted to give educational or moral instruction to prisoners or allow them to take exercise within these hours. A time of recess—15 minutes in the morning and 25 minutes in the afternoon—is given them. All the income from the work of prisoners goes into the national treasury, irrespective of whether it arises from work or from wages. A prisoner who has worked may receive a reward as a favour. This gratuity varies from ¥0.20 to ¥10.00 per month and the sums are fixed

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according to conduct, character, kinds of work, and the results of the work done. Any one who does particularly superior work is given an additional reward not exceeding ¥10.00. The reward for his work is, in principle, not given a prisoner until he is released from prison, but (1) in case a prisoner is entitled to ¥10.00 a month or more, and the money is needed to support his father, mother, wife, child, or to compensate the sufferer from his crime, or to purchase books or other necessary articles, one-third of the amount may be given him while in confinement, and (2) in case it is particularly necessary to do so for the sake of a prisoner, the entire reward may be handed over to him, irrespective of its amount and the way of spending it. In case a prisoner has been injured or has fallen sick while at work, and has died in consequence or has become unable to carry on any work, he may be entitled to a pecuniary reward according to the circumstances of the case. This reward is fixed within the limit of from ¥50 to ¥180 according to the details of the case.

The Hito Prisoners are given moral instruction en masse on national holidays, on the first two days of January and the 31st of December, or on Sundays. The same instruction is also given prisoners individually in case it is deemed necessary. It is chiefly given by chaplains appointed from among priests of the Shinshu sect. Adult prisoners who are uneducated and those under age receive an elementary school education. The latter are also given military training, which gives very satisfactory results in the way of moral instruction. Prisoners are permitted to read books and look at maps and pictures, unless it is injurious to the good order of the prison, but writings concerning current topics are forbidden. As, however, it is needful to keep them acquainted with changes in the condition of society, lest they should fall behind the times, a specially edited newspaper "Hito" (Man) is issued and distributed among them.

Aid of Discharged Prisoners

In its initial stage of development, the aid of discharged prisoners was largely undertaken by the Government. As already stated, the systems of "kozan-yekifu" and of "ninsoku-yoseba" were the origin of punishment by the restriction of personal liberty and incidentally of Government provision for the protection of ex-convicts. After the Meiji Restoration, in 1881, a system called "betsubo-ryuchi" (detention of discharged prisoners in separate quarters) was instituted, under which discharged prisoners who, after the expiration of their terms of sentence, had no one to go to, were detained in special quarters in prisons to enable them to make a living and to be protected by the authorities. As, subsequently, the number of these ex-convicts increased, this system had to be abolished in 1888, but, feeling that if those who had served their terms and had no one to look to or live with were allowed to live as they were inclined after their liberation, they might, it was feared, again lead a life of crime, the Government encouraged charitably disposed persons to carry on work for their welfare. Thus, the aiding of discharged prisoners by individuals and private organizations grew in scope.

The Organizations Among these organizations, one noted for its systematic constitution and management was the Shutsu-gokunin Hogo Kaisha (Ex-Convicts Protection Co.) established by Mr. Meizen Kinbara in Shizuoka prefecture. In 1907,

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the Government decided to make an appropriation of ¥10,000 from the national treasury every year for the encouragement of the work and, later in 1912, the sum was increased to ¥30,000. With the development of the work, the number of organizations grew and was returned at 211 throughout the country at the end of 1912. In 1913, Baron Hachiroyemon Mitsui, head of the House of Mitsui, donated ¥750,000 to the work, and with this money the Hosei-Kai, a foundation, was established for the control of, and extension of help to, various organizations interested in the work throughout the country. In 1925, the Government subsidy was increased to ¥100,000, and, moreover, since 1923, the Imperial House has made an annual grant to encourage the work, with the result that the work has made a steady development, the organizations today number approximately 800.

The Beneficiaries The persons protected by these organizations are not limited to those who have served the terms of their sentences, but include those who have been provisionally released; those, whose prosecution is suspended; those, the enforcement of whose sentences is suspended; and those who have been released from punishment for minor offences; as well as the members of the families of those who are detained in prisons. The method of protection is roughly classified into (a) quarters and protection, (b) indirect protection, and (c) temporary protection. Those to whom the method (a) is applied are quartered in places specially selected by the above-mentioned organizations and are given board, lodging and clothes as well as employment. Those to whom the method (b) is applied are not directly protected, but visits are paid to their fixed places of residence from time to time so as to give them advice and suggestions. Those to whom the method (c) is applied are given only temporary help at the time of liberation from prisons such as providing them with clothes and other necessaries and journey money.

Today, there exists in the Department of Justice the Section for the Protection of Ex-Prisoners which undertakes the direction and supervision of the welfare work of various associations, but as it cannot be expected that a small Section can thoroughly undertake such widespread work, it is increasingly advocated in different quarters that a system for the promotion of the welfare of ex-convicts should be instituted and the work connected therewith conducted by the State.

Police System

Its Fundamentals

There are two aims of the national administration. One is the administration of political affairs for the direct benefit of the nation as a whole, and the other is to protect the public welfare of the individuals who compose the nation. The function of the police is to look after the latter. There is a judicial function of the police that goes side by side with the first one, but the principal significance of the establishment of the police system is in its protection of public welfare. The work it performs can be considered more in a negative aspect than a positive one for it does not promote welfare work so much as it prevents and roots out matters which are, or may be, detrimental

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to peaceful social life. The police are endowed with authority to enforce the law or to give orders to the people. Police authority forms a part of the sovereign power of the State.

Authority Vested in State In Japan police authority is entirely invested in the State and is not delegated to other public bodies. In European countries, there are commonly the state police and the local police, the latter being under the jurisdiction of local authorities. In Japan all the police come under the direct administration of the State and no chiefs of local governments or local governments themselves have power over them except in a very few limited subjects. The police are administered in the name of the Emperor by the Minister of Home Affairs through the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police, in Tokyo prefecture, governors of other prefectures and the Hokkaido procurator. Although nominally under the Governor of Tokyo prefecture, the Superintendent-General of the Metropolitan Police Board in Tokyo takes his orders direct from the Home Minister as the Board has many political responsibilities unknown in other prefectures. The appointment is actually a political one, the ordinary police business being carried out by the Chief of Police. In the Hokkaido and other prefectures the highest police official is the Chief of the Police Division. Under the Chiefs of Police are the police superintendents, inspectors, assistant inspectors and policemen. A police superintendent is appointed chief of a police station or secretary of a Police Division or in Tokyo and Osaka prefectures he may be appointed inspector over several police stations. A police inspector or an assistant police inspector may in some cases be appointed chief or secretary of a police station. Policemen are divided into sergeants, indoor and outdoor service men, special service men, and police-detectives.

As mentioned above, police officials carry out judicial functions, and when acting in the capacity of judicial police officials and under the dictates of the public procurators they execute warrants of arrest or detention and arrest persons in flagrant offence. They may seize private possessions or search a house by order of a Court of Justice, an examining judge or a public procurator, or help a public procurator in the investigation of criminal cases.

In Time of Peace and Crisis In times of peace the maintenance of public order rests with the police. Individual policemen wear sabres. Pistols are carried only in special cases though in the police force there are troops of armed constables, while if matters become too serious and on special occasions, the gendarmerie is called on for help. The gendarme is a kind of military policeman, but at such times as the police force is too weak to keep public order, a Governor may ask for the aid of the gendarmerie. Moreover, at a time of crisis or extraordinary social disturbance, the army takes the place of the usual police force and acts with a despotic authority without limitation of the Law. The occasions which may call forth the military power for keeping public order are as follows: (1) when the country or a district is placed under martial law in times of war, (2) when a district is put under martial law for the maintenance of public order, (3) when the governor asks for the help of the army for subduing social disturbances, and (4) when a Divisional Commander recognizes the need of military power for keeping local

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order in an emergency in which the request from other authorities is too late.

Police Business

Police business in Japan is many-sided, and may be classified into 4 main lines and 24 kinds:

Public Peace (a) supervision of publications. The publication of all kinds of printed matter should be reported and a copy of each must be sent to the authorities. Secret publication is strictly forbidden. A sum of money as guarantee of good faith has to be deposited by the publishers of newspapers or periodicals which deal with political problems. The name of the person responsible for any publication must be printed on the publication. Secret matters which come under the control of the public procurators, the Ministers of War and Marine, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs must not be reported in newspapers or periodicals. The Home Minister may prohibit the publication of a periodical or any other printed matter which he considers detrimental to public welfare and morals.

(b) Supervision and care of public meetings, organization of societies and mass movements. According to the Public Peace Police Law, all public meetings on political questions and some other meetings which come under control of the authorities must be reported to a police-station beforehand. A policeman may be present at such a meeting and may stop a speech or close the meeting. The organization of such associations or societies as may endanger the existing form of Government and system of private property is strictly forbidden. The said P. P. P. Law inflicts heavy penalties on those who break these regulations.

(c) Supervision of businesses or commercial shops. Most businesses are free, but in some cases some kind of police supervision is necessary in the interests of public welfare, hygiene, prevention of damage, the safety of traffic, and social economy. For instance, such shops and businesses as inns, public baths, employment exchanges for geisha and prostitutes, credit information businesses, barbers, seal or stamp engravers, old clothes dealers, peddlers and stall-holders are inspected or taken care of by the police. Pawnshops and curio or second-hand shops are under special regulations and police inspection and supervision is thoroughly practised as many stolen articles find their way into these shops, and lead to excellent results in the arrest of thieves and burglars. Guides, scribes and employment exchanges for profit are also under special regulations and strict supervision.

Number of shops and houses under police supervision at the end of 1933 was as shown below:

(Items less than 10,000 are omitted)

Pawn shops	13,300
Dealers in second-hand articles	270,968
Hotels	49,552
Boarding houses	10,436
Doss-houses	14,442
Restaurants	63,084
Cafés and bars	85,200
Geisha houses	20,949
Bath-houses	22,235
Eating houses	159,340
Employment exchanges	12,879
Printing houses	13,705
Barber's shops	74,694
Woman hair-dressers	55,095
Game houses	20,398
Building contractors	31,125
Shipping agents	11,839
Waggon-business men	149,446
Taxicab garages	23,381
Scribes	18,640
Bicycle dealers	37,676
Rikishamen	20,468
Factories	74,701
Theatres	85,095
Cinema theatres	77,577
"Yosé" (Story-telling houses)	16,302
Licensed prostitution houses	10,281

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(d) Religion. It is the duty of the police to prevent the desecration of shrines and breaches of the peace in temple grounds. Superstitions and superstitious actions are prohibited by the Police Penal Law.

(e) Accidents. The police take charge in cases of fire, floods, explosions, of people being injured, etc. Regulations are issued on the handling of guns and explosives; the wearing of swords or the like is strictly forbidden; the handling or selling of poison is under a special regulation. Sulphur and oil businesses are under police care also. Buildings are under police supervision for their beauty, fire-proofness, and hygiene; factories, warehouses, theatres, and public resorts receive special attention. Crematories, slaughter-houses and incinerators must not be within residential or commercial districts of cities. Regulations regarding buildings are stricter than in Western countries because of the large number of wooden houses liable to fire and the constant fear of earthquakes. Electricity and gas businesses must not endanger the lives of people. Mines are under a special police regulation as they are most liable to fatal accidents. Prevention of floods also comes into the sphere of police business.

For the prevention and extinction of fires, fire-brigades are established in cities under the control of the Chief of the Police Division in the prefecture. In Tokyo prefecture, a fire division is established in the Metropolitan Police Board and fire-brigade stations are located in different parts of Tokyo. In the larger cities, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobé and Nagoya special fire-brigade stations are established by the State. In the smaller municipalities fire-guilds are established at the expense of local self-governments. The firemen are volunteers and differ from those in the said cities who are officials of the State.

Statistics of fires happened during recent five years are as follows:

NUMBER OF FIRES AND AMOUNT OF DAMAGES

	1929—1933				
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Number of fire	11,983	14,610	16,286	18,334	18,300
Number of houses damaged	25,174	22,280	22,334	25,690	19,461
Amount of damages estimated (In 1,000 yen)	67,343	55,637	54,976	61,780	35,397
Average amount of damages per one house (Estimated)	¥ 2,675	2,497	2,461	2,402	1,844

NUMBER OF PERSONS SUFFERED FROM THESE FIRES

	1929—1933								
	Firemen			People			Total		
	Dead	Injured	Total	Dead	Injured	Total	Dead	Injured	Total
1929	16	1,618	1,634	457	1,139	1,596	473	2,757	3,230
1930	20	2,204	2,224	415	911	1,326	435	3,115	3,550
1931	17	1,806	1,823	473	922	1,395	490	2,728	3,218
1932	28	1,981	2,009	451	1,169	1,620	479	3,150	3,692
1933	20	1,761	1,781	570	960	1,530	590	2,721	3,311

(f) Public morals. The police look after the maintenance of good public manners and morals. Japan has a licensed prostitute system and forbids private prostitution and conniving at it. Through the efforts of

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Christian and other religious and public bodies and the growth of other means of pleasures prostitution is growing less, but it is a duty of the police to see that the prostitutes are treated as humanely as possible as long as the term exists. All pleasure resorts such as theatres, places of performances, wrestling, movies, etc. are carefully supervised and any obscene or immoral performances prohibited.

Restaurants, dining rooms, bars, cafes and other eating places are under police supervision. The laws for prohibiting liquors and smoking to minors, the prohibition of lotteries, misbehaviour in the street or outdoors, and the regulations regarding street advertisements and the erection of monuments must be enforced.

(g) The care of men who are a danger to public peace and welfare, juveniles who are addicted to bad habits, ticket-of-leave men, the insane, beggars and vagrants are supervised by the police.

(h) Actions which may harm others such as forcing an interview, extorting contributions, blackmail, causing disturbances, obstruction, etc., are forbidden by the Police Penal Law. Deceitful actions, spreading false reports, and the mishandling of dead bodies come under the care of the police. Obstructing officials in pursuit of their duty is strictly forbidden. The care of lost articles, prohibition of deceitful religious actions, the supervision of "mujin-ko" and "tanomoshi-ko" or mutual financing associations come under police power to some extent.

Public Hygiene The problem of the health and hygiene of the people is one of the greatest concerns of the Department of Home Affairs, and in many points the responsibility of looking after such cannot be confined to the police alone, though in its direct management the police have much to do.

(a) Prevention of epidemics. For the prevention of epidemics there are many laws in force, the most important of them being the Epidemic Prevention Law, the Regulation for the Medical Inspection of Aviators, the Seaport Quarantine Law, the Vaccination Law, the Tuberculosis Prevention Law, the Trachoma Prevention Law, the Leprosy Prevention Law, the Venereal Diseases Prevention Law and the Parasites Prevention Law. The water police help in the medical inspection of passengers and goods arriving in vessels from abroad. The annual compulsory cleaning of individual houses and public buildings, drains, wells, dumping grounds etc. is supervised by the police. When an epidemic breaks out policemen are used to try and confine it to as small an area as possible.

(b) Medical. As the health and welfare of the people depend on proper medical attention, doctors, dentists, midwives, nurses, masseurs and acupuncturists are under special regulations, as also are druggists and pharmacists. Poisonous chemicals are well looked after.

(c) General Health. A law is in force prohibiting the sale of unwholesome food, and utensils for eating, drinking and preparing food are under police supervision. (See Chapter XXXII.)

Traffic Police (a) Road. The police are responsible for safety on the streets. "Walk on the left" is the rule of the road in Japan.

(b) Vehicles. Railroads, electric cars, automobiles, trucks, waggons, rikishas, bicycles etc. are under police supervision.

(c) Water police. The water police look after foreign-going vessels entering and leaving open ports, navigation in closed ports, rivers

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and lakes, and the business of steamship companies doing a coastal trade.

(d) Ocean navigation has many international ramifications and though there are countless matters which ought to come under police supervision it is separated from common police business and put under the administration of the Department of Communications.

(e) The aviation police are put under the management of the Minister of Communications.

(f) Colonial police come under the control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs except in some cases which may come under the supervision of local governments.

Number of accidents caused by traffic is as shown below:

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Walkers					
No. of cases	25,517	27,666	26,776	26,933	24,110
Killed	1,645	1,733	1,676	1,743	1,787
Injured	22,746	25,433	24,568	25,173	22,493
Automobiles					
No. of cases	13,051	13,473	14,938	16,832	16,430
Killed	219	216	270	280	318
Injured	5,809	5,542	5,955	6,792	8,269
Bicycles					
No. of cases	9,133	11,420	15,544	16,447	13,698
Killed	160	149	187	286	266
Injured	5,743	7,815	10,201	11,459	10,421
Others					
No. of cases	10,376	10,819	11,565	11,009	10,405
Killed	424	438	439	492	550
Injured	5,241	5,831	5,614	5,835	5,776
Total					
No. of cases	58,077	63,411	68,823	71,221	64,643
Killed	2,448	2,536	2,572	2,801	2,921
Injured	39,633	43,621	46,338	49,259	46,959

Police and the People

The function of the State, as far as it concerns the economic life of the people is largely protective and administrative and certain laws and ordinances of the State have to be imposed on various businesses in order that the people shall be fully protected. The police works by orders from higher authorities at the request of the Ministers of Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, and Finance.

(a) Banks, savings banks, mutual financing associations, negotiable security businesses, trust businesses, insurance businesses, commercial exchanges, the central wholesale markets in the six largest cities, foreign trade business in important articles, weighing and measuring machine businesses, and auditors partially are under police supervision or limitations.

(b) Agriculture is supervised by the police in such matters as the prevention of the spread of noxious insects, the control of plants imported or exported, the fertilizer industry, agricultural warehouses, the sericulture industry and the control of rice imports and exports.

(c) The hygiene and prevention of epidemics among domestic animals is looked after by the police. Many laws are enforced regarding the improvement of animals, and

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police power is needed for a proper practice of them, especially in connection with horse-racing.

(d) Forestry police mainly prevent damage to the forests.

(e) Fishery police protect the propagation of aquatic animals and at the same time look after the safety of the fishermen. There are many laws and regulations on fisheries, whale-fishing, fishing boats, etc.

(f) The hunting of beasts and birds is limited to those mentioned in the revised Game Laws of 1918, the seasons and districts of hunting are put under police regulation.

(g) For the protection of labourers there are numerous laws in force, for instance, the Factory Law, Laws on the limitation of age of factory or marine workers, the Labour Accident Prevention Law, the Mine Law, Ordinance regarding the enlistment of workers. Policemen either help factory or mine inspectors or directly handle matters mentioned in these laws. Labour movements and disputes many times call for the use of police power.

Police Stations and Officials

At the end of 1933 there were 1,199 police stations, 24 water-police stations, 4,551 branch stations, 14,056 police-boxes.

At the same time there were 52 chiefs of police divisions, 339 police-superintendents, 1,632 police inspectors, 3,604 assistant police inspectors, 59,835 police sergeants and policemen, total being 65,462.

EXPENDITURES FOR POLICE BUSINESS

	1930—31	1931—32	1932—33	1933—34	1934—35 (Budget)
Salaries	¥ 66,598,127	67,153,356	66,898,289	69,831,646	72,444,482
Expenditures for police stations	9,788,341	9,206,728	8,634,579	9,005,192	9,614,373
Secret service funds	688,890	738,636	683,895	678,215	783,858
Total	77,075,358	77,098,720	76,216,763	79,515,053	82,842,713
Repairs of police stations					
Ordinary	810,734	670,817	677,007	634,671	623,979
Extraordinary	1,002,760	1,419,048	1,308,673	1,558,666	2,380,141
Grand Total	78,888,852	79,188,585	78,202,443	81,708,390	85,846,833
Average expenditures per one family	6.58	6.24	6.16	6.43	6.76
Average expenditures per one person	1.32	1.23	1.21	1.27	1.33

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CHAPTER XXVIII

EDUCATION

Historical Background

Chinese letters and Confucian books were first introduced to Japan in the third century, and it was then that the civilization of the country made a real start. From the nearby peninsula of Korea came sericulture, weaving, brewing, and the art of the blacksmith. It was about this time that the Imperial Prince Wakairatsuko established a Court School.

In the sixth century Buddhism came to the Island Empire to give added material progress to the Japanese civilization, and in 607 the Imperial Prince Shotoku-taishi (see Chapter III) caused the Horyuji Temple to be built at Nara and there he established a school in the temple. These were the earliest schools of Japan.

In the latter half of the seventh century a college in the capital and some provincial schools were established to educate officials, according to the Taiho Laws. Later, in the Heian Age, the courses of study became encyclopædic and both public and private schools were established. In the Muromachi Age school education suffered a decline and only two places of study were recorded, namely, the Kanazawa Library and Ashikaga School, although there might have been private lecture halls kept secretly by scribes and Buddhist monks.

The Tokugawa Shogunate encouraged the study of Confucianism and several schools of this moral system and Chinese philosophy were introduced, and education extended to the common people. There were established many schools; the highest one was called the Shohei Hill Academy or Shohei School, which was established by the Shogunate. The central government had many other schools, while each local clan government also had its own schools. In addition to these, private schools and "tera-koya" appeared all over the country for the education of the people in general.

"Tera-koya" Education

The "tera-koya" needs some special explanation, as it played the most important part in the education of the masses before the Meiji Era, and laid the foundation for the remarkable progress of elementary education in new Japan which has surprised the world.

The word "tera" means Buddhist temple and "koya" children's house, so the tera-koya was a school for children established by a Buddhist temple. It was originated many years before the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate by Buddhist monks, but at first it was rather for the privileged class of people and the number of these schools was limited. The orderly system of national politics of the Tokugawa Shogunate inaugurated an age of peaceful life for all classes of the people, and civilization and culture made unusual progress. Side by side with the governmental schools for the samurai class, tera-koya education spread among the common folks in business and farm quarters. It gradually ceased to be entirely in the hands of the monks, and assum-

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ed a form and nature quite different from the original.

The school-house was no longer in or attached to a temple; teaching was not restricted to the monks; the teacher might be a samurai, monk, doctor or Shinto priest. "Tera-koya" became merely a general name, and the founders of tera-koya schools chose any name they liked for their own. The size of the schools was diverse, the largest one accommodating as many as two or three hundred pupils. There was rarely more than one teacher, but in the larger schools there might be an assistant. The age of the pupils ranged from 6 to 15 years. It was co-education, although the sexes sat apart. The courses of study were commonly penmanship, Japanese literature, and the use of the abacus, with such optional subjects as Chinese literature, poem compositon, sewing, flower-arrangement or tea ceremonies. Many textbooks on moral precepts and letter writing were published and used in these schools. These schools were usually kept up largely out of the pocket of the school master himself, for his work was entirely voluntary, inspired by pure devotion to service, for which he gained the honour and respect of the community. According to the report of the Department of Education, there were 15,862 tera-koya in Japan at the beginning of the Meiji Era, or just before the establishment of the new elementary school system. No wonder that the rate of school attendance falls little short of 100%, although it is compulsory now.

It must be remembered also that technical schools had made considerable progress in old Japan. Medical schools in particular were established in the Taiho Era, and medical science made steady progress toward the middle of the Yedo Age. The Tokugawa Shogunate established a medical school in 1765, and local clan lords followed this example. There were several private ones well known to the people. But these taught the Chinese method of the science, and the "materia medica" was almost entirely of herbs and animal matter. The modern or Western medical science and its system and practice were introduced through Dutchmen at the end of the Yedo Era, so we may say that medical science was the earliest of all the sciences that were learned by the Japanese people from the Westerners.

Educational Administration

The present educational system of Japan dates from 1872, the 5th year of Meiji, when elementary education was made compulsory. Its principles are stated in the Imperial Rescript on Education issued on Oct. 30, 1890. This world-renowned rescript was published to lay down leading ideas and principles for the guidance of the Japanese, and it reads as follows:

"Know ye, Our Subjects!

Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects, ever united in loyalty and filial piety, have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevo-

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lence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop your intellectual faculties and perfect your moral powers; furthermore, advance the public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should any emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne, coeval with heaven and earth. So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and subjects, infallible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you, Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue."

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.

(Imperial Sign Manual)

(Imperial Seal)

All school education in Japan is supervised by the State, being partly entrusted to local public bodies such as the prefectural councils, towns and villages.

Private individuals are also allowed to found schools and universities, although here too the Government does not give much latitude of method or scope, and the uniformity of school education in all parts of the Empire has worked well in bringing the degree of advancement in modern ways and thought to almost the same level throughout the land, and greatly strengthening the national spirit and unity of the people.

The points entrusted to local public bodies are chiefly financial matters, pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of schools, some of which are obligatory while some are left to the discretion of local bodies. The obligatory matters are the establishment by Hokkaido and the prefectures of normal schools, middle schools for boys and girls, schools for the blind and for the deaf-and-dumb, technical schools by order of the Minister of Education, and that of ordinary elementary schools by cities, towns and villages. Municipalities may not establish higher normal schools, and Hokkaido and the prefectures alone are authorized to establish universities, higher schools and normal schools.

The main principles regarding the nature and objects of schools, their scholastic terms, curricula, organizations, entrance qualifications, qualifications for the teachers, equipment, means of meeting the expenditure, and tuition fees are prescribed by Imperial Ordinances. The establishment of schools by public bodies or private individuals must be approved by the local supervising authorities, which also exercise control to a certain extent over their methods of education and finances.

Religion is, on principle, excluded from the educational agenda of schools. In all schools established by the Government and local public bodies, and in private schools whose curricula are regulated by laws and ordinances, it is forbidden to give religious instruction or to hold religious ceremonies either in or out of the regular curricula.

Education in the colonies comes under the control of the colonial governments, and the military schools belong to the War and the Navy Departments, while there are some technical schools which come

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under the supervision of other Departments. But with these exceptions, it may be safely said that the Minister of Education has charge of all matters relating not only to school education, but also to what may be termed social education, such as art, science, literature and religion. He is assisted by the parliamentary councillor in the conduct of political affairs and in matters which are connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The vice-minister assists him in the business part of the Department.

Of the affairs within the jurisdiction of the Department, those that are related to education, art, science, and literature are distributed respectively among the Bureaux of Higher Education, General Education, Technical Education, Social Education, School Books, and Student Control, and those pertaining to religion are under the direction of the Bureau of Religion. Those affairs which do not properly belong to any one of these bureaux are dealt with in the Minister's Secretariat. In addition there are school superintendents, who inspect schools and directly supervise educational affairs; supervisors of social education who direct and supervise social educational affairs; superintendents of compilation who compile and examine text-books; and supervisors of school hygiene who look after the sanitary conditions of schools. Various advisory committees with prominent men in and out of office as members are instituted to help the Minister of Education in matters of wider scope.

The Minister of Education is authorized to direct and supervise the Superintendent of the Metropolitan Police and the local governors in matters under his control.

The prefectural governors direct and supervise their subordinate officials and exercise supervision over the public and private schools, kindergartens and libraries within their jurisdictions. There is a Division of Educational Affairs in each prefecture which has control of matters relating to education. School inspectors and sub-inspectors in it inspect schools and conduct educational business directly.

The mayors of cities and towns and the heads of villages deal with affairs regarding elementary schools and exercise control over them. The mayors of cities, moreover, have authority to make recommendations to prefectural governors in the appointment of the principals and teachers of elementary schools. The municipalities have school boards to look after elementary schools.

School Education

As is shown in the following tables, Japan is well provided with schools, ranging from kindergartens up to universities. Almost all the elementary schools are controlled by public bodies.

Conditions are different when we come to secondary education, for which there exist a considerable number of private schools, and in the case of schools of the highest grade the private establishments quite outrange in number those under official control.

Only 17 out of the 46 existing universities were built by the Government, 5 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies.

The total number of schools in Japan proper and their enrolment in the last five years, 1928-1933, is shown below:

Year	Schools	Students
1933	45,793	13,408,971
1932	45,766	13,073,854
1931	45,898	12,847,730

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Year	Schools	Students
1930	45,803	12,549,320
1929	45,610	12,287,660

Classified according to types, the number of schools in Japan proper in the year 1933, with the number of students enrolled, was as follows:

	Schools	Students
Elementary Schools	25,697	10,714,196
Middle Schools	558	329,459
Girls' High Schools	963	361,739
Business Schools	1,024	298,893
Business Continuation Schools	15,091	1,270,874
Higher Schools	32	20,589
Universities	47	70,162
Colleges	116	67,341
Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges	54	22,546
Normal Schools	103	36,867
Higher Normal Schools	2	1,790
Higher Normal Schools for Women	2	839
Special Institutes for the Training of Teachers	4	154
Institutes for the Training of Business School Teachers	4	371
Institutes for the Training of Business Continuation School Teachers	42	1,039
Schools for the Blind	78	4,613
Schools for the Deaf and Dumb	59	4,376
Miscellaneous Schools	1917	203,123
Total	45,793	13,408,971
Kindergartens	1,708	129,001
Young Mens' Training Institutes	15,546	835,723

The figures for schools refer to those existing on March 31, while the figures for students refer to those on March 1.

Elementary Education

Elementary education in Japan is compulsory and has attained to its present high level of excellence through many improvements since the promulgation of the School Ordinance in 1872. In the Imperial Ordinance relating to Elementary Schools the object of elementary education is defined as follows:

"Elementary schools are designed to give children the rudiments of moral education specially adapted to make of them good members of the community, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for the practical duties of life, due attention being paid to their bodily development."

According to the system of compulsory education all children from 6 to 14 years of age are called school-age children, and those who exercise parental authority over them, or their legal guardians, must send them either to the ordinary elementary schools established by the cities, towns or villages until they complete the required course of study, or to schools established by the Government, prefectures or by private individuals, recognized as equal to the ordinary ones above mentioned. The law is not enforced when a child is unfit for study owing to physical or mental deficiency or cannot be sent to school by reason of extreme poverty. There is a provision which requires the employers of school-age children to see that the work imposed does not interfere with their going to school.

The responsibility of establishing ordinary elementary schools is placed upon cities, towns and villages, and they are making efforts to maintain schools even in the dire depression of the past few years. At the same time, however, special provisions permit the State Treasury to bear part of the expense, and the diffusion of elementary school education in Japan proper is all but ideal, the number of the school-age children attending schools maintaining the rate of 99% for the past five years.

The full figures are as follows:

These figures represent the condition existing on March 31 of the respective years.

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Year	School-age Children	Children Attending Schools	Children not Attending Schools	Percentage of Children Attending Schools
1933	10,754,962	10,708,930	46,032	99.57
1932	10,392,794	10,344,642	48,152	99.54
1931	10,105,941	10,056,530	49,411	99.51
1930	9,883,785	9,832,847	50,938	99.48
1929	9,717,057	9,663,586	53,471	99.45

Elementary schools are divided into two grades, namely, ordinary or lower and higher. The former are for the beginners and their course extends over six years. The latter are for those who have completed the lower course, and their courses are of two or three years' duration. The subjects taught are morals, Japanese language, arithmetic, Japanese history, geography, science, drawing, singing, sewing (for girls only) and gymnastics. In the higher courses, either one or more subjects out of handicraft, agriculture, industry, commerce and domestic science (for girls only), are added, and if local circumstances make it advisable, handicraft in ordinary elementary schools and foreign languages and other useful subjects in higher elementary schools may also be taught.

An elementary school may comprise both the ordinary and the higher elementary school courses and may equip itself with a supplementary course of not more than two years.

Under the present system of compulsory education the father's responsibility ends when his child has graduated from the lower elementary school. But the ordinary elementary education of children is not sufficient for the existing conditions of society, and many cities, towns and villages establish higher elementary schools either independently or in connection with ordinary ones. For the same reason, many business continuation schools are established to give elementary school graduates such education as may be of use in various trades.

The following table will give a general idea of the conditions of elementary schools as they were in 1933.

Schools	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Ordinary Schools	—	7,022	75	7,097
Ordinary and Higher Schools	4	18,418	20	18,442
Higher Schools	—	157	1	158
Total	4	25,597	96	25,697
Classes				
Ordinary and supplementary	55	182,137	615	182,807
Higher and supplementary	7	32,458	34	32,499
Total	62	214,595	649	215,306
Teachers	95	237,602	818	238,515
Pupils	2,335	10,685,648	26,213	10,714,196
Graduates	485	2,043,529	4,374	2,048,388
Entrants	428	2,515,717	5,583	2,521,728
Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	2,047	8,990,063	24,120	9,016,230
Higher	200	1,363,249	921	1,364,370
Total	2,247	10,353,312	25,041	10,380,600
Percentage of Daily Attendance				
Ordinary	95.92	96.83	95.79	96.83
Higher	97.56	96.56	96.74	96.56
Average	96.07	96.80	95.83	96.79

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Teachers and Salaries There are more male teachers than female in the Japanese elementary schools, and they are classified according to their education and special abilities, as (1) elementary school teachers (2) lower elementary school teachers, (3) teachers on special subjects, (4) assistant teachers, and (5) substitute teachers. The teachers belonging to the first two classes are regular teachers properly qualified for the elementary education of children.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CLASSIFIED

(March 1, 1933)

Ordinary Elementary Schools	Male	Female	Total
Regular teachers	112,074	53,329	165,403
Special teachers	3,667	6,430	10,097
Assistant teachers	3,951	2,144	6,095
Substitute teachers	8,459	8,837	17,296
Total	128,151	70,740	198,891
Higher Elementary Schools			
Regular teachers	32,913	2,427	35,340
Special teachers	1,747	1,231	2,978
Assistant teachers	49	6	55
Substitute teachers	914	337	1,251
Total	35,623	4,001	39,624
Grand total	163,774	74,741	238,515

TEACHER'S MONTHLY SALARY

(Public Schools)

(March 1, 1933)

Ordinary Elementary School	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Maximum, Male	¥215	125	135	60	130
„ Female	125	90	105	60	110
Minimum, Male	10	10	1	15	1
„ Female	12	8	1	7	1
Average					
Male	68	51	52	39	38
Female	49	42	41	34	27
Average	62	48	45	37	32

Higher Elementary School	(1)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Maximum, Male	¥215	148	65	145
„ Female	110	105	45	65
Minimum, Male	12	1	30	1
„ Female	20	1	28	1
Average				
Male	71	55	42	43
Female	54	45	33	38
Average	69	51	41	42

Secondary Education

For the secondary grades there are middle schools for boys, girls' high schools, business schools and business continuation schools.

Middle Schools The course of the middle school extends over five years, and its object is to give boys such a higher general education as will fit them to be useful members of society after their graduation. The subjects taught are morals, civics, the Japanese language and Chinese classics, history, both Japanese and foreign, geography, a for-

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eign language (either one of English, German, French or Chinese), mathematics, science, technical studies, drawing, music, practical work (carpentering, gardening, etc.) and gymnastics.

From the fourth year upwards, the subjects are selected and arranged into two groups, the pupils making choice between the two. Under special circumstances, however, the Minister of Education may authorize a school in which either of the two groups may be dispensed with. This dual system of curriculum is of benefit on the one hand to the pupils who wish to take up employment immediately upon graduation, and on the other to those who wish to advance to higher-grade schools.

To the regular course a supplementary course of one year or less may be added, and, if local circumstances require, a preparatory course of two years may also be provided. A boy who desires to enter a middle school must complete either its preparatory course or the full course of an ordinary elementary school. Those who are twelve or more years of age and in possession of adequate scholastic attainments may be admitted upon examination. Those who have completed the fifth year (the course of the ordinary elementary school ends with the sixth year as mentioned above) of an ordinary elementary school and are physically well developed and have shown excellent scholarship are allowed to apply for the entrance examination, even though under twelve years of age; this is to give a chance to specially gifted boys.

The following are the figures for middle schools and their pupils on March 1 of each year:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1933	558	329,459
1932	558	336,186
1931	557	345,691
1930	555	348,584
1929	546	343,709

A general idea of the condition of the middle schools in 1932-1933 may be obtained by the following table of figures:

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools	2	435	121	558
Classes, regular course	25	6,890	1,310	7,725
Number of boys in one class	39.68	42.77	42.01	42.63
Teachers, licensed	57	9,639	2,099	11,795
		Female 4	Female 7	Female 11
" non-licensed	—	1,100	629	1,729
		Female 11	Female 8	Female 14
Total	57	10,754	2,738	13,549
Pupils, regular course	992	273,301	55,031	329,324
	Preparatory		31	31
Pupils; Supplementary course	—	50	54	104
Total	992	273,351	55,116	329,459
Graduates, regular course	179	48,681	11,946	60,806
	Preparatory		15	15
" Supplementary course	—	267	73	340
Total	179	48,948	12,034	61,161
Applicants, regular course	1,037	85,629	22,226	108,883
	Preparatory		23	23
" Supplementary course	—	1,897	135	2,032
Total	1,037	87,517	22,384	110,938
Admitted, regular course	205	60,609	11,314	72,126
	Preparatory		16	16

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	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Admitted, Supplementary Course	—	1,055	117	1,172
Total	205	61,662	11,447	73,314
Left school, regular course	46	21,624	7,635	29,305

Girls' High Schools The system of high schools for girls is made flexible to suit practical requirements. A girl who has completed elementary school or has equivalent scholastic attainments and is twelve years or more of age may be admitted to a girls' high school. The course of the girls' high school extends over four or five years, and those schools whose entrance requirement is the completion of the higher elementary school or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments are allowed to shorten their course to three years. There is another kind of girls' high school which is called Girls' Domestic High School, where domestic science is the main course of study, and its regular course extends over two to four years. Girls who wish to take only one part of the course are allowed to do so on application. A supplementary course of two years or less may be provided for the benefit of those who wish to continue their study after completing the regular course, and a post-graduate course or a higher course of two or three years for the purpose of giving higher education. In the cases of the higher course, higher qualifications are required of the teachers and its standard is brought up almost to that of the higher school for boys.

The subjects taught in a girls' high school are the same as those taught in the middle schools, but with the addition of domestic science and sewing, the required hours of study being from 28 to 29 a week. In the case of the Girls' Domestic High School, technical study is added and the hours for domestic science and sewing are double those of the ordinary high school, the time allowed for other subjects being shortened, and foreign languages omitted altogether. Under special circumstances the foreign language, drawing and music may be omitted, and if local circumstances require, pedagogics, manual arts, technical studies and other useful subjects may be taught in addition to the normal curriculum. In such cases the total weekly hours may be increased to a little over 30. The curriculum of a domestic course of three years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the first year of the higher elementary school, is to be suitably drawn up on the basis of that of a domestic course of two years, the entrance requirement of which is the completion of the higher elementary school, and be submitted to the Minister of Education for approval.

The progress of female education is phenomenal in modern Japan and girls' high schools have taken very marked strides in recent years both in number and quality. At the end of March, 1932, there were 980 girls' high schools in Japan proper, many of them being provided with, or contemplating the provision of, a post-graduate course or a higher course.

The number of schools and girl students on March 1 of each year was as follows:

Year	Schools	Girls
1933	968	361,739
1932	980	362,625
1931	975	368,999
1930	970	367,726
1929	940	359,289

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GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOLS, 1932—1933

	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Schools:				
High School	2	556	223	781
Domestic H. S.	1	161	20	182
Total	3	717	243	963
Classes:				
Regular course	20	5,441	1,938	7,399
In a class, average	46.25	45.46	42.46	44.68
Post graduate	—	29	—	29
In a class, average	—	22.41	—	22.41
Domestic High School	4	610	119	733
In a class, average	46.75	34.64	36.68	35.04
Teachers, licensed:				
High School, regular course, male	14	4,918	1,567	6,499
female	34	3,782	1,796	5,612
Post graduate, male	—	61	—	61
female	—	9	—	9
Domestic High School, male	5	309	92	406
female	3	541	88	633
Teachers, unlicensed:				
High School, regular course, male	—	463	510	973
female	—	206	417	623
Post graduate, male	—	7	—	7
female	—	8	—	8
Domestic High School, male	—	110	38	148
female	—	70	41	111
Total, male	19	5,868	2,207	8,094
female	37	4,616	2,342	6,995
Total	56	10,484	4,549	15,089
Pupils:				
Regular course	925	247,360	82,285	330,570
Post graduate course	—	650	—	650
Higher course	132	723	484	1,339
Domestic H. School	187	21,133	4,365	25,685
Elective pupils	—	259	17	276
Supplementary course	15	2,749	455	3,219
Total	1,259	272,874	87,606	361,739
Graduates:				
Regular course	176	55,854	17,553	73,583
Post graduate course	—	274	—	274
Higher course	32	225	159	416
Domestic H. School	44	6,737	1,279	8,060
Elective pupils	—	207	5	212
Supplementary course	14	2,714	436	3,164
Total	266	66,011	19,432	85,709
Applicants:				
Regular course	1,120	91,415	40,759	133,294
Post graduate course	—	267	—	267
Higher course	104	459	381	944
Domestic H. School	168	8,105	1,366	9,639
Elective pupils	—	245	14	259
Supplementary course	17	3,149	613	3,779
Total	1,409	103,640	43,133	148,182
Admitted:				
Regular course	193	63,266	20,783	84,242
Post graduate course	—	254	—	254
Higher course	51	371	321	743
Domestic H. School	48	7,320	1,154	8,522
Elective pupils	—	245	10	255
Supplementary course	17	3,108	572	3,697
Total	309	74,564	22,840	97,713

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Left school in the school year:	Governmental	Public	Private	Total
Regular course	21	12,205	6,457	18,683
Domestic H. School	5	1,578	338	1,921
Total	26	13,783	6,795	20,604

Business Schools Business schools of secondary grade are established for the purpose of giving young people the practical knowledge and skill necessary in various vocations, and much is left to the discretion of the founders as to the systems of schools in order to suit the special needs of different industries, trades and localities. The courses may extend from two to five years according to the nature of the school. A period of not longer than one year may be added to the maximum prescribed course. Further provisions are allowed to meet the needs of those who desire to take only a part of the curriculum, for those who, after completing the prescribed course, still desire to remain for further study, and for those who wish after completing the course of a middle school or girls' high school, to enter a business school with the object of receiving business education; and lastly for those who wish to receive instruction in a simple way for only a short period.

On March 1, 1933 there were 1,024 business schools. The figures for the years 1929-1933 are given below:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1933	1,024	298,893
1932	1,003	292,015
1931	975	288,681
1930	957	280,904
1929	911	267,041

Business schools are divided into two classes, A and B. Those schools which belong to A class admit boys and girls who have completed the course of the ordinary elementary school, while those which belong to B class admit those who have completed the course of the higher elementary school. And they are of six kinds, namely, Technical, Agricultural, Fisheries, Commercial, Navigation and Practical. Figures relating to these business schools in 1932-1933 are given below.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (A)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left school
Technical	93	2,265	33,553	6,892	19,594	9,698	1,958
Agricultural	236	2,766	47,583	14,049	19,727	16,401	2,995
Commercial	284	6,120	138,241	25,321	63,186	36,165	13,216
Navigation	11	164	2,659	587	925	757	217
Fisheries	12	141	1,917	380	670	522	168
Practical	186	2,356	37,035	14,570	19,864	16,134	2,252
Total	822	13,812	260,988	61,799	123,966	79,677	20,806

BUSINESS SCHOOLS (B)

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Admitted	Left school
Technical	29	313	5,262	1,623	5,046	2,471	570
Agricultural	98	795	16,812	5,684	7,096	6,447	1,069
Commercial	41	370	10,412	3,067	6,433	4,562	1 167
Navigation	1	11	61	61	119	119	98
Fisheries	1	1	34	—	20	20	10
Practical	32	308	5,324	2,906	3,776	3,415	392
Total	202	1,798	37,905	13,341	22,490	17,034	3,306

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Of these schools, 13 technical, 14 agricultural, 133 commercial, and 126 practical schools were under private management.

According to the report of the Business Education Bureau, Ministry of Education, the number of business schools on April 20, 1934, was 1,025 and that of students 342,299; (a) 821 schools with 303,537 students, (b) 206 schools with 38,762 students. Of the total, 294 schools were established by private bodies or individuals, where students numbered 100,011.

Business Continuation Schools The object of these schools is to give to boys and girls engaged in vocations after graduation from the ordinary elementary school useful knowledge and skill relating to these vocations and at the same time to furnish education necessary in daily life. Their courses are technical, agricultural, commercial, navigation, fisheries and sewing; each school providing one or even all of these. The whole course is divided into two terms, the first extending over two years and the second over two or three years according to the nature of studies. The number of hours taught in a year ranges between 200 and 420 in the first term, and 160 and 420 in the second, according to studies and the grade of the class. Those who have completed the ordinary elementary school or are up to that standard may be admitted to the first term, and those who have completed the course of the first term and the higher elementary school or are up to the same standard may be admitted to the second term.

A business continuation school may, if local circumstances require, provide itself only with the first or the second term. It may give further instruction to those who have completed the second term. Under special circumstances, a business continuation school of higher grade may be established for the purpose of giving specialized teaching.

The number of business continuation schools and that of their pupils for the years 1929-1933 were as follows:

Year	Schools	Pupils
1933	15,091	1,270,874
1932	15,083	1,271,971
1931	15,248	1,277,338
1930	15,284	1,226,835
1929	15,297	1,181,907

BUSINESS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS, 1932—1933

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils	Graduates	Entrants	Left School
Technical	101	391	13,093	6,245	11,511	3,973
Agricultural	12,330	15,785	990,856	331,170	474,475	88,171
Commercial	544	987	54,866	21,894	48,637	18,553
Navigation	2	8	192	90	91	—
Fisheries	250	187	18,578	5,733	8,496	1,892
Sewing	426	772	25,213	10,989	16,282	3,439
Tech. & Agri.	78	131	9,680	3,423	5,032	1,056
Tech. & Comm.	175	570	27,810	12,143	27,115	10,823
Tech. & Fisheries	1	—	49	16	20	12
Agri. & Comm.	601	1,197	65,326	20,801	34,141	7,904
Agri. & Fisheries	424	433	40,867	12,876	19,580	4,253
Comm. & Fisheries	31	50	2,767	953	1,709	431
Navi. & Fisheries	2	6	181	62	72	2
Tech. Agri. Comm.	56	198	8,375	2,922	5,027	1,299
Tech. Agri. Fish.	2	22	1,356	358	680	187
Tech. Comm. Fish.	10	40	1,560	476	730	205
Agri. Comm. Fish.	52	139	9,034	2,606	4,842	925
Tech. Agri. Comm. Fish.	6	21	1,071	411	444	94
Total	15,091	20,932	1,270,874	433,173	658,884	138,219

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BUSINESS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS, May 1, 1933

(Report of the Bureau of Social Education)

Number of Schools	Teachers: Full time	Teachers: Part time	Teachers: Total
15,193	18,047	82,974	101,021

Pupils: Male	Pupils: Female	Pupils: Total	Expenses 1933-1934 budget
935,243	451,388	1,386,631	¥16,893,114

BUSINESS CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

(Classified According to Course of Study)

Technical	Agricultural	Commercial	Fisheries	Navigation	Tech. & Agri.
127	11,986	485	230	3	269

Tech. & Comm.	Agri. & Fisheries	Comm. & Fisheries	Agri. & Comm.	Others	Total
173	487	6	599	828	15,193

Higher Education

The institutions for higher education are higher schools, universities, colleges, and higher trade and industrial colleges.

Higher normal schools, institutions for training teachers of higher education, post-graduate or supplementary courses in secondary educational institutions and higher grade classes of the special educational institutions are mentioned under other headings, though they might be included here with the other higher educational organs.

The number of schools under this heading, higher normal schools and teachers training institutions and that of students on March 1 of each year follow:

Year	Schools	Students
1933	261	183,792
1932	254	183,809
1931	258	183,952
1930	254	179,038
1929	243	170,154

Higher Schools (Koto Gakko) The higher school is primarily an institution whose object is to complete the general education of young men. But it is as a matter of fact a preparatory school for universities or higher trade and industrial colleges in present-day Japan. No women are admitted. It is divided into two courses, the higher and the lower. The former extends over three and the latter over four years, making seven in all. A post-graduate course of one year may be taken after the higher course. Some schools have the higher course alone. On May 30, 1933, the higher schools with the higher course alone numbered 24, while those with both lower and higher courses numbered 8.

The entrance requirements for the lower course are practically the same as those for the middle schools. The higher course is divided into the literature and science courses and a candidate must be one who has completed the lower course of the same school or one who has completed the fourth year of the middle school or whose scholastic attainments are equal or superior to the same standard.

There are about the same number of preparatory courses of universities which correspond to higher schools and are directly attached to universities. The following figures for 1932-1933 refer to the higher schools only.

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HIGHER SCHOOLS
(1932—1933)

Schools	32
(Schools which have lower course)	(8)
Teachers	1,266
Lower Course	149
Students	18,150
Lower Course	2,489
Graduates	5,506
Lower Course	543
Applicants	32,236
Lower Course	3,460
Entrants	5,665
Lower Course	615
Left School	678
Lower Course	68

Of the 32 schools, 25 are governmental, 3 public and 4 private.

Universities A university (Daigaku), in its regular form, consists of several faculties, but a single faculty may also constitute a daigaku. Each faculty is required to have a post-graduate course, and in those universities which include several faculties a university hall may be established for keeping the various post-graduate courses in touch with one another. Under special circumstances a preparatory course may be provided.

Admission to a university is extended to the graduates from higher schools and from preparatory courses of its own, and to those who have the same scholastic attainments. When a student has studied in the university for three years or more (four years or more in the faculty of medicine) from the date of his entrance, and has passed a prescribed examination, he may assume the degree of "Gaku-shi" (lit. "learned gentleman") or Bachelor. He is also qualified to enter the post-graduate course. In many universities facilities are provided for those who wish to pursue studies only in some particular subjects according to prescribed regulations.

A university is authorized to confer a doctor's degree on persons who have pursued studies for a period of two years or more in the post-graduate course and whose theses have been approved by the faculty council. Those who have not pursued studies in the post-graduate course may also submit theses and apply for doctor's degrees. The degree is conferred when the faculty council is satisfied with the theses.

UNIVERSITIES, March, 1933

GOVERNMENTAL:	Professors	Students & Pupils	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left school
Tokyo Imperial	671	8,190	2,226	5,315	2,732	431
Kyoto Imperial	531	5,490	1,360	2,469	1,020	545
Tohoku Imperial	258	1,649	451	882	556	141
Kyushu Imperial	259	1,934	537	1,202	708	206
Hokkaido Imperial	287	2,337	664	3,650	765	97
Osaka Imperial	82	654	81	276	192	85
Niigata Medical	36	307	66	116	89	5
Okayama Medical	42	427	94	172	116	2
Chiba Medical	54	597	124	702	189	8
Kanazawa Medical	57	453	108	488	137	9
Nagasaki Medical	63	505	128	449	149	5
Kumamoto Medical	34	320	80	140	90	4
Nagoya Medical	46	398	107	91	91	4
Tokyo Commercial	174	2,035	622	2,381	701	82
Kobé Commercial	43	633	192	329	211	18
Tokyo Technical	109	507	156	298	170	17
Osaka Technical	96	384	107	272	132	19
Tokyo Literature and Science	118	298	92	153	113	8
Hiroshima Literature and Science	74	282	83	206	117	13
Total 19	3,034	27,400	7,278	19,591	9,178	1,749

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		Professors	Students & Publis	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left school
PUBLIC:							
Aichi Medical		8	82	82	—	—	2
Kyoto Medical		51	660	178	1,206	203	13
Osaka Commercial		58	760	226	944	273	24
Total	3	117	1,502	486	2,150	476	39
PRIVATE:							
Keio-Gijuku		290	6,579	1,847	4,597	2,115	425
Waseda		357	7,925	2,703	8,612	3,148	486
Meiji		181	3,767	1,244	2,212	1,689	523
Hosei		173	2,477	867	1,415	1,158	363
Chuo		147	2,189	595	1,887	998	479
Nippon		314	4,018	1,259	2,829	2,231	1,061
Kokugakuin		99	568	219	417	236	37
Doshisha		99	1,511	415	820	639	242
Tokyo Jikei-kai Medical		59	1,299	329	2,786	379	20
Ryukoku		89	747	207	337	282	120
Otani		62	559	162	258	196	52
Senshu		127	819	131	698	437	166
Rikkyo		112	1,375	377	785	556	97
Ryumei-kan		117	989	290	714	622	460
Kansai		116	1,482	445	807	711	293
Takushoku		94	795	251	488	359	100
Risshio		97	896	124	129	127	86
Komazawa		71	556	188	134	127	50
Tokyo Agricultural		72	551	199	435	250	56
Nippon Medical		54	994	319	2,601	312	18
Koyasan		52	232	74	145	131	39
Taisho		111	599	155	195	190	62
Toyo		63	356	111	232	146	29
Jochi		72	277	85	225	179	88
Kansaigakuin		16	200	—	494	220	23
Total	24	3,044	41,260	12,596	34,202	17,418	5,325
Grand Total	46	6,195	70,162	20,360	55,943	27,072	7,113

The oldest of the 46 universities is Tokyo Imperial University, which was founded in 1886. Keio-Gijuku and Waseda were founded much earlier, but they were raised to the present standard in 1920 according to the ordinances enacted at that time.

Of the total number of students and pupils, that of regular university students was 46,975 and that of pupils in the preparatory course or elective courses was 23,187.

The following figures as they stood on March 1, 1932 and 1933 show the number of students in these universities classified according to faculties.

	1933	1932
Post graduate course	2,071	2,069
Law	8,185	7,935
Medical Science	7,707	6,769
Science	1,061	1,051
Agriculture	2,368	1,828
Economy	5,621	5,276
Commerce	4,842	4,761
Law and Literature	4,218	4,203
Politics and Economy	1,303	1,270
Technology	3,880	3,620
Literature	5,392	5,240
Law and Economy	588	621
Science and Technology	747	655
Literature and Science	556	574

Tokyo Imperial University

To give an idea of Japanese universities the following information on Tokyo Imperial University is given here.

The university is situated in Hongo, Tokyo, occupying about one hundred acres. It fell a victim of the quake-fire of 1923, and one-third of the total floor space of the entire

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buildings was thrown out of use, while the remainder had to be repaired.

Besides ¥2,000,000 appropriated by the Government for immediate emergencies, the extraordinary session of the Diet held in the summer of 1924 made a grant of over ¥40,000,000 to enable the university to complete reconstruction in about 15 years. At present the restoration of all buildings, books, equipments is nearing completion.

History In 1854 the Tokugawa Shogunate opened the Yogaku-sho or an institute for foreign learning. The name of the institution was changed several times; for instance, the Kaisei-gakko in 1868, the Daigaku-nanko in 1869, the Tokyo Kaisei-gakko in 1874. Another institute was opened by the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1857, which was called the Shuto-kwan or an institute for vaccination. This in time developed into a medical school and became known in 1874 by the name of the Tokyo I-gakko or Tokyo Medical School. In April, 1877, the above two institutions were merged into one institution, known by the new name of the Tokyo Daigaku or Tokyo University. A little later the Tokyo Law School and the Technical College were united with it under the name of the Imperial University in March, 1886. The university had five faculties: law, medicine, engineering, literature, and science. The Tokyo Agricultural and Forestry School was incorporated into it in 1890, and in June, 1897, the university assumed its present name of Tokyo Imperial University.

Organization The university is a State institution and is organized in accordance with the Government's requirements for a university. It is composed of 7 faculties: law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, agriculture, and economics.

Besides the 7 faculties above mentioned there is a library in connection with the university. Hospitals and Dispensaries are connected with the Faculty of Medicine. An Institute for Historical Compilation is a part of the Faculty of Literature. Connected with the Faculty of Science are the Botanical Garden and the Marine Laboratory. Forests, farms, and the Institute for the Training of Agricultural School Teachers, are connected with the Faculty of Agriculture.

The Institute for the Study of Infectious Diseases, the Institute of Aeronautics, the Tokyo Astronomical Observatory, and the Earthquake Research Institute are also institutions attached to this university.

The Faculty of Law includes the 2 courses of law and politics, with 34 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Medicine includes the 2 courses of medicine and pharmacy, with 35 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Engineering includes the 10 courses of civil engineering, mechanical engineering, naval architecture and engineering, aeronautics, technology of ordnance, electrical engineering, architecture, applied chemistry, technology of explosives, mining and metallurgy, with 58 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Literature includes the 19 courses of Japanese literature, Japanese history, Chinese philosophy, Chinese literature, Oriental history, Occidental history, philosophy, Indian philosophy, psychology, ethics, theology and history of religion, sociology, pedagogics, esthetics and history of fine arts, philology, Sanscrit literature, English literature, German literature, and French literature, with 41 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Science includes 10 courses of mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, mineralogy, geography, and seismology, with 41

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professorial chairs. The Faculty of Agriculture includes the 6 courses of agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, veterinary medicine, fishery, and agricultural economy, with 42 professorial chairs. The Faculty of Economics includes the 2 courses of political economy and commerce, with 17 professorial chairs.

Those of adequate learning, aged 19, or above, who are desirous of attending the lectures or experiments for one or more subjects prescribed in the faculty courses, may be admitted as elective pupils in the Faculties, but only when there are vacant seats.

Auditors may be admitted to the faculties on application, when the study of the students is not inconvenienced by their presence. They must conform with the conditions prescribed by the faculties, unless they are entrusted by the Japanese or foreign governments. In addition, there are practical courses of agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine in connection with the Faculty of Agriculture. Applicants for admission must be graduates from middle schools, or those who are recognized as having equal attainments.

Students who remain in one course for more than 6 years (in the course of medicine, 8) are struck off the school roll. The practical courses in the Faculty of Agriculture run for 3 years.

The period for scientific research by students in the University Hall is fixed at 2 years. If their research necessitates the prolongation of this period, the President may permit it, on their application, to the extent of 5 years. They are under the control of the dean of the faculty whose curriculum they follow. As to their teacher or teachers, the faculty concerned decides.

The university officials are the president, 234 professors, 156 assistant professors, 3 secretaries, 1 administrative official, 5 officials for student affairs, 2 librarians, 284 assistants and 29 minor officials.

In May, 1934 the number of students was 8,050 in all. Post graduate students were: law 71, medical 22, technical 28, literature 374, science 97, agricultural 56, and economics 28. Under-graduate students were: law 2,358, medicine 694, technology 1,039, literature 1,284, science 351, agriculture 1,034, and economics 1,290.

Tuition is ¥120 a year for under graduates and ¥75 for post graduates.

Annual salary of the professors is from ¥1,130 to ¥4,050 besides the stipend attached to a chair from ¥500 to ¥1,600.

The Budget The budget for the fiscal year 1935-1936 is as follows:

REVENUE

Ordinary	
From the Government	¥3,728,852
For business teachers' training	39,783
Miscellaneous income	4,070,520
Total	7,839,155
Extraordinary	
From the Government	120,000
From University forestry	83,460
From the Endowment Fund	795,817
Contributions	80,000
Total	1,079,277
Total revenue	8,918,432

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary	
Salary	¥2,174,305
School disbursements	5,210,401
Salary of foreign professors	71,322
Pension allotment	375,374
Miscellaneous	7,753
Total	7,839,155
Extraordinary	
Buildings and repairs	811,629
Equipment and others	267,648
Total	1,079,277
Total expenditure	8,918,432

University Library Before the 1923 quake-fire the library contained ap-

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proximately 700,000 volumes of books, but most of them were destroyed by the disaster. In order to make the loss good Marquis Yorimichi Tokugawa offered the university the whole of his Nanki Library with its precious collection of about 100,000 volumes, mostly Japanese and Chinese books. Contribution of books from nations of the world of over 325,000 volumes followed. The cases of books received from the British Committee for collecting English books financed by the British Government amounted to 271 in 1932. Gifts of books from all parts of the Empire amounted to 220,000 volumes, including those of the Nanki Library. The acquisition of books by purchase, including those bought with the Government Fund and the Rockefeller Fund reached over 495,000 volumes.

In December, 1924, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr. of New York offered a fund of ¥4,000,000 for the reconstruction of the library. The plan of the new library was completed in 1925 and the building in November, 1928. The building is fire-proof and earthquake-proof, and has a floor-space of 5,100 tsubo. The largest reading room contains seats for over 1,200 persons. The number of books now exceeds 1,000,000 volumes.

Summary of Doctor's Degrees The following is a summary of doctor's degrees awarded during the past 46 years, or from May, 1888 to the end of 1934.

Name	totals	dead	surviving March, 1932	Awarded in 1932—1933
Dr. of Laws	277	80	192	5
" " Literature	284	87	188	9
" " Science	506	72	394	40
" " Technology	675	157	488	30
" " Agriculture	297	31	244	22
" " Forestry	50	11	38	1
" " Medicine	6,949	381	5,785	783
" " Pharmacology	88	20	63	5
" " Veterinary	35	19	15	1
" " Economics	36	—	31	5
" " Commerce	11	—	9	2
" " Political Science	2	—	2	—
Total	9,210	858	7,449	903

Colleges, and Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges "College" is the usual translation of the Japanese "Semmon Gakko" or Speciality School, but they are very different from colleges among Western nations and are organs for training the young people in some kind of professional studies.

The required length of the course of a college is three years or more. For admission to an art or music school, the completion of the third year of the middle school or the girls' high school or the possession of equal or higher scholastic attainments is required, while for admission to all other colleges the completion of the course of the said second grade schools or similar or higher scholastic attainments is required.

In March, 1933, there were 116 colleges, 8 of them being founded and maintained by the Government, 9 by public bodies and the rest by private bodies. They may be classified as follows according to their nature:

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Pharmacy	7
" for women	5
Medical Science	5
" " for women	3
Dentistry	5
" for women	2
Medical and pharmacy, for women	1
Nursing for women	1
Languages	3
Literature	6
" for women	5
Religion	11
Christian Theology	3
Painting and other fine arts	1
Music	3
Commerce	1
Commerce, Literature, Religion or Theology	8
Law, Economy, Commerce, Industry	13
Agriculture	1
Colonization	1
Mathematics and Chemistry	1
Meteorology	1
Athletics	2
Fencing and Judo	1
Literature and Domestic Science, for women	13
Literature and Science, for women	2
Domestic economy, for women	1
Sewing and Handiwork, for women	10
Total	116

The following table shows the movement of the college students, classified according to their course of study, in 1932-1933.

Course of Study	Students		Graduates		Applicants		Entrants		Left school	
	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female
Medical Science	44,24	2,137	978	381	10,988	1,094	919	451	97	85
Pharmacy	2,659	2,372	749	398	7,439	1,518	974	941	91	196
Dentistry	3,977	578	867	138	3,107	317	1,069	284	148	36
Law	12,034	106	2,804	28	8,585	86	6,540	71	3,814	71
Economy	1,519	—	338	—	934	—	806	—	554	—
Commerce	9,741	15	2,441	3	8,791	8	4,426	5	1,841	2
Literature	8,907	3,771	2,509	1,092	7,432	2,088	3,890	1,403	2,199	507
Mathematics and Chemistry	1,385	59	140	10	2,710	33	885	23	970	1
Domestic Science	—	3,603	—	1,084	—	2,364	—	1,608	—	508
Sewing	—	2,900	—	1,108	—	1,965	—	1,439	—	410
Handiwork	—	62	—	28	—	40	—	28	—	12
Religion	2,542	29	543	8	1,288	16	985	13	317	4
Fine arts	1,055	243	200	62	1,266	91	267	78	105	36
Music	295	786	42	97	333	690	185	355	117	166
Athletics	470	133	85	53	520	93	169	64	52	3
Agriculture	618	—	196	—	688	—	224	—	66	—
Colonization	118	—	25	—	147	—	136	—	79	—
Nursing	—	59	—	12	—	54	—	31	—	9
Meteorology	27	—	13	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Industry	717	—	197	—	1,362	—	291	—	91	—
Total	50,488	16,853	12,127	4,502	55,590	10,457	21,716	6,794	10,542	2,046

The number of Higher Trade and Industrial Colleges and that of their professors and students was as follows in the same school year.

Kind	Colleges	Professors	Students	Graduates	Applicants	Entrants	Left school
Technical	19	860	7,471	2,306	16,428	2,572	290
Agricultural	12	467	3,759	1,293	7,645	1,469	152
Commercial	21	674	9,644	2,826	14,411	3,928	550
Navigation	2	122	1,672	283	2,180	244	42
Total	54	2,123	22,546	6,708	664	8,213	1,034

Other Education

Besides the schools stated above, there are kindergartens, schools for the blind, schools for the deaf and dumb, and miscellaneous schools.

Kindergartens Kindergartens are found chiefly in larger towns. With

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general social progress, however, the necessity of their improvement and diffusion being greatly felt in spite of the recent financial depression, an Imperial Ordinance for Kindergartens has lately been issued to encourage their further development. Kindergartens receive children from 3 years of age to school age or full six years of age.

The following table gives the number of kindergartens and that of children attending in the years 1929-1933 :

Year	Kindergartens	Children
1933	1,708	129,001
1932	1,622	126,564
1931	1,510	121,975
1930	1,397	114,749
1929	1,294	107,236

Education for the Blind and the Dumb It has been the educational policy of the Japanese Government since the beginning of the Meiji Era that there shall be no illiterates in the country. Therefore, even persons with physical defects are admitted to elementary, middle or girls' high schools, provided that they are fit to attend a greater part of the lessons. But boys and girls who are blind or deaf and dumb are encouraged to enter schools specially founded for them. A special ordinance relating to the schools for the blind, and schools for the deaf and dumb has lately been issued for the purpose of perfecting their elementary and secondary education. The following table gives the number of them and that of their pupils in the years 1929-1933.

Year	Schools	Pupils	Blind	Deaf & Dumb
1933	137	8,939	4,613	4,326
1932	136	8,694	4,550	4,144
1931	125	8,137	4,306	3,831
1930	122	7,728	4,088	3,640
1929	119	7,232	3,768	3,464

Miscellaneous Schools Under the heading of "Miscellaneous Schools," the Japanese Government includes for convenience' sake all schools which do not fully come into any definite category of schools under the provisions in the laws and ordinances.

The following table gives the number of miscellaneous schools and that of their pupils in the years 1929-1933 :

Year	Schools	Pupils
1933	1,917	203,123
1932	1,935	196,903
1931	1,932	217,257
1930	1,879	228,512
1929	1,795	227,104

Since the establishment of miscellaneous schools is left to the discretion of the founders, there can be no uniformity as to the courses and subjects of study. Some aim at simple and quick completion, while some keep high standards and their work is equivalent to or even higher than that of colleges mentioned in the foregoing passages. Some, again, resemble the middle school, the girls' high school, or the technical school. Among miscellaneous schools, there are not a few which are to be highly estimated as educational institutions in their ideals and new methods of education. Many of the Christian schools are included among them.

New Educational Movements The educational system of Japan is so complete, as is specially the case with primary school education, that there has been hardly any room for such free educational movements as in Europe and America. The progress in other lines of national life, however, naturally stimulated the awakening of scholars and practical educators towards the end of the Meiji era. The development of major cities presented a large field for the

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experiment of new educational work. Influenced by Western thoughts and guided by scholars who gave expositions on European and American educational thoughts so as to adapt the characteristic environments in Japan, many new schools have been established in Tokyo and Osaka. Their scope of influence as well as their number is limited, and the new movement, which is more or less radical, is going through difficult times owing to the reactionary tendency in these years; but the existence of such schools as Mrs. Masako Yoshano's Bunka-gakuin, Mrs. Motoko Hani's Jiyu-gakuen, and Mr. Kuniyoshi Obara's Seijo-gakuen proves the demand for and appreciation of new education among the more advanced quarters of urban population. The new educational movement among primary school teachers must not be overlooked. Their curriculum cannot deviate very much from that fixed by the government, but their efforts for handling materials so as to adapt the local environment of the pupils and to take in the projective method are bringing about good results. The representative schools are Tajima Primary School in Kawasaki, Urashima Primary School in Yokohama, etc. Primary schools of a similar kind may be found in many places throughout the country.

Training of Teachers

The Japanese Government, alive to the necessity of having a large supply of capable teachers, has spared no efforts in the completion of organs for their training. To give an outline of the present system, Hokkaido and the prefectures are called upon to establish and maintain at least one normal school each, and an institution for the training of business continuation school teachers when circumstances make it necessary, a responsibility which is also imposed on the cities. The Government itself undertakes the training of teachers of normal schools, middle schools, girls' high schools and technical schools by establishing and maintaining higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for the training of teachers, etc., and the students of these schools are given scholarships, covering part of their expenses, either by the Government or by the local public bodies. Moreover, such of the students of universities, colleges and the like as intend to become teachers, receive aid out of public funds or may be exempted from the payment of fees. Persons who have proved themselves deserving extended aid are chosen for studying abroad in order that they may be better qualified to teach higher arts and sciences.

The following table gives the number of schools for training teachers and that of their students in the years 1929-1933:

Year	Schools[1]	Students
1933	157	41,060
1932	167	44,609
1931	175	49,226
1930	178	53,308
1929	174	54,963

Organs for Training Elementary School Teachers The principal organs for training elementary school teachers are the normal schools, while the training course B grade of the Tokyo Academy of Music trains music teachers for elementary schools.

A normal school consists of the regular and the post-graduate courses, the former is divided into the first and second sections. The course of study of the first section extends over five years and it takes

1 Note: There are 2 colleges and their students are included in this as well as in the number of the table on colleges.

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in the graduates of higher elementary schools of a two years' course or persons of over 14 years of age who have similar attainments. The course of study of the second section runs for two years and it takes in graduates of middle schools, girls' high schools and persons of similar scholastic attainments.

The following table gives the number of normal schools and that of their students and graduates in the years 1929-1933 :

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1933	103	36,867	12,611
1932	104	38,868	11,033
1931	105	43,852	15,524
1930	105	47,444	16,895
1929	104	48,930	18,128

Organs for Training Teachers for Secondary Education As organs for training the teachers of secondary education, there are the higher normal schools, higher normal schools for women, special institutes for training teachers, the training course in drawing of the Tokyo Academy of Fine Arts and the training course, grade A of the Tokyo Academy of Music. The systems differ more or less with the schools or the main subjects taught, but their entrance requirements are, generally speaking, the completion of middle school, girls' high school and normal school, or the possession of the same or higher scholastic attainments, and their courses extend over four, three or two years, with additional post-graduate and special investigation courses.

The following table gives the number of the schools for the training of secondary school teachers and that of their students and graduates in the years 1929-1933 :

Year	Schools	Students	Graduates
1933	10	4,421	925
1932	15	4,245	—
1931	20	4,747	—
1930	22	4,189	—
1929	21	4,432	—

In addition to the foregoing, teachers' certificates are issued without examination to graduates of high grade schools both in Japan and in other countries in order to meet the deficiency in the supply of secondary school teachers. The main conditions are that the schools in question must be equal to or higher than the higher normal schools of Japan in entrance requirements and in curricula. Including those who passed examination there were 10,840 persons who received such certificates in 1932-1933.

Organs for Training Business School Teachers For the purpose of training teachers of practical subjects in technical schools, institutes are attached to the Government universities and colleges. They are of a three year course, the scholastic standard corresponding to that of the colleges.

The following table gives the number of such institutes and that of their students and graduates in the years 1929-1933 :

Year	Agricultural		Technical		Commercial		Total		
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Graduates
1933	1	116	2	150	1	105	4	371	113
1932	1	121	2	150	1	103	4	374	116
1931	1	117	4	151	1	97	6	365	113
1930	1	120	4	157	1	96	6	373	120
1929	1	89	2	162	1	90	4	341	123

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As further means of providing business school teachers, certificates are issued without examination to graduates of certain specified schools. Including those who passed examination the number of persons who received such certificates in 1932-1933 was 410.

Organs for Training Teachers of Business Continuation Schools For this purpose there are institutes which Hokkaido, the prefectures and cities alone are authorized to establish. They are of one or two year courses above the secondary education. The following table shows the number of these institutes and that of their students since the system was introduced in 1927 :

Year	Institutes	Students	Graduates
1933	42	1,039	618
1932	44	1,122	656
1931	44	1,232	856
1930	45	1,299	873
1929	45	1,280	977

Training of High-grade Professors No particular schools are instituted for the training of high-grade teachers. Scholarships, however, are given to students of the post-graduate courses of higher normal schools for training such professors. Further, persons of adequate career and experience are sent to foreign countries for a further prosecution of studies, their expenses being met by the Government. The following are figures concerning such persons at the end of March, each year :

Year	Students abroad	Year	Students abroad
1933	184	1930	361
1932	191	1929	428
1931	219	1928	437

As a further means of supplying higher grade professors, a professor's licence is granted to persons holding doctor's degrees and those who have graduated from universities and colleges. In 1932-1933 the number of persons who received Higher School Professor's licences was 1,012, of which 7 were women.

Training of Special School Teachers and Nurses of Kindergartens Teachers for the blind and the deaf and dumb are trained in the training courses in the Tokyo School for the Blind and the Tokyo School for the Deaf and Dumb. The nurses of kindergartens are trained in the training courses provided in women's normal schools, special courses in the higher normal schools for women and in the special institutions for the purpose established by private bodies. In 1932-1933 the number of kindergarten nurses' certificates without examination was 943.

Teacher's Certificate Given by Examination Persons who have similar scholastic attainments with the graduates of the schools mentioned above, may ask for an examination to get a teacher's licence. They have to undergo a strict examination by the special examination committees of the Educational Department. The number of persons who passed the examinations during 1932-1933 was 5,288. These may be classified as follows :

Teachers of	Applicants	Passed examination
Elementary School and Kindergarten	35,881	4,585
Normal School, Middle School and Girls' School	7,328	574
Higher department of Higher School	125	13
Business School	894	116
Total	44,228	5,288

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Physical Education and School Hygiene

With a view to promoting the rational development of the young and to encourage and further the spread of gymnastics, games and athletic sports, both eastern and western, there was established in 1924 a national Institute for Research in Physical Training, where research work is now in active progress.

For school hygiene, special attention is paid to buildings and equipments, and efforts are being made to improve and strengthen the physical constitution of pupils and students by employing school physicians, dentists and nurses, by taking measures for the prevention of infectious diseases in schools, by making plans for open-air schools, vacation colonies, school feeding, school clinics and the like.

For the administrative organs responsible for the work referred to, Hokkaido and prefectures have school hygienic experts and directors of physical training, while the Department of Education has the Section of Physical Training, Supervisors of School Hygiene and the Institute for Research in Physical Training. In addition, there are provided in the Educational Department a School Hygiene Investigation Committee and a Physical Training Investigation Council, which investigate and make researches in important questions submitted to them by the Minister of Education.

Social Education

For the diffusion and development of social education there has been created a Bureau of Social Education in the Department of Education, and a certain number of supervisors of social education are appointed in the Department, and directors of the same in the local governments.

Adult Education For the benefit of those adults who have had little or no chance to receive regular education, the Department has requested some of the schools under its direct control or under that of the local governments to start a series of lectures. Most of the adults who are gathered to these lectures are labourers or farmers, and fuller reference to this is made in the chapter on labour.

Libraries The spread of libraries in Japan has been rather slow because of many reasons, but the place of the library in social education has been understood more and more clearly with the advancement of national and international life in recent years. The Government, therefore, established a national library at Ueno, Tokyo, and at the same time has given encouragement to local public bodies for establishing their own libraries by granting subsidies to them. It also tries to help them by holding short period courses for training capable librarians. The results of these efforts have been a notable progress in libraries, as may be observed in the following table:

Year	Public Libraries	Books (Unit, 1,000)	Readers	Daily average of readers of a library
1933	4,686	10,563	24,766	20
1932	4,609	10,138	24,980	21
1931	4,609	9,636	23,355	19
1930	4,553	9,276	22,835	19
1929	4,490	8,592	22,847	20

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In November, 1931, the Tokyo Science Museum was established by the Government. It is located in Ueno Park, Tokyo and exhibits 1,579 technical and machine models and 100,858 specimens of natural science. In 1932-1933 224,854 people visited it in 356 days.

Cultural Work In order to promote the national spirit, as well as to effect the betterment of manners and mode of living, the Department of Education has taken up the task of furthering cultural work by giving encouragement to the activities of bodies and individual persons connected generally with national education and social enlightenment. Special efforts are being made to attain the object in view by establishing institutions and organs of various kinds, thus forming a cultural network throughout the country.

Young Men's Training Institutes A young men's training institute is designed to give mental and physical culture to young men with a view to maintaining and improving national standards. These institutions which are found all over Japan, side by side with the business continuation schools, are now reaping a good result. The following are the figures for such institutes and their pupils in the years 1929-1933.

Year	Training Institutes	Students
1933	15,546	835,723
1932	15,550	796,132
1931	15,617	794,171
1930	15,687	806,454
1929	15,766	843,702

Young Men's and Young Women's Associations With the object of giving mental and moral culture to those young men and women who are no longer cared for in the schools, the organization of young men's and young women's associations has been encouraged so that there is at present hardly any city, town, or village where they are not established. These associations work, on the whole, according to the principle of self-government, quite different from the foregoing Training Institutes, and along the lines which they choose in view of the circumstances peculiar to themselves.

The following table shows the number of young men's and young women's associations and that of their members in the years 1929-1933 :

Year	Y.M.A.	Members	Y.W.A.	Members
1933	15,300	2,497,166	13,378	1,522,041
1932	15,365	2,518,173	13,394	1,534,125
1931	15,202	2,495,708	13,225	1,567,123
1930	15,144	2,553,192	13,322	1,550,460
1929	15,295	2,534,326	13,043	1,514,459

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides The boy scout movement, which is also an important item in the social education of the young, has made much progress since the organization of the Japan Federation of Boy Scouts in 1922. The President of the Federation was the late Count Shimpei Goto, and its head office was located in the Department of Education building. The boy scouts which are affiliated with the Federation are scattered all over the Empire except 4 prefectures in Japan proper and the South Sea Mandated Islands. In 1925, the Marine Branch was established and it owns a training-ship.

The number of boy scout organizations and that of the members were approximately 1,100 and 90,000 respectively in March, 1935. The Federation is led by Count Yoshinori Futara at present.

The girl guide movement was first introduced into Japan in 1920. The earliest organizations appeared in Tokyo and Morioka, and the movement gradually spread over dif-

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ferent parts of the country, although it has not yet achieved such progress as the boy scout movement, having only 27 guides with about 300 girls in 1931.

Educational Expenditure

Education in Japan, as previously mentioned, is principally controlled by the State, though it is partly delegated to local public bodies and partly carried on by private individuals or organizations by permission of the Government, and the expenditure incurred is met from these three different financial sources.

Part of the educational expenses of local public bodies, however, is met by the State Treasury in order that the teachers may be sufficiently paid and the burdens on the ratepayers may not be too heavy. Formerly the sum of ¥10,000,000 was yearly defrayed for this purpose, but it has been recently increased to ¥85,000,000 or more, and destitute municipalities receive special consideration in the apportionment of the grant.

Local governments are required to pay additional salaries at certain rates for long service to the teachers of schools for which they are directly responsible. To meet part of these expenditures, the Government allocates a sum of money fixed annually in the National Budget and divides it among Hokkaido and the prefectures in proportion to the number of teachers. In cases where a city, town or a village undertakes to pay for residences of elementary school teachers, the higher local body is required to share part of the expense.

No investigation having been made, by any authoritative body, as to the amount of private money spent on education, the figures given in the following tables refer only to the amounts expended by the Government and local public bodies. In recent years educational undertakings have been greatly extended and the treatment of teachers considerably improved in accordance with the post-war programme of the country, and this has caused the educational expenditures to swell in a remarkable degree. The following table shows the total governmental and public educational expenditures during the years 1929-1933 :

Year	State Treasury	Prefectures	Cities	Towns and Villages	School Associations	Total
1933	¥148,083,243	97,885,783	87,580,024	199,345,796	89,838	532,984,684
1932	137,239,255	106,856,178	77,676,969	197,723,655	87,829	519,583,886
1931	143,320,002	111,298,987	81,642,411	213,334,298	71,733	549,667,431[1]
1930	144,373,338	114,502,616	96,687,293	235,899,221	79,182	591,542,150
1929	134,902,101	113,295,483	101,832,676	256,132,052	61,740	606,224,052

1 Note: The figures refer to the settled accounts of the fiscal years. For instance, the year 1931 means the fiscal year April, 1930—March, 1931.

The above table does not include the amounts expended on local educational administration.

In order to show the total expenditures, both governmental and local, the year 1932-1933 is taken and full details of the items of expenditures are shown :

GOVERNMENTAL EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

1932—1933

Administration	¥2,750,269
Elementary and Secondary education	90,664,294
Business education	601,980
Social education	2,135,113
Blind, Deaf and Dumb education	159,614
Universities and libraries	31,705,808
Miscellaneous	20,066,165
Total	148,083,243

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PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES BORNE BY LOCAL PUBLIC BODIES

1931—1932

Kind of Education	Hokkaido & Prefectures	Cities	Towns & Villages	School Associations of Municipalities	Total
Elementary Schools	—	¥71,369,461	¥174,182,978	¥37,295	¥245,589,734
Normal Schools	¥9,738,796	—	—	—	9,738,796
Middle Schools	20,836,664	262,868	206,260	43,778	21,349,570
Girls' High Schools	13,829,498	2,164,708	2,139,925	—	18,134,131
Higher Schools	715,310	—	—	—	715,310
Universities	1,191,750	934,060	—	—	2,125,810
Colleges	411,615	120,668	—	—	532,283
Business Schools	16,091,146	7,493,049	13,884,206	5,307	37,473,708
Teachers' Training Schools	335,188	—	—	—	335,188
Blind Schools	622,838	86,061	12	—	708,911
Deaf and Dumb Schools	143,470	82,932	—	—	226,402
Miscellaneous Schools	57,767	283,240	57,792	—	398,799
Young Men's Training Institutes	—	1,023,319	3,762,461	625	4,786,405
Kindergartens	—	931,554	462,487	—	1,394,041
Libraries	507,512	631,242	251,579	—	1,390,333
Miscellaneous	33,404,229	2,196,862	4,398,096	2,833	40,002,020
al	97,885,783	87,580,024	199,345,796	89,838	384,901,441

The total amount of educational expenditure in Japan proper borne by private bodies is estimated at ¥36,000,000 a year, as may be seen from the following table:

School	Year	Expenditure
Middle Schools	1931—1932	¥4,471,645
Girls' High Schools	,,	6,752,057
Miscellaneous Schools resembling Middle and Girls' High Schools	1932—1933	1,788,780 (estimate)
Girls' Domestic High Schools	1931—1932	306,429
Business Schools	,,	6,477,753
Higher Schools	1932—1933	408,800 (estimate)
Colleges	,,	6,646,900 (estimate)
Universities	,,	8,698,700 (estimate)
Total		35,901,014

Other Schools

There are schools in Japan proper which do not come under the control of the Educational Department, and they have been excluded from the foregoing sections. But to complete the chapter on education we cannot pass without some mention of them. Fuller explanations may also be found in other chapters.

Peers' Schools They belong to the Department of the Imperial Household, and the purpose of their establishment is the education of the nobility, but admission to them is by no means restricted to children of titled families. They are called the Gakushu-in and Joshi (woman) Gakushu-in. The former is for boys and is composed of three departments, namely, elementary,

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middle school, and college. In Sept., 1933, it had 69 teachers and 917 pupils. The latter is composed of two departments, namely, high school and college. In Sept., 1933, it had 69 teachers and 735 pupils.

Two Special Schools The Department of Foreign Affairs has two schools; one is the To-a Dobun Shoin (Tung Wen College) in Shanghai and the other the Russo-Japanese Association School at Harbin.

The Jingu-kogakkan This was established by the Home Department and is a Shinto seminary.

The Fisheries Institute This is under the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

In the Territories, schools are under the control of the Territorial Governments, as a matter of course, and full descriptions of them may be found in the chapters on Territories. However, a list of the various universities and colleges is here appended.

CHOSEN
- Keijo (Seoul) Imperial University
- Keijo Imperial University Preparatory School
- Keijo Law College
- Keijo Medical College
- Keijo Technical College
- Suigen Agricultural and Forestry College
- Keijo Commercial College
- Eight private colleges

TAIWAN
- Taihoku Imperial University
- Taihoku College
- Four other colleges

KWANTUNG
- Ryojun (Port Arthur) Technical University
- Preparatory College for the same
- Four private colleges

Foreign Teachers and Students

The number of teachers and professors from Western countries engaged by Japanese schools or sent by Christian denominations in foreign lands in recent years was on the increase, and the fact shows that Japan and the Japanese are still eager to learn from the West. It may be safely said that the relations between Japan and the Western nations are becoming more intimate with the advancement of Japanese civilization and the international spirit of the people at large. The number of foreign students is also on the increase, the majority being young men from China, but the Manchurian incident affected their number for the time being. The number of foreign teachers and students at the end of March, 1933, was as follows:

Schools	Teachers male	Teachers female	Total	Pupils & Students male	Pupils & Students female	Total
Elementary	—	4	4	143	83	226
Higher Normal	5	—	5	146	—	146
Woman's Higher Normal	—	1	1	—	29	29
Middle Schools	39	8	47	11	—	11
Girls' High Schools	2	53	55	—	2	2
Higher Schools	70	2	72	81	—	81
Universities	123	2	125	473	13	486
Colleges	130	66	196	186	44	230
Business Colleges	66	—	66	80	—	80
Business Schools	37	14	51	4	—	4
Miscellaneous	70	367	437	563	374	937
Total	542	517	1,059	1,687	545	2,232

The comparison for the five years, 1929-1933, is as follows:

Year	Teachers	Students
1933	1,059	2,232
1932	908	2,761
1931	940	4,983
1930	871	3,588
1929	902	3,252

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CHAPTER XXIX

RELIGION

General Survey

From prehistoric ages Japan has had an indigenous cult which is now known as Shinto. Confucianism and Buddhism were introduced through Korea and China later, and Christianity more recently still. Islam, however, never gained a footing on her soil, though its literature has been introduced to some slight extent.

Shintoism has had nothing to do with the thought and life of the people, apart from its relations with the functions of the guardian deities of the nation and communities. It resembles the primitive Greek or Roman cults, but is much simpler and purer, both as regards the nature of its deities and the motives of its worshippers. It is now divided into two, namely, national Shintoism, which is represented by the shrines, and sectarian Shintoism, which developed towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Confucianism is rather a code of moral precepts than a religion, except in that it teaches some vague ideas regarding a heavenly God. In the realm of moral culture it has exerted great influence on the minds of the Japanese people and on their principles of daily life; that influence being very noticeable in the Imperial Rescript on Education of the Emperor Meiji. Further mention of Confucianism will be omitted here because it has no meaning as a religious cult.

Buddhism has had still greater influence on all phases of Japanese life. Its fatalism has had a retarding effect on the material progress of the Japanese as with other Oriental nations, but has induced a habit of dauntless composure in their behaviour, and its broad philanthropy gave rise to a spirit of mutual help among the people, subduing egoism or individualism. Its philosophical literature fed the national thought, while its fine art has left many masterpieces enriching the cultural life of the Japanese. This cult is still the most powerful among religions in Japan.

Christianity has made valuable contributions toward the civilization of Japan with its world-wide nature and positive teachings on human life. The number of believers is comparatively small, but its influence on the people's thought and morals is said to be even greater than that of Buddhism. It has raised Japan's moral standards, waging war against licensed prostitution, the low position of women, drinking and smoking, and polygamy as practised in a certain section of society. It has still to amalgamate itself with the life of the people in order to exert great influence upon them, but its future is hopeful.

Shinto Shrines

Most Shinto shrines are supervised by the Shrine Bureau of the Home Department, which consists of one chief official and 64 minor officials. The budgets of the Bureau for the fiscal year 1934-35 and 1935-36 are as follows:

Running expenses	1934-35	1935-36
Isé Great Shrine	¥230,000	¥230,000
Other national shrines	750,000	750,000
Ceremonies and rituals	7,105	7,105
Soldiers' shrines	14,255	14,255
Total	1,001,360	1,001,360

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Incidental expenses	1934-35	1935-36
Repairs	¥396,500	¥849,000
Education of priests	11,066	11,066
Investigation	26,575	20,066
Reconstruction	35,040	35,184
Total	469,181	915,316
Sum total	1,470,541	1,916,676

The increase of repairs in 1935-36 is for shrines damaged by the typhoon of September 21, 1934.

The Isé Great Shrine is the most honoured of all the shrines as the first national shrine. The Goddess enshrined in it is Amaterasu-O-mikami, which may be translated as Heaven-Shining-Great-God. According to the Japanese mythology, Amaterasu-Omikami sent down her grandson to the Nippon Islands to rule the people by the Kingly Way, giving him the Three Sacred Treasures, which have been handed down even to the present Emperor as the sacred symbols of the Imperial Throne (see Appendix, The Constitution of Japan; The Imperial Household Law Article X; and Chapter III). In the Great Shrine and appendant shrines more than 10 gods, who represent the Imperial ancestors or personify natural powers, are installed beside the principal Goddess.

The name of the shrine comes from its location in Isé province or more accurately on the Isuzu river, city of Ujiyamada, Miyé prefecture. The whole sacred area of the Great Shrine includes 13,135 acres.

About 87 priests are attending it under a chief priest. There are established a seminary for the education of priests, a police station, two museums, and a library in connection with the shrine.

The budget for the fiscal year 1932-1933 was ¥1,457,044, its fund amounting to ¥2,026,432.

According to the report of the Shrine Bureau, the Home Department, the number of other shrines in 1932 was as follows:

Governmental and national shrines (in the whole Empire)	200
Prefectural and village shrines (in Japan proper)	49,454
Private shrines (in Japan proper)	61,500
Soldiers' shrines (in Japan proper)	123

The number of private shrines in Japan proper has been steadily decreasing since 1889, lessening from 136,783 in that year to 61,500 in 1932. There were many too superstitious and barbarous ones among them and the decrease speaks of the healthy progress of the religious ideas of the people and the radical policy of the government.

The total area of the sacred campus of these shrines (not including soldiers' shrines) covered 76,948,646 tsubo, 65,721,332 of it being government property.

The settled accounts of the 200 governmental and national shrines in the fiscal year 1931-1932 were as follows:

Income (yen)	Disbursement	Balance
3,699,601	3,409,045	290,556

In the income, there is included the contributions of worshippers amounting to ¥2,068,265. There were 11 shrines at which the contributions amounted to over ¥50,000. The sum total of the different kinds of fund possessed by these shrines amounted to ¥11,777,045 in the same fiscal year.

The total number of priests in Japan proper at the end of the year 1932 was 15,375.

For the education of priests there are one seminary of college grade at Isé as mentioned above, a department in Kokugakuin (Japanese literature) College of junior college grade, a middle school grade seminary affixed to the one at Isé, and 26 smaller places for giving a course of study, the total number of students being not more than 2,100.

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It may be said, therefore, that the education of Shinto priests is much lower than that of Buddhist priests or Christian pastors.

Sectarian Shintoism

Shinto Sect This sect is called by the general name given to the national cult when by this name the various Shinto branches were known. The principal ideas of the sect are to develop the Great Way of the Gods, and to propagate the national cult indigenous to the people of this country. Its believers and devotees consider it their most important duty to cultivate reverence for the gods, cherish the spirit of patriotism, elucidate Heavenly Reason and Humanity, pay homage to the Emperor, and observe all the Imperial ordinances.

Kurozumi Sect This was founded by Munetada Kurozumi (1780-1850), who was born at a small village of Okayama prefecture. His main idea was to inhale, while contemplating the Goddess Amaterasu-Omikami, the energy of the sun, and thereby to fill up the heart with satisfaction and complaisance. He teaches to avoid the following seven evils, which are against the will of the gods: (1) to be faithless to the country of the gods in which one was born; (2) to get angry and to worry over things; (3) to be arrogant and spiteful; (4) to entertain evil desires from seeing others do evil; (5) to neglect one's household affairs while in good health; (6) not to have sincerity even when one is entering upon the path of sincerity; and (7) not to accept things gratefully for which one ought to be grateful every day.

Shinto-Shusei Sect Kunimitsu Nitta (1829-1902), who was born in the province of Awa, was the founder of this sect. According to its tenets, the great source of the Way issues from the three gods: Amenominakanushi-no-kami, Takamimusubi-no-kami, and Kamimusubi-no-kami. All human beings get their spirits originally from these gods, and our spirits, which are essentially as pure and as good even as the gods themselves, must be lovingly cherished and preserved. In order to do this, a doctrine is needed, which will keep our spirits under discipline, that is, well in order and in perfection.

Taisha Sect This was revived through the efforts of Sompuku Sengé (1845-1918), and teaches to revere and observe the divine will of the God Okuninushi, whose ideas of administration and spirituality constitute the Great Way of the Gods. When this is elucidated and the heavenly nature of the people is preserved, one's duty to the state is fulfilled, and all will be good, law-abiding citizens.

Fuso Sect The founder was Takekuni Fujiwara (1541-1646), and the one who furthered it was Han Shishino. Its chief doctrine is to worship the spiritual virtues of the three gods. Amenominakanushi-no-kami, Takamimusubi-no-kami, and Kamimusubi-no-kami.

Taisei Sect This was founded by Shosai Hirayama (1815-'90). The principal point of his teaching is to enhance the Great Way of the Gods. Its tenets are: (1) to worship the heavenly gods and the earthly gods and pay homage to the Imperial Sanctuary as well as to the august spirits of the successive Emperors; (2) to revere the divine ordinances infinite as heaven and earth, to extend the national principle of this country; (3) to illustrate in practice the moral codes ordered by heaven; (4) to discipline oneself in morality and truth, to fix the basis of faith wherein one gains peace

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of mind; (5) to abide in the One Truth which unifies the two realms of the Manifested and the Hidden, to get enlightenment on the true meaning of life and death; (6) to undertake scientific investigations and encourage various enterprises; and (7) as regards the divine rites and ceremonial affairs, to follow the traditional standards which have been bequeathed by the successive courts.

Jikko Sect This sect, founded by Hanamori Shibata (1809-'90), makes it its principal teaching to promulgate the Great Way of the Gods, which is to be put into practice in our everyday life. We read in its tenets: (1) to enhance the Great Way of the Gods; (2) to study the ceremonial codes of this Divine Land; and (3) to spread the doctrine original to this country.

Shinshu Sect The founder of this sect was Masamochi Yoshimura (1839-1916) of Mimasaka province. He teaches to worship the heavenly gods and the earthly gods, to practise the divine rites according to the ceremonial codes of the successive courts as well as according to the formulas bequeathed by the family of Onakatomi, and to enhance the Great Way of the Gods.

Ontaké Sect Its teachings chiefly consist in following the Perfect Way of the Gods, enhancing the great principles of reverence to the gods, honour to the Emperor, and patriotism, and engaging in mission work in accordance with the laws of the state. The chief gods to whom worship is offered are Kunitokodachi-no-mikoto, Onamuchi-no-mikoto, and Sukunahikona-no-mikoto, who are called the Great Gods of Ontaké. Their spirits are believed to have been incorporated in Mount Ontaké, which means literally the "honourable mountain," on which the gods taught mankind the arts of medicine and magic. The origin of the sect is considered to lie in this legend.

Misogi Sect The Misogi Sect, or the Sect of Water Purification, was founded by Masakané Inouyé (1790-1849) of Isé province. This sect is an extension of the Shinto doctrine which teaches purification and keeping evils away. These two practices are divine deeds which originated with the Gods Izanagi and Susano-o-no-mikoto.

Shinri Sect The Shinri Sect, or the Sect of the Reasons of the Gods, was founded by Tsunehiko Sano (1834-1906). In his exposition of the ancestral doctrine, he urges us to honour the spirits of all the heavenly gods and the natural reason inherent in all things, and thereby to find the way to faith.

Konko Sect The founder of this sect was a farmer called Bunjiro Kawaté (1814-1883) who became, while alive, Daijin Konko, or the Great God of Golden Lustre by the divine order of the heavenly god he believed in. His main teachings are to pay homage to the God Konjin of north-east, to elucidate the great principles of heaven and earth, to cherish patriotism, and to propagate the idea of oneness of this and the other world, and faith in the reason of life and death.

Tenri Sect This sect, which means the Sect of Heavenly Reasons, was founded by a woman called Miki Nakayama (1798-1887) of Yamato province. She teaches that the gods must be reverenced, patriotism encouraged, Heavenly Reason and Humanity elucidated, the Emperor honoured, and the Imperial ordinances obeyed. It lays great emphasis on practical discipline, and tells us that eight forms of dust must be swept away, which are: (1) grudging; (2) desires; (3) impure attachment; (4)

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hatred; (5) enmity; (6) anger; (7) covetousness; and (8) arrogance.

Oomoto Sect Oomoto-kyo was founded by a woman, Nao Deguchi, in 1892. She was born in 1836 in a little town of Fukuchi-yama, Kyoto prefecture. It is said that this woman was often possessed by God since 1892, and her principles and teachings were left in "O-Fudésaki" or sacred creeds written by her own Japanese pen in the dark through a revelation in trance, and were further expounded by Onisaburo Deguchi, whom the believers call "Master." The word "Oomoto" means the "great basis" or "foundation" of the universe. Its four mottoes are: (1) purification of mind and body, (2) unity of social classes, (3) optimism, trusting in God's plan, and (4) progress or improvement of the world. The gist of its teaching is as follows: Complete harmony among men must be the condition for attaining peace and happiness. The bringing about of world union will have to be done by spiritual means and not by political or military methods. Therefore all earnest believers in Christ, Buddha and God the Father should gather together under the holy banner of Peace. It is moreover God's will that his children should unite in one and the same worship. God is the spirit present in everything in the universe and men are the administrators of the world. One of the essentials for attaining a Heavenly Kingdom on earth consists in unselfish toil for the evolution and progress of society. Master Onisaburo Deguchi proposes to realize a new world organization believing in the God, the Heavenly Truth, the Common Way of heavens and earth, and through other diverse means.

This sect is not yet recognized by the Government as a legitimate one, having only a short history of 40 years, and it is hard to get an accurate number of believers. But it has increased to a considerable number especially after its union with some mystic sects in Manchoukuo and China a few years ago, and there are believers among the peoples not only in the Orient, but also in many of European and American countries. According to the report of the head temple which is now located at Kameoka near Ayabé mentioned above, there are 20 large temples, 17 smaller temples, and 1,700 branch offices, with 6,200 preachers altogether. The number of followers of this sect is roughly estimated at 3,000,000.

Buddhism

It was in the thirteenth year of the Emperor Kimmei (552 A.D.) that Buddhism, first founded in India, came over to Japan after passing through China and Korea. The devotion of Prince Shotoku at the time gave a great impetus to its propagation throughout the country. Six schools of Buddhism, that is, Sanron, Hosso, Jojitsu, Kusha, Ritsu, and Kegon were introduced one after another. In the reign of the Emperor Kwammu (782-805 A.D.), Tendai and Shingon flourished. New schools such as Jodo, Zen, Shin, Nichiren and others then gradually developed. Through these long periods of its history, Buddhism further differentiated itself, owing to differences in the exposition of the doctrines and in the methods of propagation, into many sub-sects. Eleven of the principal sects still in existence are Hosso, Kegon, Ritsu, Tendai, Shingon, Yuzunembutsu, Jodo, Shin, Ji, Zen, and Nichiren; and these eleven are sub-divided into fifty-eight branches. Principal teachings of the eleven Buddhist sects follow:

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Hosso Sect This sect was introduced into Japan by Dosho (628-700), a Buddhist priest who went to China in 653 and studied the teachings of this sect under Hsuan-tsang. The main teachings of Hosso are that all sentient beings find Salvation in accordance with the difference in character and endowments, of which five yanas are to be distinguished, that the doctrinal system of this sect and its scriptural texts are in full correspondence with the truth, that as all things are merely manifestations of pure consciousness, there are no real ego-souls and no real objects, and that the great fruit of Bodhi and Nirvana is attainable in and through the reality of the Middle Path which is neither existent nor non-existent.

Kegon Sect Roben (688-776) of Todaiji Temple, Nara, the first propagator of this sect in Japan, learned its doctrines from the Chinese Buddhist priest Dokei who visited Japan during the Tempyo era (729-749). The teachings of this sect are based upon the Kegon Sutra, which says that the ultimate reason of Suchness is absolute and infinite; the Ultimate and the Manifested are mutually related and intimately intertwined; each Manifestation too is so thoroughly and interminglingly related to another Manifestation that between the two there is no wall of individual separation. The teachings of the sect are, therefore, called the Perfect Doctrine. Those who, in accordance with the doctrine, understand the mystery of the mute evolution of the spiritual cosmos, and who practise goodness and are guarded in their conduct, are sure to attain Buddhahood and to realize the Ultimate Reason. The head-temple of this Sect is Todaiji in the city of Nara.

The term "Shinnyo", or tathatva, which we have translated "Suchness" in the foregoing, is a very comprehensive word, signifying "truth", "reality", or "the first principle of emptiness". The first character, "Shin", means "that which is true without any admixture of error". The second "Nyo", is the same as is usually translated "like". The two taken together have come to mean "the Absolute Itself". There are three main interpretations of it. The Kegon Sect, as one of these interpretations, identifies the absolute and the relative, the noumenal and the phenomenal, asserting that each separate phenomenon, being endowed with the qualities of the Absolute, has unlimited power to produce other phenomena. The doctrine derived from the Kegon Sutra teaches that even a single particle of dust has the manifold, infinite and absolute virtues of all things in the universe, and that so, if a man observes a certain practice, he is at the same time doing all other religious practices.

Ritsu Sect The Ritsu or the Sect of Moral Discipline ("Vinaya" in Sanskrit) was first propagated in Japan by Ganjin (686-763), a Chinese Buddhist priest, who came to Japan during the Tempyo era (729-749). It obtains its name from the Vinaya-pitaka, according to which its followers strictly regulate their daily conduct. It teaches to observe, as ordered by Buddha, all the precepts ("sila" in Sanskrit) such as the Five Precepts, the Eight Precepts, the Six Novitiate Precepts, the Ten Precepts, or the Two Hundred and Fifty Precepts. Toshodaiji in Nara prefecture is the head-temple of this Sect.

Tendai Sect The founder of this sect was Chisha Daishi (537-597) of the Sui Dynasty.

A Japanese priest Saicho (Denkyo Daishi, 766-822) went over to China

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in the year 782 during the Yenryaku era, and studied the principles of Tendai there. On his return to Japan, he became the chief exponent of the sect in this country. The teachings of the Tendai Sect are comprised in two divisions, metaphysics and meditation. It critically systematized in its metaphysical part all the teachings of Sakyamuni, drawing a clear line between what is mere expedient and what really represents the spirit of the founder of Buddhism. As the result Tendai has come to consider Saddharma-pundarika Sutra (that is, The Lotus of Good Law) the doctrine of Sakyamuni, in which the reason of his appearance on earth is truthfully explained. The meditation part consists in applying our minds to all that is taught in the Sutra and realizing it in our daily practical life. Ten grades are distinguished in the practice of meditation, while its main object is to put a stop to disturbing thoughts and to get enlightened on the principles of the four classes of Buddhist doctrines. The ultimate end of all this is the realization of the mysteries of the Pundarika. When you perceive that the Hidden and the Manifest are of one and the same essence and realize that state of mind which is known to the Buddhas only and to nobody else, you have the central teaching of Tendai, that is you have attained the final enlightenment in which the spiritual and the material are thoroughly unified.

They have three sub-sects or branches in this sect, each of them having its own head-temple. They are: (1) the Tendai Branch, whose head-temple, Yenryakuji, is situated in Shiga prefecture; (2) the Jimon Branch, which has its head-temple in Onjoji of Shiga prefecture; and (3) the Shinsei Branch, the head-temple of which is Saikyoji of Shiga prefecture.

Shingon Sect The first exponent of this sect in Japan was Kukai (Kobo Daishi, 773-835), who went over to China soon after Saicho, the Japanese founder of Tendai. According to this sect, there are three fundamental conceptions, which are, Substance, Appearance, and Function. The Six Universals—earth, water, fire, air, the void, and consciousness —are Substances. The four systems of Mandala, that is, Great Mandala, Samaya Mandala, Dharma Mandala, and Karma Mandala, are Appearances. The three Secrets — body, words, and mind—are Functions. The Six Universals are the elemental substances of which all things are constituted. They take Appearances, which, though innumerable, can be classified under four headings. The first is the Great Mandala representing all living beings such as Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, Gods, evil spirits or human beings. The second is the Samaya Mandala which consists in Mudras and symbolic instruments of Buddhas, Bodhisattvas, devas, and spirits. The third is the Dharma Mandala containing all the names or titles of the Buddhas and other beings. The fourth and last one is the Karma Mandala in which are represented all the Functions as well as the outward bodily attitudes assumed by Buddhas and other beings. As the six Universals are infinite and mutually intermingle and are most intimately related, so the four Mandalas are also mutually related and intermingled. That is to say, the Buddhas' four Mandalas are also our own just as they are in the Buddhas, and conversely, our own Mandalas are those of the Buddhas. When the four Mandalas or Appearances are symbolized in our bodies and our fingers are "knotted" after the regular formulas, and the mouth recites

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the various Mantram and Dharanis, and the mind contemplates the sameness of the mind, Buddha, and all sentient beings, then the Functions of the three Secrets are completed. Let this completion be attained, and we are Buddhas while we are in this material existence.

"Mandala" has a large number of different meanings. It is often applied to concrete objects such as an altar, a platform, a circular plate, a picture, and possibly an image; but it came to have the abstract meaning of "growth", "perfection", or "a complete collection of all virtues."

This sect is sub-divided into eight branches, which are: Koya, Omuro, Daikakuji, Daigo, Toji, Yamashina, Ono, and Senyuji.

Three hundred years after the death of Kukai, the Japanese founder of Shingon Sect, a priest called Kakuban known as Kokyo Daishi (1094-1143), established a new school of Shingon. Under this there are two branches now, one of which is Chizan and other Buzan. The head-temple of the former is Chishaku-in, Kyoto, while that of the latter is Chokokuji (Hasedera), in Nara prefecture.

Yuzu-nembutsu Sect This was founded in 1117 by Ryonin, known as Showo Daishi (1071-1132). Its principal teachings are that as all things are essentially of one nature and intimately related, the virtues of one person must be also those of all others, and conversely; that the merits of the Buddha's name invoked by all earnest hearts will mutually grow, establishing a spiritual communion with one another in a most thorough manner; that therefore the invoking of the Buddha's name and contemplating him, even during this short period of one's earthly life, must bear the great fruit, if it is most sincerely done, of making us all attain to Buddhahood through the perfection of infinite merits.

The head-temple of this sect is Dainembutsuji of Osaka prefecture.

Jodo Sect The founder of this sect was Genku, known as Yenko Daishi or Honen, (1133-1212), and it was established in 1174. The basis of the doctrines of the Jodo Sect is laid upon the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. Being convinced of the general sinfulness of human nature, which makes us incapable of enduring all the painful process of self-discipline and self-perfection, Jodo teaches us to throw all our reliance upon the strength of the original prayers of Amitabha Buddha. When we thus, absolutely believing in him, invoke his name with all the sincerity of the heart, we shall be born in future in his Pure Land. The head-temple, Chion-in, is in Kyoto.

One of Genku's disciples, called Shoku (1176-1247), established a new separate school at Nishiyama, which is known as the Seizan Branch of Jodo. This branch is again subdivided into three: (1) Zenrinji, its head-temple bearing the same title, is in Kyoto prefecture; (2) Komyoji; and (3) Fukakusa, Seigwanji, Kyoto, is its head-temple.

Shin Sect Shinran (1173-1262), who is known as Kenshin Daishi, founded the Shin Sect. He was a disciple of Genku, and the main doctrines do not vary so very much from those of his master except in this: that we, the ignorant, have no real existence, and however strenuously we may exert ourselves, we have no "causal germ" in us which will develop into Buddhahood. The priests of the sect can marry and eat flesh. The original prayers of Amitabha in which the invocation of the Buddha's name is highly recommended, testify that the causal germ

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of Buddhahood, by virtue of the efficiency of the prayers, will be planted in us, which means that all that is necessary for us to be reborn in the Pure Land of Amitabha is now sufficient and fulfiled.

There are at present ten branches of the Shin Sect: Hongwanji, Otani, Bukkoji, Takata, Kibé, Kosho, Idzumoji, Yamamoto, Seishoji, and Sammonto.

Ji Sect This was first promulgated by Ippen (1239-1289). The principal ideas of the sect are: Life is a frail and impermanent thing, and as every moment of it flits away, every act of ours must be regarded as the last one on earth. When, perceiving the truth of this fact, we do not neglect in every thought of ours to invoke the name of the Amitabha Buddha, we shall surely reach the final blissful state of Buddhahood.

The head-temple, Shojókoji, is in Kanagawa prefecture.

Zen Sect Under this name three Sects are comprised: Rinzai, Soto, and Obaku.

The Rinzai Sect of Zen was first taught by Yeisai (1140-1215) who came back from China in 1192. Soto finds its first Japanese exponent in Dogen (known as Joyo Daishi, 1199-1253) who studied zen in China during the Sung dynasty and returned to Japan in 1234. Obaku was introduced to Japan by a naturalized Chinese priest Yin-gen (1592-1673) in 1653.

The Zen Sect teaches the doctrine which is known only to the Buddhas and the transmission of which takes place only from one mind to another. It transcends logic and objective understanding. We do not have to purify ourselves from sins, nor is it necessary to seek after supreme knowledge. The ultimate truth is not in mere learning, thinking, or in discipline. It is above doctrines, meritorious deeds, and also above any special attainment. Zen teaches us to abide right in the truth and reality of life, every act of which will then reveal thousands of Samadhis. Whether lying or sleeping, whether drawing water or hewing wood, every movement grows full of significance. That is why Zen sums up its teachings in the following four phrases: "No reliance on word or letter; a special transmission outside of the scriptural doctrines; a direct pointing at the soul of man; and attainment to Buddhahood by seeing into one's own mind."

There are fourteen branches in the Rinzai Sect: Kenninji, Kenchoji, Tofukuji, Engakuji, Nanzenji, Daitokuji, Myoshinji, Tenryuji, Yeigenji, Shokokuji, Hokoji, Buttsuji, Kokutaiji, and Kogakuji. The Soto Sect has two head-temples, Yeiheiji, and Sojiji. Obaku is undivided, and its head-temple is Mampukuji, Uji.

Nichiren Sect This was founded by Nichiren (1222-1281) on the merits of the Saddharma-pundarika Sutra. The life of the Sect is in the seven syllables of "Na-mu-myo-ho-ren-gékyo," which is called "Daimoku," or a kind of theme. As this is the title of the Sutra revealing the absolute oneness of all opposites, even evil-hearted ones will attain to Buddhahood if they recite it in sincerity, and along with it all the ten universes will be equally benefited.

This sect is sub-divided into nine branches: (1) Nichiren-shu (the head-temple, Kuonji, is in Yamanashi prefecture); (2) Hommon-shu, (Hommonji at Ikegami and six other temples in Shizuoka prefecture are its head-temples); (3) Hokké-shu, (its head-temple, Honjoji, is in Niigata prefecture); (4) Kempon-hokké-shu, (Kochoji and other four temples in Shizuoka prefecture

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are its head-temples); (6) Hommyo-hokké-shu, (its head-temple is Honryuji, Kyoto); (7) Nichiren-seishu, (its head-temple is Daisekiji in Shizuoka prefecture); (8) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-ha, (its head-temple is Myokakuji in Okayama prefecture); and (9) Nichiren-shu-fujufusé-komon-ha, (the head-temple, Honkakuji, is also in Okayama prefecture).

Christianity

Before the Restoration Christianity was first introduced into Japan by Francis Xavier, a Jesuit Father, who came to Kagoshima in 1549. This was the time when Nobunaga Oda was at the height of his power, and he gave great encouragement to the spread of the Christian religion. Hideyoshi Toyotomi, his successor, too, was kindly disposed towards it. Combined with the devout and untiring work of the missionaries, this attitude on the part of the authorities made it possible for Christianity to gain followers with wonderful rapidity. Their number is reported to have run into hundreds of thousands.

Hideyoshi, however, changed his policy later on. Christianity was interdicted, its followers were persecuted, and the missionaries had to leave the country. When the Tokugawa Shogunate was established, still stricter measures were adopted, especially after the Shimabara Rebellion in 1637. Christianity had now no hope of being revived under the rigorous government policy of exclusion. The only port open to foreigners was Deshima, Nagasaki, where the Dutch tradesmen were allowed to carry on their business.

The American envoy, Commodore Perry, came to Uraga in 1853, demanding a friendly commercial treaty with his country. The Shogunate government granted this request in 1854 not only to America, but to Russia, England, France and Holland, and in the year following the three ports of Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodaté were opened to foreign trade. A party of American missionaries were the first to avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered to them. Among them were the Rev. J. Liggins, of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States of America, and the Rev. M. C. Williams, who came to Nagasaki in 1859. These were soon followed by Dr. G. F. Verbeck, of the Presbyterian Church (1859), and J. Goble, of the American Baptist Missionary Society (1860), and others. In 1864, the Rev. J. H. Ballagh, of the Dutch Reformed Church, came from America, and in the following year Dr. Thompson, of the American Presbyterian Church, reached here as a missionary.

In 1869, the Rev. D. C. Greene made Kobé the basis of his mission work representing the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The first woman missionary, Miss Kidder, of the Dutch Reformed Church, arrived here in the same year. In 1873, the American Methodist Episcopal Church and the Canadian Methodist Church sent their missionaries, and in 1876 the Evangelical Association of North America started its propaganda work.

The Restoration When the feudal system of Tokugawa collapsed and the Imperial House was restored to power, the edicts prohibiting "Kirishitan" were withdrawn in the sixth year of Meiji (1873), and the missionaries were officially permitted to establish schools, to publish religious tracts, and to preach their doctrines in all the sea-ports open for foreign trade. In 1872, the Rev. Brown and Rev. Ballagh of Yokohama established, aided by their young fol-

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lowers, a Christian church to be known as the Yokohama Yaso Kyokai, which was the beginning of the Union Church. In the following year a sister church was organized at Tsukiji, Tokyo. This was the first Christian church in the metropolis. In 1876 Nagasaki saw another church established. Later all these churches were federated in the name of the United Church of Christ in Japan. This was the origin of the Nihon Kirisuto Kyokai. The Rev. D. C. Greene who started his mission work in Kobé established a church known as the Settsu First Christian Church. This was the first Congregational Church ever organized in Japan, and developed into the present Kobé Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In the same year the Umemoto-Cho Church came into existence in Osaka, which later came to be called the Osaka Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. Some time before this, thirty-five students of the Kumamoto Foreign School, who were converted to Christianity under the influence of their American teacher, Captain Janes, came up to Kyoto, and entered the Doshisha College just established by Jo Neeshima, who had lately returned from America. After their graduation from the college they grew active as propagators of Christianity, and built up the foundations of the Nihon Kumiai Kirisuto Kyokai. In 1872, the Rev. Loomis and Rev. Ballagh opened a Bible class for young men in the above-mentioned Church at Yokohama every Sunday afternoon. In 1873, a Congregational Missionary, Dr. Berry, set up in Kobé a Sunday-school, probably the first one conducted in the Japanese language. As to the vernacular translation of the Bible, in which Dr. Brown had been engaged for some time, the work progressed rapidly early in the Meiji era, and the New Testament was completed in December, 1879, and the Old Testament in 1886. The chief translators were Brown, Verbeck, Greene, and Maclay, while among the native assistants were Takakichi Matsuyama, Masatsuna Okuno, Masahisa Uyemura, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Goro Takahashi, and others.

Y. M. C. A. In 1880, the Young Men's Christian Association was first organized in Tokyo, and among the leaders must be mentioned Hiromichi Kozaki, Kajinosuké Ibuka, Masahisa Uyemura, and Yoshiyasu Hiraiwa.

In 1870, Miss Kidder opened a school for girls in Yokohama. This was the first institution of the kind in Japan, and from it developed the present Ferris School for Girls. Four years later another girls' school, Kobé Jo Gakuin, was erected in Kobé by the Congregationalists.

According to the statistics of 1882, there were in that year 145 foreign missionaries, 93 organized churches, 13 of which were self-supporting, 4,367 adult members, 39 mixed schools, 15 girls' schools, 9 middle schools, 7 theological colleges, 109 sunday schools, 49 ordained preachers, 100 assistant preachers, 37 Bible women, and 5 hospitals.

In 1883, the Church of Christ sent missionaries to Japan, and in 1885 the Presbyterian Church of the United States of America did the same. The American Society of Friends, and the Evangelical Protestant Missionary Society of Germany and Switzerland also dispatched their agents. In 1886, missionaries came from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and in Osaka a hall was set up for the Young Men's Christian Association. In 1887 the missionaries and representatives of the Episcopal Church of England and America had a conference, the result of which was the

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organization of the Holy Catholic Church of Japan. In the same year, the American Unitarian Association sent its representative, the Rev. A. M. Knapp, and following him came the Rev. Clay McCauley.

Freedom of Faith On February 11, 1889, the Constitution was promulgated, and freedom of faith was definitely guaranteed by Article XXVIII. This year, L. D. Wishard, International College Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, came, and planned out a summer school for Bible study for the first time in this country. Since then every summer sees its work carried on. The United Church of Christ in Japan changed its name into the Church of Christ in Japan, compiled a fundamental law, settled on its creeds, and at last became an independent organization. Soon after, they put up a Board of Missions and made progress towards financial independence.

In 1890, the Universalist General Convention of America sent its missionaries. In 1895 officers of the Salvation Army came, and Gumpei Yamamuro joined it, and they at once started on their propaganda work. In the same year, the United Brethren in Christ started a mission.

While the foreign missionaries, up to 1901, had not been allowed to hold land in Japan, which greatly inconvenienced their activities, the Home Minister this year gave permission to the Baptist Missionary Society in Japan to organize a corporation which could hold and manage lands and buildings for missionary purposes.

In 1905 the Japanese Congregationalists planned to be financially independent of the foreign mission at the end of this year, in which they later succeeded.

In 1907 representatives of the Methodist Church of Canada, the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the Methodist Episcopal Church convened in Tokyo with a view to effect a confederation of the three denominations in Japan. The First General Conference of the Methodist Church of Japan thus took place, and Yoichi Honda was chosen to be its first Bishop and was duly consecrated. In the same year F. L. Brown, of the International Sunday School Association, arrived and the outcome of this visit was the organization of the Sunday School Association of Japan, marking an epoch in the history of the Sunday School of the Christian Church. The conference of the World's Student Christian Federation was also held this year in Tokyo, in which 160 foreign visitors took part representing twenty-five nations. This was the first world's convention of any kind in Japan.

Roman and Greek Churches The Catholic Church has been active ever since the opening of the seaports for foreign trade. The missionaries from the Societé des Missions Etrangères in Paris are working all over the country, which is now divided by them into seven districts: Tokyo, Osaka, Hakodaté, Nagasaki, Shikoku, Niigata, and Sapporo. At present a Bishop resides in Tokyo, and in Shikoku the Dominicans from Spain are active, while in Hokkaido the Franciscans have found their principal fields of activity, where there are two Trappist monasteries. The Jesuit missionaries reached here again in 1908, but instead of following up their predecessors' work, they have now a college established in Tokyo and concentrate their efforts on education. Besides the Jesuits, those that are chiefly engaged in educational work are Missionnaires de Marie, Société des Soeurs de Saint Paul, Société de Sacré Coeur and others.

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In the prefecture of Nagasaki where the Catholics have been at work for the last three hundred years, though secretly, they are still in the ascendency.

The activities of the Greek Church centered in the person of the Russian priest Father Nicolai, who came to Japan first as priest attached to the Russian consulate in Hokkaido in 1859. He reached Japan after crossing Siberia, and while settling in Hakodaté, he baptized Takuma Sawabé and two other Japanese. In 1872 he came to Tokyo where he began missionary work. In 1884 he started to build a fine large church in Tokyo, which was completed in 1891. The church was regarded at that time as the greatest and finest building of this sort throughout Japan. The internal disturbances in Russia which followed the great world war made it very difficult to maintain this beautiful edifice, until in 1919 the followers succeeded in organizing an independent church known by the name of the "Orthodox Church of Christ in Japan."

State Regulation of Religions

Supervising Office A wholesale change of the governmental system took place at the time of the Restoration, and in the third year of Meiji (1870) the Mimbusho was established to take care of various affairs of the state, such as general home affairs, communications, etc. In the fourth year, this office was abolished, and the office of religious affairs was transferred to the Finance Department. With the establishment of the Kyobusho, or Department of Religions, in 1872, the shrines and temples were placed under the care of the new office. Then the Government appointed Shinto and Buddhist priests as official religious instructors who were to preach and educate the people according to the moral principles as follows: (1) to cherish reverence for the gods and the spirit of patriotism; (2) to elucidate Heavenly Reason and the principle of humanity; and (3) to honour and pay homage to the Emperor and to observe the Imperial ordinances. Afterwards the Kyobusho was abolished too, and all the business conducted by this office up to that time was transferred to the Department of Home Affairs which was established in 1873. The official appointment of religious instructors (Kyodo-shoku) was discontinued in 1884, and the business of appointing preachers was entrusted to the head-priests (Kwancho) of the various religious sects, together with the right of selecting the resident priest (Jushoku) for the temples under their jurisdiction. Each sect was, moreover, given the power of managing its own affairs under the supervision of the Government. Religion was thus separated from politics. With the promulgation of the Constitution on the 11th of February in the 22nd year of Meiji (1889), the principle of religious freedom was firmly established. In April, 1900, the former Bureau of Shrines and Temples was divided into two sections, i. e., the Bureau of Shinto Shrines and the other the Bureau of Religions. All administrative policy concerning the Shinto shrines is now in charge of the former and is entirely independent of the policy governing religions. The Bureau of Religions was transferred to the Education Department in 1913, and is under its jurisdiction at present.

Administration of Religions At present, there are three kinds of religions in Japan. These religions are dealt with by the Government each in a different way, because Japan is still without specific laws defining the political status of these

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religions in connection with the State, though the principle of the administrative policy can recognize no such difference, as the Constitution guarantees freedom of faith. The Government, however, finds it natural not to mete out a uniform method of supervision over all these religions; for Buddhism, which has been in very close relation to the State and society for over one thousand years, and Shinto, which is the national cult of Japan, and Christianity, which was introduced to this country only half a century ago (putting aside the fact that it was once in this country a few centuries ago) can hardly be treated in a uniform method with satisfactory results.

From a practical point of view, the religious denominations which are officially recognized and come under the proper jurisdiction of the Bureau of Religions at present are Shinto and Buddhism. The denominations of Shinto are called "Kyoha" and those of Buddhism "Shuha." A religious order is a congregation of preachers and adherents following a definite system of creeds having temples or preaching halls from which their religious movements issue. Shinto and Buddhist Sects have not yet special regulations concerning cases of secession or incorporation, inasmuch as they are not allowed to make such regulations without the approval of the Education Minister. But affairs concerning the inner policy of the various sects are generally left to their own self-government, though the religious sects concerned are required by the State to compile fundamental rules defining their administrative policies approvable by the Education Minister.

Alteration of Rules The approval of the Education Minister is also required when they abolish or alter these rules. Each sect, Shinto or Buddhist, is required by the Government to select a head-priest, or Kwancho to govern and represent that sect. The appointment of a head-priest also requires the official approval. In the compilation of a constitution for each sect they have to define the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) the status of the preacher and his official title, and (3) the grades of preachers and their appointment and dismissal. These particulars are to be regulated by each Shinto head-priest. Meantime, each Buddhist head-priest is to regulate the following particulars: (1) the fundamental law, (2) rules concerning the management of temples, (3) the status of the priest and preacher and their official titles, (4) the appointment and dismissal of the resident priest, or Jushoku, of a temple, and grades of preachers, and their appointment and dismissal, and (5) the preservation of old historical documents, treasures, and properties belonging to the temples.

Besides thus defining the particulars as stated above, the constitution of each sect has to regulate, through practical necessity various affairs concerning its self-government. It must define, for instance, the functions and powers of the head-priest and the method of election; the organization and power of the council; functions of various officers; financial affairs; organization of a temple or a preaching hall; qualifications of a resident priest; affairs relating to the personnel, such as conferring honours or giving punishments; missionary work; education; and other functional activities. Needless to say, the head-priest governs his own sect according to the articles of this law. In short, the work of the Government in the matter of supervision over

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the various sects of Shinto and Buddhism, is to indicate to them what is needed for that kind of work prior to the compilation of their fundamental laws, and to give its official approval when these laws are prepared, and then to see if all the provisions are carried out satisfactorily.

While all the Shinto and Buddhist sects are thus placed under the direct supervision of the Government as far as such fundamental affairs as are mentioned above are concerned, they are left to the care of the local governments concerning the practical functionings of their propaganda work. When the Shintoists or Buddhists want to build their temples or preaching halls, for instance, they must approach the local governments for permission. As Buddhist temples are, on account of their historical significance, regarded as legal persons, the use of the temple grounds, changes in their acreage, cutting down of the trees, and disposition of immovable property, temple treasures, historical documents, or fundamental funds, etc. all require the approval of the local governor concerned.

Special Treatment of Christianity The Government gives no official recognition as regards the Christian denominations, because they, as such, stand in no legal relationship to the Government. In the case of Christianity, therefore, the official supervision does not go further than looking after its missionary activities, selection of preachers, establishment of churches or preaching halls, etc. The Ordinance No. 41 of the Education Office issued in 1899 requires that those who wish to engage in missionary work notify the local governor of the name of their religion and methods of preaching with their personal history. When they want to build churches or other establishments for religious purposes, they have to approach the local authorities for permission, stating details of these establishments, methods of management and maintenance, qualifications of the preacher, and the process of selecting such preacher. In other words, the Government has special provisions for the Shinto and Buddhist denominations because of their peculiar historical status, while it is contented with being a mere overseer as regards Christianity. As far as their religious functions are concerned, however, the Government makes no distinction whatever between Shinto and Buddhism and Christianity. All religious sects are left to themselves unmolested as long as they do not disturb the peace of the country or practise immoralities in connection with the propagation of their doctrines and the carrying out of their respective religious rituals.

Educational Institutions There are a large number of educational institutions established by various religious sects for the purpose of bringing up properly qualified preachers. Like other professional or general educational establishments, these religious schools are under the supervision of the Education Minister. Meantime, charity works such as reformatories, dispensaries and other organizations financed by the religious bodies are placed under the jurisdiction of the Home Minister similarly with activities maintained by unreligious bodies in general.

Religious Statistics

The following are the statistics of preaching halls, preachers and adherents of various religious sects and denominations:

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SECTARIAN SHINTO

(end of 1932)

Denomination	Preaching Halls	Preachers			Adherents (in 1930)
		Men	Women	Total	
Shinto	625	3,388	682	4,070	1,206,778
Kurozumi	454	3,883	516	4,399	551,236
Shusei	252	1,711	251	1,962	411,801
Taisha	204	2,913	144	3,057	3,343,477
Fuso	474	4,161	1,351	5,512	486,906
Jikko	257	1,893	624	2,517	403,519
Taisei	207	2,181	462	2,642	728,373
Shinshu	332	2,398	826	3,224	2,089,381
Ontaké	755	6,506	2,434	8,940	738,647
Shinri	291	1,352	263	1,615	1,412,382
Misogi	36	1,384	198	1,582	337,283
Konko	1,121	2,023	860	2,883	747,869
Tenri	9,763	36,998	23,128	60,126	4,118,238
Total	14,771	70,791	31,738	102,529	16,525,840

Note: The "kancho" or the executive head of each denomination is not included in the number of preachers.

BUDDHISM

(end of 1932)

Denomination	Temples	"Kancho"	Priests			Adherents (in 1930)
			Men	Women	Total	
Tendai	4,504	3	9,306	1,458	10,764	2,134,369
Shingon	12,095	10	12,835	654	13,489	8,526,867
Jodo	8,314	4	6,694	852	7,546	3,997,875
Rinzai	5,977	14	4,878	246	5,124	2,367,977
Soto	14,229	1	12,921	—	12,921	6,859,324
Obaku	523	1	415	24	439	111,841
Shin	19,716	10	28,095	10	28,105	13,259,390
Nichiren	5,028	9	7,091	332	7,423	3,315,359
Ji	491	1	438	1	439	383,171
Yuzunenbutsu	357	1	271	24	295	133,493
Hosso	41	1	93	9	102	14,772
Kegon	27	1	24	—	24	22,869
Others	49	—	—	—	—	—
Total	71,351	56	83,061	3,601	86,671	41,127,307

Note: There were 34,940 minor temples in addition to the number given above.

CHRISTIANITY

(end of 1933)

Denomination	Church and preaching stations	Preachers		Total	Adherents
		Men	Women		
Roman Catholic (1932)	238	—	—	274	191,008
Greek Orthodox	184	60	0	60	39,936
Presbyterian	442	476	25	501	49,717
Congregationalist	188	170	19	189	31,484
Episcopal	246	329	139	468	26,618
Baptist	80	72	15	87	7,416
Methodist	347	417	108	525	33,180
Salvation Army (1934)	303 (corps)	—	—	561	15,100
Holiness	456	270	147	417	19,357
16 other denominations	304	329	67	396	25,625

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1934-35 Religious Activities The Broadcasting Corporation of Japan inserted religious lectures in the morning programme, which stimulated religious interest among the people. Buddhist monks and preachers drew adherents in great numbers, specially in Tokyo and Osaka. Christianity seems, on the contrary, to be on the standstill except Methodist Churches, largely due to the nationalistic trend of thought prevailing in Japan for recent several years. Dr. John R. Mott paid a visit to Japan in March, 1935, and held meetings and conferences but evidently with little results.

The second North Pacific Buddhist Young Men's Union Meeting was held four days beginning with July 18, 1934, in the new edifices of the Tokyo Temple of the Hompa Hongwanji. All the nations and territories in and around the North Pacific Ocean were represented by over 600 delegates of B. Y. M. A. in China, India, Singapore, Ceylon, Siam, Burma, the South Sea Islands, Formosa, Chosen (Korea), Japan proper, Manchoukuo, Hawaii, and Canada. Important resolutions which were passed by unanimous vote were (1) Promotion of international peace, (2) Equality of all races, (3) Organization of a Pan-Pacific Buddhist Young Men's Union, and (4) Purchase and protection of the sacred ground Buddha-Kaya, where was situated the "desert" for the founder of Buddhism.

The Hompa Hongwanji

In order to give an idea of Japanese religious bodies the Hompa Hongwanji is taken as an instance, where description follows :

History The Shin Sect sprang out of the Tendai Sect in the 13th century. The Founder Shinran (1173-1262) was a disciple of Genku of Tendai, whose head temple was in Mt. Hiyéi, Kyoto. Shinran, when he was in death bed, gathered adherents and disceples and said, "If one of you offer thanks to Amida-Buddha, you may think that another man is sitting beside you ; if two of you thank him, you may think that there are three, for I, Shinran, am always with you." It required, a long time before the adherents of Shinran found a home and got their faith recognized as an independent sect. In 1272 or 10 years after the death of Shinran a small hall was erected by his mausoleum at Ohtani, Higashiyama, Kyoto, with his image enshrined in it, and the Emperor Kaméyama gave it the title, "Kuon Jitsujo Amida Hongwanji," from which originated the common name "Hongwanji". Kakushin-ni or Iyahimé, youngest daughter of the founder, was made the guardian of the temple. The Hongwanji was still under the control of the Tendai, the mother sect.

The man who succeeded in establishing an independent sect of Shin on the foundation of Shinran's faith was the third abbot, Kakunyo. This able monk let people know that the Hongwanji maintained an independent order, distinct from all other sects, the leadership of which was to be held in strict succession by descendants of Shinran, both in faith and in blood. He went about in evangelical trips over various provinces where the disciples of Shinran were scattered and got them into the Hongwanji Order.

One who gave a great impetus to the development of the Hongwanji was Rennyo, the 8th abbot. Rennyo was born in February, 1415, and in 1457 he succeeded his father as abbot. Up to that time he had devoted his entire energy to the study of the doctrines of Buddhist sects, and realized that the doctrines of the Shin Sect were admirably suited to

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the common people. He, therefore, began to write "Epistles", expounding the teachings and faith of Shinran in a most plain language, so that even the simplest seekers of the truth could comprehend what he wished to convey. The plain epistles produced the desired effect and increasing numbers of pilgrims began to pay a visit to the founder's shrine at Ohtani. This growing popularity of Rennyo, however, provoked an envious attention of the monks of Mt. Hiyéi, whose fanatic hatred finally induced them to destroy the Ohtani temple by fire in 1465.

In 1480 Rennyo built a temple at Yamashina near Kyoto, where he died in 1499.

In 1532 the Yamashina temple was again burnt in a persecution and Sho-nyo, the abbot, carrying the image of the founder with him, was compelled to retire to the branch temple at Ishiyama, Osaka, which Rennyo had erected in 1496.

The compounds of the Ishiyama temple were in such a favourable location for building a castle that Nobunaga Oda wanted the site for himself and hurled his strong army against the Hongwanji. For the ensuing ten years the Hongwanji held out against the war-lord, but the abbot Kennyo, in obedience to the Imperial order, made terms of peace with Oda and removed his temple to Saginomori in the province of Kii.

In 1591 Kennyo received from Hidéyoshi Toyotomi a tract of land, about 350 acres, at Nishi-Rokujo, Kyoto, for the re-establishment of the Hongwanji. Kennyo died in 1592 and was succeeded by the younger son Junnyo. The older son Kyo-nyo had been passed over because of his disobeyance of his father Kennyo's command to leave Ishiyama after the peace making with Oda.

Aware of the ever-increasing power of the Hongwanji, the Tokugawa Shogunate tried to split it and, taking advantage of the above incident, it gave Kyo-nyo a site for a new Hongwanji at Karasumaru, Kyoto. This was the origin of the Higashi (east) Hongwanji. The Hongwanji at Nishi Rokujo naturally began to be called the Nishi (west) Hongwanji. Another name for the former is the Ohtani-ha Hongwanji and that for the latter the Hompa or Hongwanji-ha Hongwanji, signifying legitimacy.

Present Status The number of branch temples, special branch temples, temples under its control and their branch preaching places of the Hompa Hongwanji is about 13,000. A rough estimate puts the number of monks at 30,000 and that of adherents at 3,000,000. Several years since the system of priestesses was instituted. Different from ordinary nuns they wear their hair, which can be done up in any manner and enjoy the same standing and rights with monks.

Administration The temple has its own constitution and administration. Its hereditary head is called Hossu or the head of the faith, and is responsibile to the Government for religious matters in his sect. He is a pope of Buddhism and practical handling of the affairs in and for the sect is entrusted to executors in the central administration.

The Shikko or executors are three, one of them being the Shikko-cho or the head-executor who corresponds to the premier. The organs of government are as follows :

The Executive or cabinet. The privy section, the legislative section and the intelligence section come under this.

Cultural bureau. Preaching section, educational section and social section belong to the bureau.

Business bureau. Business section and foundation section.

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Financial Bureau. Treasury section, discipline section and pilgrim section.

Service bureau. Ritual section and secretary section.

Reward bureau.

Judicial bureau.

The hossu household bureau.

There is a council called "Shuyé" or congregation, which consits of 30 (minimum)—66 (maximum) members. In 1933 the number was 63, 15 of whom were appointed by the hossu and 48 chosen by the monks as their representatives. Their function is to give advice and consent to the pending rules and pass on the budget.

The Budget The 1933-1934 budget of the Hompa Hongwanji is approximately ¥2,166,000. The expenditures classified are given below:

1933-1934 BUDGET OF HOMPA HONGWANJI

(In yen)

Ordinary accounts:	
Service bureau	43,927
Cabinet	39,887
Cultural bureau	267,277
Business bureau	64,408
Financial bureau	141,887
Reward bureau	293
Judicial bureau	5,841
The hossu household bureau	100,000
Miscellaneous	39,101
Reserve fund	40,000
Total	742,621
Special accounts:	
Ryukoku University	202,738
Middle Schools	143,499
Girls' Schools	190,973
Special meetings	501,000
Other 14 special accounts	384,953
Total	1,423,163
Grand total	2,165,784

The Hongwanji has several endowment founds of which important ones in 1933 follows:

Ryukoku University endowment fund	¥1,089,709
Hongwanji supporting society fund	1,640,573
Social work endowment fund	3,755,724
Total	3,755,724
Paid-up	1,122,583
Head temple and temples mutual help endowment fund	1,570,797

Propagation Buddhism has no Sunday services, except perhaps holding Sunday Schools. The propagation of the faith is done through sermon or ritual meetings in the temples, missionaries allotted to specified districts, travelling missionaries, and preaching among convicts, factory workers, Government officers, workers in private firms, and soldiers. The propagation activities cover not only the Empire, but the pacific coasts of the U. S. A., Vancouver, the Hawaiian Islands, the South Seas, Singapore, Sumatra, China, the Maritime Province of the U. S. S. R.

Young Men's and Young Women's Buddhist Associations hold large membership and are active in the propagation of the faith. There are also the Factory Y. M. A. and The Railway Friends' Association, similar in purpose to the foregoing associations.

The Hongwanji Sunday Schools have over twenty-years' history and the numbers of schools and pupils in 1931-1932 were as follows:

	Sunday Schools	Pupils enrolled
The Empire	1,882	380,845
The U.S.A.	45	7,669
Hawaiian Islands	134	14,406
South Seas	3	—

Educational Work There are 63 schools established by the head temple and educational bodies or individuals of the sect in Japan proper. The statistics of these schools in 1931 or 1932 follow:

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	Schools	Students or pupils
Schools established by the Head Temple:		
Ryukoku University	1	1,197
Woman's Colleges	3	815
Middle Schools	8	2,019
Girls' Schools	4	2,853
Seminary	1	203
Kindergarten nurse school	1	50
Schools established by educational bodies or individuals		
Middle Schools	4	762
Commercial School	1	764
Girls' Schools	32	7,645
Seminaries	16	964
Total	63	17,272

Social Work The Hompa Hongwanji plays an important part in social welfare work in the country. The Social Section of the Cultural Bureau expends about ¥52,000 annually, largely for the researches and inprovements of their social work. The number of institutions for social work in 1932 was 586:

Kind of work	Number of institutions
Nursery work	
Day nursery	133
Special nursery (open only when mothers are specially busy on the farm, etc.)	186
Economical protection	18
Poor relief	25
Medical	7
Judicial protection	92
Social enlightenment	112
Settlement work	13
Total	586

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CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL WORKS

Social Problems

These may in the main be summarized under 5 headings :

(1) Poverty and Its Relief. In Japan the gap between rich and poor may not be quite so great as in some Western countries, but nevertheless it exists, and tends in some ways to become greater with the industrialization of the country. Poor-relief is one of the greatest problems of the authorities, for it must include the city slums, the beggars, and the increasing numbers of peasant paupers. Though estimates vary, the number of "poor" may be placed at about 2% of the population, and of them probably some 8% are destitute.

(2) Condition of Labourers. This, with the attendant matters of pay and hours, especially in relation to international labour conferences and agreements, calls for careful Government handling : the protection of child and woman labour particularly so.

(3) Position of Women. The protection of women and elevation of their social and legal status is in some ways especially an Oriental problem. Socially, their position has been much raised of late years, till now it approximates nearly to that of men ; but the old discriminative laws enacted in the Meiji Era still handicap women in many respects. In regard to the age-old question of licensed prostitution there has been little improvement ; statistics show, indeed, a slight retrogression, for the numbers of women involved has increased, owing perhaps to the recent financial depression.

(4) Public Health. In a country which carries such a dense population this is a matter of vital importance. Medical science in Japan is second to none in the world with regard to its recent progress and present position, her doctors and surgeons having made contributions of inestimable value to mankind, and in some cases paid for them with their lives. But difficulties attend its application. The cost of treatment and of drugs and chemicals is high, and suggestions have been made for the nationalization of all medical business in order to help the poor.

(5) Thought Guidance. The guidance of the people's thought through the eddying turmoil of modern ideas and theories, from Marxism to Fascism with all intermediate shades, and the handling of practical matters connected therewith, are of the very gravest concern to this country, and are engaging the deepest attention of the authorities. The final settlement of these matters must be largely dependent on that of the preceding problems, though some consider that more radical and direct action is necessary for its attainment than merely the so-called social work. But inasmuch as most of these movements, radical or reactionary, include schemes for the sudden overthrow of the existing social system, neither the Government nor the people at large can regard them with unconcern.

The fourth problem, relating to Public Health, is specially treated

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in Chapter XXXII, while further reference is made to the others in the chapter on Labour.

Social Work

Before Meiji Era Prince Shotoku, Regent, established, in 593, Hidenin house for the poor, Sheyakuin (medicine house for the poor) and Ryobyoin (house for the sick). In 730 the Empress Komyo founded Hidenin and Sheyakuin at Nara. She herself washed the bodies of the poor and nursed the lepers.

Gyoki, a Buddhist monk who lived at the time of the Emperor Shomu (724-749), established 9 public lodging houses and a public bath house at Arima hotsprings near Kobe among other benevolent works which he established at places where he made a stay in an evangelistic journey of the country.

Hokin-in, a Buddhist nun and sister of Wake-no Kiyomaro, a famous loyalist, made an appeal for and saved 375 rebels who were sentenced to death in 764, whom she took under her care. When a little later, or at the end of the 8th century, famine stroke Kyoto and children were abandoned on the streets she gathered 83 under her motherly care. This was the beginning of orphanages in Japan and it was soon followed by the Empress Masako, consort of the Emperor Junna (823-833), who took care of many orphans and abandoned children in Kyoto. In 876 she established a leper asylum in the precinct of Daikakuji temple, Kyoto.

In 1180 Jugen, a monk, built 15 public bath houses for the poor. Kosho, another Buddhist monk, worked for prisoners, taught beggers and outcasts to refrain from drinking, instructed prostitutes in doctrines of Buddhism.

The monk Ninsho of Seidaiji temple, Nara, followed examples of Prince Shotoku and repaired houses for poor patients and lepers. For lepers he built an asylum which is still standing at Kitayama, Nara, under the Government protection as a specimen of social work of the early times. Later he became the superior of Gokurakuji temple at Kamakura and established, in 1287, an asylum for the poor. In the following 20 years the asylum accommodated over 57,250 patients, of whom over 46,800 were cured. At the foot of Kamakura hill he also built a house for sick horses.

Public baths for the poor were prevalent in the Kamakura age (1192-1337). It was during this period that nunneries were first opened for protection of women who were maltreated by husbands something in the manner of the 6 cities for refuge in Num. 35, O.T. Two of these have remained to the present day : one Tokeiji at Kamakura which was rebuilt in 1285 by Sadatoki Hojo for his mother ; the other Mantokuji in the county of Nitta, Gumma prefecture, which was established in this age and a daughter of the Tokugawas entered it in 1591. These nunneries were highly admired because of the nuns who came from warrior aristocrats and could stand against local authorities in protecting the weaker sex who took refuge in the nunneries. They became called Enkiri-dera or divorce temples.

In 1670 Tsunanori Mayeda (1643-1742), the lord of Kaga, present Kanazawa prefecture, established public lodging houses for beggars and poor patients on a hillside south of his castle in Kanazawa. The number of houses was 45, each having a size of 12 by 120 feet. 1,753 beggars and outcast were taken in with their opening. Poor travellers were given expenses at leaving and unemployed artisans were cared for till they

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found suitable posts, while others were taught in petty industries. One of the latter was skilled in sword making and the masterpieces signed by the swordsmith "Hinin Kiyomitsu" or beggar Kiyomitsu are highly admired.

The blind were early protected by the Imperial House and in Nara Age the Kugas took charge of them by Imperial order and the blinds were taught to get living by music. There arose many first class blind musicians in the "biwa" or the "koto". In the Yedo Age the blind received relief money or got occupations in acupuncture and massage. In 1722 the Tokugawa Shogunate built an asylum at Koishigawa, Yedo (Tokyo) for the patients of the poorest class. Its first capacity was 40 beds, but it was later increased to 150.

Kanonko, a Buddhists' corporation, was established in 1830 by Sukenari S. Naha of Akita. Later 72 donors came to his help and the aged, invalids, the sick, the deformed and idiots were cared for. In 1930 the corporation had a fund amounting to ¥51,887 and rice 2,760 koku.

The above are representative ones picked up among numerous recorded social works in old Japan. It must also be noted that relief works either by the government or individuals necessarily followed natural calamities in all ages on a considerable scale.

Meiji Era The earthquake of Nagoya in 1891, the North-Eastern tidal wave damages and famine in 1896, had quickened the development of orphanage work, and at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese wars relief work for soldiers, child protection, and free medical treatment were also being taken up. Yet they had been largely carried on by philanthropic individuals, and hardly differed from the old-fashioned benevolent and rescue work. The World War served as a great stimulus for the development of modern social work, for the economic, social and moral changes suddenly brought about at and after the time of the great conflict raised various kinds of social problems and at the same time accelerated progress in all kinds of social work, such as relief of the poor, free medical treatment, provision of houses, employment exchanges, child protection, settlement work and the like. The great earthquake of 1923 was an epoch-making event from the standpoint of the development of such work. From the beginning of the twentieth century the Japanese Government has issued many laws on social work, the most important of them being as follows :—the Military Relief Act of 1917, the Tuberculosis Prevention Act of 1919, the Employment Exchange Act and the Housing Association Act of 1921, the Health Insurance Act of 1922, and the Insanitary Houses Improvement Act and the Public Pawnshops Act of 1927.

Bureau of Social Affairs In regard to the administrative organization of social work, before the Great World War there were only a few officials engaged in reform and relief work, in one corner of the Department of Home Affairs. But in August, 1917, a relief section was established in its Local Government Bureau. In 1919, this section was given the name of the Section of Social Affairs and in 1920, it became a new Bureau of Social Affairs as a central organization for social work; in 1922, the present independent Bureau of Social Affairs came into existence and the administration of all social work throughout the country was brought under its control. The present social work in Japan is summarized in March,

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1932 as follows: the existing number of social work institutions and organizations, public and private, was 6,278, with annual expenses of ¥41,769,538 and the total amount of their property was estimated at ¥215,025,943.

The present tendency of Japanese social work is paving the way for the transformation of social work into a definite Governmental social policy. While the old benevolent work had developed into the present social work, the fundamental idea and means had undergone a great change. The present social work is carried on not necessarily with the idea of benevolence but rather on the principles of social solidarity and mutual help. From the standpoint of public welfare and mutual responsibility, modern social work has as its aim the solution of social problems and positive social reconstruction to accomplish the social welfare policy in co-operation with legislation on labour and social insurance.

Imperial Participation It must be remembered here that the Imperial House has been one of the leading factors in promotion of social work in Japan. Not to speak of the Imperial gifts in olden times, the Imperial donation of ¥1,500,000 in 1907 was the commencement of modern social work in Japan on a considerable scale because it called forth contributions from the people amounting to ¥24,350,000, and a society was organized for medical treatment for the poor. The annual Imperial donation for representative social works all over Japan was begun in 1921. The Imperial House has always taken the initiative in giving a large amount of money for social works of different natures with a full understanding of the aim of modern social work. For the celebration of the birth of the Crown Prince a fund amounting to ¥750,000 was donated by the Imperial House for the protection of children and mothers of the poor. The opening celemony of the corporation Aiikukai (Loving nursery corporation) established with the fund was held in the Tokyo Kaikan at Hibiya on April 29, 1934, in the presence of H. I. H. Princess Kuni, mother of the Empress.

Administration and Expenses

Organs for the Administration As mentioned above, the Government established an independent Bureau of Social Affairs in 1922 to control all the social works and institutions in the Empire. The office is located by the moat at Marunouchi, Tokyo, and stands facing the Imperial Palace. The Bureau consists of three departments, namely, Department of Labour, Department of Health Insurance, and Department of Social Work. The social affairs of local prefectures are under the direct control of the Sections of Social Affairs which are established in Prefectural and Municipal Offices.

The most important official organization for fundamental investigation of social work is the Social Work Investigation Committee established by the Government in 1926. This Committee, composed of distinguished persons in Government service and private life, have enquired into such matters as social work system, assistance to children, improvement of insanitary living quarters, and changes in the Reformatory Law. Of the private societies for investigation of social work, the Central Charity Association was the first instance of this kind. The Social Work Investigation Association in Osaka and the Buddhists' Social Work Investigation Association in Tokyo were established in 1913, the Religious Colleges Social Work Investigation

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Institute in 1917, and the Ohara Social Problems Investigation Institute and the Kyocho Kai or Labour-Capital Harmonization Association in 1919. There are 35 such organizations in Japan. Of these, the largest are the two last mentioned. The Ohara Social Problems Investigation Institute was established by the same donor, Mr. Ohara, who had been the supporter of the famous Okayama Orphanage and is engaged in an impartial and fundamental investigation of various kinds of social problems; it has a library of its own devoted to the same purpose and gives printed reports on its investigation. The Kyocho Kai has for its object the promotion of co-operation between the employers and the employed, and is engaged, in order to carry out its purpose, in the investigation and promotion of social institutions, the education of labourers and the publication of magazines and books, in the Social Policy Institute and the Kyocho Kai Hall.

Other Associations There are many associations organized for the purpose of unifying social works. The first organ of this kind is the Central Charity Association. This Association, engaging in such works as holding meetings of social workers, publication of printed matter, and investigation of social work, has contributed a great deal toward the development of such work in general. Similar Associations are organized in every part of Japan reaching to the present number of 43. There are supplementary organs for carrying out social work effectively. The most important of them is the Block Committee System. It was established to encourage the spirit of mutual aid among the people, and aims at the survey and improvement of poor quarters and the giving of suitable guidance and protection to the miserable. According to the estimate in 1931-1932, the number of the committee was 166 in all with 27,907 members and they are distributed all over Japan.

For the training of officers and workers there are 6 organs established in Tokyo and Kanagawa prefectures. The Kyocho Kai has held lecture meetings and the Central Social Work Association has held similar meetings for the cultivation of social work knowledge among the people. In 1921, the Social Work Department was established in the Tokyo Imperial University. The Japan Women's College, and the Social Work Lecture Institute in the Higashi-Honganji, a Buddhist temple in Kyoto, have worked for the same purpose. A chair of social work in the Japan University and a similar lectureship in the Tokyo Women's Union College, together with Social Work Departments in several Christian Colleges are doing a good work for the training of young people for social work.

Expenses The expenses of social work are derived from three sources, i. e., State, local and private. These expenses have increased on account of the speedy development of the work, especially since the rice riots in 1918 and the Great Earthquake of 1923. The expenses of social work in the year 1931-1932 amounted to ¥41,769,538, while the budget of local expenses for the year 1932-1933 amounted to ¥67,586,271. Besides these charges, there is special prefectural expenditure, such as Charity Relief Funds amounting to ¥9,045,728, Charity Aid Funds amounting to ¥2,489,277, and Military Relief Funds ¥2,481,199 in March, 1933. The funds created by the Calamity Fund Law totalled ¥94,388,407, in March 1933. The estimated expenses relating to the Bureau of So-

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cial Affairs for the fiscal year 1933-1934 amounted to ¥21,129,413, ¥3,663,894 of which was the Government help granted to local governments for general social works.

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES OF THE BUREAU OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS IN 1931-1935

(In yen)

	1931-32	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35
Ordinary				
The Bureau	453,258	410,510	416,010	408,088
The Imperial Office of the International Labour Office	103,663	113,136	119,918	125,517
National Correction Institute	48,143	45,648	45,648	45,648
Wounded Soldiers' Institute	109,871	117,287	114,006	113,824
Labour exchange office	203,822	190,757	191,257	186,953
The Ainu protection	42,064	37,858	37,858	37,858
Military relief	1,740,910	2,453,388	2,761,865	1,594,001
Subsidy for local correction institutes	124,314	120,768	122,287	152,735
Charity relief	31,212	28,091	28,091	—
Subsidy for labour exchange	291,366	282,866	308,740	308,740
Subsidy for charity relief	678,518	2,834,776	2,834,776	2,834,776
Subsidy for prevention of child maltreatment	—	—	20,000	50,000
National expense for Health Insurance	3,335,511	3,073,444	3,072,824	3,072,824
Charity aid	100,000	—	—	—
Special aid	2,766	—	—	—
Sick and funeral aid	16	16	16	16
Total	7,265,436	9,708,545	10,073,296	8,930,980
Extraordinary				
Subsidy for the establishment of public pawnshops	170,000	150,000	—	—
Encouragement of public pawnshops	—	265,276	722,100	389,013
Subsidy for the improvement of bad residence districts	400,000	250,000	350,000	200,000
Subsidy for public works for unemployment in cities	—	14,873,955	—	—
Unemployment relief	—	—	7,029,185	4,593,185
Investigation works, improvements, committees, etc.	1,257,706	4,173,166	2,954,832	2,181,331
Total	1,467,706	19,712,397	11,056,117	7,363,529
Grand total	8,733,142	29,420,942	21,129,413	16,294,509

Child Protection

Child protection in Japan is divided into the following nine main classes :—(1) Care for women in pregnancy or confinement (2) care for infants (3) for weakly children (4) for children of the very poor (5) for the education of children (6) for child-workers (7) for maltreated children (8) for children to be reformed and (9) for abnormal children.

Women in Pregnancy or Confinement The infant mortality rate of Japan was lower until 1900 than in Western countries, but since then it has gradually risen, till it reached the deplorable figure of 189 deaths for every 1,000 births in 1918, and though there was a decrease since, in 1933, still the rate was as high as 12.1 per cent. As for the still-birth rate, though there was some tendency to decrease, it was 5.1 for every 100 births in 1933, the total number of still-births reaching 114,138, that is, 1.8 for every 1,000 of population. The greatest em-

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phasis in child protection is laid on the protection and aid of expectant mothers, or the protection of children before and at the time of birth. For this kind of work there are at present such organizations as maternity hospitals, visiting midwives and confinement advisory institutes, besides legislation for maternity protection. In 1932-1933 there were 45 maternity hospitals throughout the country, while visiting midwives organizations numbered 391. Legislation for maternity protection is included in the Factory Law, the Mining Law and the Health Insurance Law. The first two laws provide that masters of industries and mines shall not require expectant mothers to work if they apply for leave of absence; after child-birth the mother shall not be required to resume work for 6 weeks, though if she requests work after 4 weeks and a doctor certifies her as fit, she may be allowed to resume it.

According to the Health Insurance Law, persons insured are to receive 20 yen for the expenses of confinement and also a daily amount corresponding to 60 per cent. of each day's wage throughout the no-work period for 28 days before and 42 days after child-birth.

Infant Protection The institutions now existing are divided into the four following kinds :—(a) hospitals for the unweaned pauper infants, (b) day-nurseries, (c) institutions for providing milk or other nutritious food for sickly and undersized children, and (d) infant health consultation institutes.

(a) Infant hospitals. There were 19 infant hospitals in the country in March, 1933. Of these 5 were established by public authorities and the rest were managed by private bodies or individuals.

(b) Day-nurseries. The demand for this work has become greater year by year, owing to the recent development of industry and the influx of population into cities. The oldest institute for this work was the one established by Mr. Shobi Akazawa at a street in the city of Niigata, June, 1890. In May, 1933 there were 634 in the country, of which 155 were public establishments.

(c) Institutions for providing nutritious food. The work for providing milk was first undertaken by the Hygiene Bureau of the Home Office with the help of the city of Tokyo as an emergency measure immediately after the Earthquake of 1923, for those infants whose parents were quartered in parks or other places of the city. There were 6 such organizations.

(d) Infant health clinics. As the first instance of an independent organization for this kind of work, we may cite the Osaka Children's Clinic established in 1919. In March, 1933 there were 121 such advisory institutes.

Child-Protection As for the legislation for the protection of poor children, it is provided for in the part concerning children in the Regulations for Relief of the Poor promulgated on April 2, 1929. According to the national survey, made by the Bureau of Social Affairs, 1926, the number of widows and their children, and children of widowers or whose parents were destitute of daily necessities was 133,588.

(a) Orphan Asylums. The orphanage may be said to have been one of the earliest institutions that led the Japanese toward social relief work in general, as was the case with Western countries. The work has made remarkable progress and is supported by the public with better understanding and large contributions. In March, 1933, there were 127 orphan asylums in the

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country of which only three were founded by public bodies. The total expenses of these asylums in 1932-1933 were ¥722,230 for 7,015 children which were chiefly met by incomes from the funds, incomes from business, subscriptions and public or private donations. Lately, however, the inmates of these asylums have a tendency to decrease on account of the development of various kinds of child-welfare work in other directions.

(b) Protection of weakly children. Physically weak children are cared for in recreation houses located near the sea or in the woods. The first example of this kind of work was that of the Tokyo Child-Nursing Institute which took a certain number of weakly children to the seashore of Boshu in 1900. Later, in June, 1926, the Child Protection Society, a corporation established in the compounds of the Bureau of Social Affairs, took up the work and has since provided a model example of it. As for the medical treatment of weakly children, the Children's Charity Hospital and the Children's Department of the Osaka Branch Hospital of the Japan Red Cross Society have been producing good results.

(c) Protection of Children of School Age. The elementary school attendance in Japan beats most of the nations of the world in its high rate. But there are a certain number of children who are kept from school partly through the operation of Article 33 of the Regulations for Elementary Schools, which recognizes as right in certain cases the non-attendance of children of school age, and partly because of poverty of the family. In March, 1933, the number of such children was 31,271. Encouragement of school attendance of those children, in some way or other, is made by the Government and various private bodies. Every year the Education Department gives Common Education Encouragement Grants to prefectures for the purpose of encouraging children to attend school. Owing to this help, the rate of school attendance of children in general has increased in a notable degree, and the percentage of daily attendance was 99.57 in the school year 1932-1933 against 99.54 in the school year 1931-1932.

The number of the schools for giving poor children compulsory education and the number of those which have evening classes for the same purpose was 38. Besides these schools there were 15 nurse-maids' schools, and the pupils of the schools for poor children were 4,599 while that of nurse-maids' schools were 451, at the end of March, 1933.

The heavy depression in farm and fishery villages stripped elementary school children of their lunch and the Government bore the expenses for their lunch for three years, from April, 1932 to March, 1935. The disbursement of the National Treasury for the purpose was ¥668,101 for 1932-33, ¥1,069,536 for 1933-34 and ¥1,481,873 for 1934-35. The number of children benefited was 425,628 in 13,865 schools during the year 1932-33, and 512,632 in 13,614 schools during the following year.

(d) Protection of Child Workers. The International Labour Conference paid great attention to this problem of protection of child workers, and its first conference in 1919 adopted an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers employed in industries and their night work, the second Conference in 1920 an agreement relating to the minimum age of child workers at sea and the third conference in 1921 an agreement relating to the same employed in agriculture. In Japan, there had been some laws in force already,

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but the International Labour Conference, and recent labour conditions necessitated the revision of these laws and regulations. The legislative measures now in force for protection of child workers are the Revised Factory Law of 1923, the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law of 1923, the Regulations for Relief of Miners of 1926, and the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law of 1923. In the Revised Factory Law, Article III provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day (exception being 15 hours for certain kinds of occupation), Article IV prohibits their night work, and Article VII states that they shall not be employed in dangerous work. In the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law, Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed in industrial work, but those children over 12 years of age who have finished the ordinary elementary school course shall be exempted from this rule. In the Regulations for Relief of Minors, Article VI provides that children under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed more than 11 hours a day and Article XII and XIII that children under 16 years of age shall not be employed in dangerous work. And in the Minimum Age of Seamen and Certificate of Health Law, Article II provides that children less than 14 years of age shall not be employed and Article III that in case of children under 18 years of age being employed, a doctor's certificate of health must be obtained. Just before the enforcement of these laws, that is, at the end of 1925, there were 474 children over 10 and under 12 years of age and 6,709 children who were over 12 and under 14 years old and had not yet finished their compulsory education employed in industries, but the Minimum Age of Industrial Workers Law enforced on July 1, 1926, has since prohibited their employment.

(e) Reformatory work. In March, 1900, the Reformatory Law was enacted and the establishment of prefectural reformatories was encouraged by the Government. According to this law, however, their establishment was voluntary. In 1908, it was revised and the Prefectural offices were compelled to found reformatories. Within two years after the enactment of the Law 30 reformatories were founded, both public and private. In August, 1917, an ordinance in regard to the founding of a national reformatory, which had been pending for many years, was promulgated, and in March, 1919, a State Reformatory, named the Musashino-Gakuin, was founded at a suburban village of Tokyo. The bills for juvenile courts and houses of correction, which had been pending for many years, were for the first time presented to the Imperial Diet by the Law Bureau as Government Bills, and in April, 1921, they were published as the Juvenile Law and the House of Correction Law. To meet the need of the progress of the times, however, these were revised and the Law No. 55 was promulgated in May, 1933. It is called the Juvenile Protection Law and became effective on October 1, 1934.

At the end of 1934 there were 52 reformatories, the capacity being for 2,364 children, with the estimated expenses amounting to ¥677,312 for 1934-35. In addition to these reformatories, there are 31 Correction Societies which are taking care of boys and girls who are not under the direct care of the reformatories.

(f) Protection of Abnormal Children. Blind and deaf-mute children

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are taken care of in blind schools and deaf-mute schools. The importance of protecting feeble-minded and other mentally defective children has long been insisted upon by the thinking public, but the number of organizations for that purpose is only 6 in all, of which only one, that is, the Imamiya-Gakuen established by the City of Osaka, is a public one, the number of inmates being 145, in March, 1933. It is estimated that there are over 5,000 such children left entirely to the ineffective care of individual homes.

(g) Prevention of Maltreatment. The Law for the Prevention of Child Maltreatment, which was promulgated with Law No. 40 in April, 1933, states the power of prefectural governors to give adequate warning to the maltreatment of children by the people who have power over them and make provisions for putting such children under the care of suitable persons when necessary and prohibit the maltreatment of children in such performances as acrobats and the circus. It was put in force on October 1. In the half year from October 1, 1933 to March 31, 1934, the number of the children protected by the Law was 593 ; of the total 179 were from maltreatment by parents or relatives, while 414 were forced to overwork in petty shows or as street singers, geisha girls, etc.

Economic Protection

Supply and Improvement of Houses

(a) Building and management of houses by public bodies. To meet the pressing need of supplying economical and at the same time sanitary houses, in the year 1918, a note was issued to encourage public bodies to build and supply houses, the building cost of which might be loaned from the Funds of the Deposit Office of the Finance Department, at an annual interest of 4.8 per cent. The rate of interest was revised twice since and the present one is 3.2 per cent. This low-interest-rate loan together with a loan from the Reserve of the Post Office Life Insurance greatly facilitated the building work. Several other means were adopted to facilitate the work, namely, the sale of building materials produced from the Government forests at low cost, reduction in or exemption from freight charge for transportation of building materials, application of the Land Expropriation Law, if necessary, in case of buying land for the building of houses of public bodies, and freedom from the Registration and Construction Taxes. As to the result of this encouragement, the total number of houses built during the 15 years from 1919 to 1933 reached 66,486 with the total cost of building ¥111,888,940.

(b) Enforcement of the Housing Association Law. To give convenience to a number of middle-class people for building their own residences the Government issued the Housing Association Law in April, 1921, and it was put into force the same year. The association is to be a legal person possessing several privileges in respect of taxation, acquisition of land, etc., and the working funds were loaned to the associations from the Funds of the Deposit Office of the Finance Department through the prefectural offices. In November, 1933, there were 2,740 associations under the Law, owning 30,703 houses.

(c) Enforcement of the Insanitary Building Site Improvement Law. Supply of dwellings is one aspect of this question and their improvement is another. The first step taken by the Government in the latter was to improve and remake the sites in cities where poorly built houses were crowded together. A nation-wide investigation made in June, 1925,

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showed that there were 217 such quarters with over 72,600 families and over 309,000 inhabitants. The land level was generally low, the quarters naturally damp, and an intricate network of unpleasant narrow roads, together with a congestion of small but not at all compact houses lacking in proper light and ventilation, made the place an unplanned hodge-podge. For the start of their programme, the Government, taking up a plan to remake such quarters existing in the so-called six largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya, Kyoto, Kobé and Yokohama) and in the rural districts contiguous to them, enacted in March, 1927, the Insanitary Building Site Improvement Law which was enforced in the same year. It gives directions and definitions on the following items:— agents connected with the work, quarters to be improved, temporary accommodations for the inhabitants of the quarters to be remade, readjustment of land and houses, subsidy from the national treasury, and expropriation or compulsory use of land and manufactured articles. Subsidies granted to local governments from the national treasury for this purpose amounted to ¥3,790,000 in 1927-1933. But the improvement was completed in most of cities and the budget for 1933-34 subsidies was diminished to ¥200,000.

Public Lodgings Single working men, unemployed persons and the like, as a rule, sleep at imperfectly-equipped doss-houses or cheap lodgings, or live with others. In 1925, there were 8,873 doss-houses with 92,861 monthly sojourners who had families, 200,518 single persons and 208,775 one-night lodgers, amounting to 502,154 persons in all. This situation was not at all desirable viewed from any angle, and the preparation of cheap yet healthy public lodging-houses seemed an urgent need for the welfare of labourers and the like. The number of such lodgings at the end of the fiscal year, 1932-1933, was 152 and the monthly average number of lodgers was 245,650. Of the total number of lodgings 67 are free, the rest charging 10, 15 or 20 sen a night.

Public Markets The public markets are retail markets managed by public bodies or public welfare organizations having as their aim a cheap supply of food-stuffs and other daily necessaries. According to the investigation made in November, 1921, by the Bureau of Social Affairs, the average cost of food-stuffs of the poor families in the city of Tokyo was 54.7% of their total living expenses. On the other hand, the rapid rise of the prices of commodities in the post-war period showed no signs of halting while individual incomes failed to catch up with the price level. And in August, 1918 a rice riot was started by the poor housewives at a small village of Toyama prefecture which spread over the country like a prairie fire. The situation awakened Imperial solicitude, and ¥3,000,000 was granted for relief from the Privy Purse. The Government also provided ¥10,000,000, and the amount of contributions by wealthy men and benevolent persons reached ¥25,000,000. This money was used in giving rice to the poor in the country and in opening establishments where rice was sold at lower prices. In December of the same year, the Government issued a note encouraging the establishment of public markets, and made available loans at a low rate of interest for the necessary expenses in establishing such markets. In March 1933 there were 291 such markets opened in almost all prefectures but 6, and sales for the fiscal year amounted to ¥51,280,228.

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Lunch Rooms The object of the people's lunch rooms, whether attached to a public lodging-house or independent, is to provide labourers, small-salaried men and the like with simple, wholesome and sanitary meals at cheap rates. In March, 1933, there were 70 of these people's lunch rooms, most of them managed by public bodies and located in cities and towns, with 989,681 meals taken in a month. Each meal cost from 12 to 20 sen.

Public Baths Japanese people greatly enjoy their baths, but only a small proportion of them can do so in private. The majority have to utilize public baths. Moreover, it is not very infrequently the case that people take fewer baths than they require as the bath-charges are not cheap enough, and herein lies the need of sanitary, well-equipped, cheap or free public baths. The number of public baths in March, 1933 was 169, patronized by 1,959,445 bathers a month.

Public Pawnshops The pawnshop and the money-lender are utilized by the people of small means as a simple and popular means of monetary circulation. The Public Pawnshop Law was promulgated in 1927, which regulated on the subjects of managing bodies, subsidy of 50 per cent. of equipment expenses from the national treasury, loans, computation of interest and term of pledge. At the end of May, 1933, there were 529 public pawnshops, the total amount of loan reserve being ₹9,810,000. The present financial depression throughout the urban and rural districts caused unprecedented tightness of money among the salarymen, labourers and farmers of smaller means, and the need for public pawnshops became more acute. The 63rd session of the Imperial Diet gave consent to a plan for the establishment of 200 pawnshops by the Government in 1932 and the number in 1933 gained 285 over the previous year. This policy has been continued for 1934 and 1935, and the estimated amount of subsidies for the establishment of public pawnshops was ₹722,100 for 1933-34 and ₹389,013 for 1934-35. At the end of April, 1934 the number of public pawnshops was 787 with the total amount of loan reserve of ₹12,843,816.

Protection of Unemployed

Employment Exchanges There have been from olden times private employment exchanges called "Keian" or "Kuchiireya" conducted by individuals. But there were no free exchanges until 1901, when in Hongo Ward of the City of Tokyo there was established a free lodging-house for low class labourers and the unemployed, and along with this charitable work the first private free employment exchange was founded for the lodgers in 1906. The earliest public employment exchanges were established in Tokyo, in 1911. At the close of the Great War, the Home Office felt the urgent necessity of extending and developing the employment exchanges in order to meet the needs of the time. In 1920, the Office put into circulation a low-interest loan for the establishment of the employment exchanges to cope with the demands caused by an extreme business depression. And in June of the same year, the Home Office, in order to systematize the work of employment exchanges, took charge of all the affairs relating to them, and in order to extend, unite and develop them, allowed the Kyocho-Kai to start a central managing office of all the employment exchanges in the country.

(a) Employment Exchange Law. Complying with the general demand, the Employment Exchange Law was issued in 1921. According to this

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Act, employment exchanges are, in principle, public organizations. They are voluntarily established and conducted by the heads of cities or towns, but in some instances the Home Minister gives orders for the establishment in places where he thinks the conditions demand it. The National Government subsidizes them to the extent of one-half of the expenses for buildings and equipment at the beginning and one-sixth or less of other expenses. One Central and several Local Employment Exchange Bureaux are to be founded for the unification of those exchanges in the country, and the work is under the supervision of the Home Minister and the Directors of these Bureaux. A standing committee is to be established to direct the management of the exchanges. There may also be established private free employment exchanges with the permission of the administrative authorities, and the aid afforded by all these employment exchanges must be free of charge.

After the enforcement of this Law, in November, 1922, the convention relating to unemployment, adopted by the First International Labour Conference at Washington, was ratified and published for the encouragement of this kind of work. In addition to the provision above mentioned, the Regulations for Enforcement of the Employment Exchange Law were revised, 1924, in order to systematize the connections among employment exchanges, and there were also newly-introduced regulations for the establishment of seasonal-employment exchanges, and of employment exchange committees in cities and towns for the promotion of this work. It is true that there are still a great many employment exchanges run for profit, but owing to the increase and improvement of public employment exchanges, they are gradually decreasing. And to conform with a resolution adopted at the Washington Conference of 1919, the National Government enforced from the 1st of January, 1927, the Regulations for the Control of Employment Exchanges for Profit.

(b) Activities of employment exchanges. In March, 1923, the Government established the Employment Exchange Bureau, and in April, the Central Employment Exchange Bureau, the Tokyo and the Osaka Local Employment Exchange Bureaux, and in April, 1927, the Nagoya Local Employment Exchange Bureau. In February, 1924, the system of the Employment Exchange Committee was introduced as an enquiry office for the administrative authorities concerned with the work. In March, 1934, there were 525 such employment exchanges, 35 of these being established by private bodies, cases handled by 455 general employment exchanges and involving workers in the shops and factories being 1,528,291 for adults and that for day-labourers reaching to the enormous number of 20,124,272, during the same year. The percentage of the hired was 41 and 83 respectively.

(c) Privileges in connection with employment. The privileges to be enjoyed by those who are cared for by public employment exchanges and the special arrangements connected with them are as follows:

(1) Reduction in fares — half third-class—is allowed for a train or steamer, (2) An advance of wages may be granted, (3) Loans may be made for expenses in travelling from the present domicile to the destination, (4) Implements for work are lent; also (5) Mutual aid systems of unemployment insurance, medical treatment and credit, (6) Occupational fitness test for the choice of work, (7) Vocational guidance lecture meetings, and (8) A low inter-

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est loan, may all be availed of.

(d) Juvenile Employment Exchange. Juvenile employment has lately become one of the most important social problems which draws the serious attention of thinking people. To encourage boys and girls to choose their work according to their abilities is most desirable in view of the fact that their livelihood will thus be made secure for the future and there will be smaller danger of their losing positions. The Government has paid much attention to this point since the year 1925, and the Employment Exchange Bureaus, taking into consideration the opinions of the prefectural authorities, designated the elementary schools to be connected with Public Employment Exchanges, and held consultation meetings on this subject, calling school masters and other persons concerned to attend, and a committee for juvenile vocational guidance was to be established, composed of those officials of Public Employment Exchanges who were well informed of juvenile employment and those educationists, doctors and social workers for child protection who were well versed in child psychology.

There are three institutions for the juvenile employment guidance, namely, the Tokyo Prefectural Juvenile Employment Exchange, the Tokyo City Woman and Juvenile Employment Exchange, and the Juvenile Division of Osaka City Central Employment Exchange. Many Public Employment Exchanges include the work of juvenile employment exchange, beside these organizations.

In 1931-1932, there were 25,665 elementary schools of which 4,202 had connection with Public Employment Exchanges, and the number of cases being 212,854 and the employment rate was 41 per cent.

(e) Unemployment Relief. The Government, in 1925, asked the six largest cities and Osaka Prefecture to start public works in order to provide work for day-labourers who were suffering from seasonal unemployment in winter, and granted half of the cost for wages to labourers thus employed. This work generally concerns itself with roads, dredging, waterworks, sewers, banks of rivers, reclamation of land, necessaries for the army, etc. The local public organizations connected with the six largest cities have been engaged, since, in this work every year with the support from the Government. In 1933-1934 the result of the unemployment relief works was as follows:

	Business Expenses	Wage paid	Number of day-labour
1933-34	¥36,741,180	¥13,701,548	10,527,072
1934-35	23,974,407	7,717,699	5,857,452

(f) Vocational Guidance and Provision of Employment. The work of vocational guidance and providing employment has developed only of late years, especially since the Great Earthquake. Vocational guidance emphasizes the development of ability for employment by simple methods, while providing employment means the utilization of institutions necessary for employment. The oldest institution for vocational guidance is the Tokyo Municipal Vocational Guidance Society, which is a juridical body established in 1922, with a fund of ¥100,000 contributed to the city by the Kanegafuchi Spinning Company for the relief of the unemployed. There are now 6 institutions for vocational guidance in the country.

Institutions for providing employment are much older than those for vocational guidance. The first example was an organization established by Fukuoka prefecture, in 1884, for the purpose of giving em-

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ployment to samurai families after the abolition of feudalism. This work has gradually been extended with the change of social conditions and increasing financial difficulties, and there are 73 organizations giving employment, chiefly home work for women, such as hand and machine sewing, knitting, embroidering, doll-making, lace-making, flax-thread-making, envelope-making and the like.

In connection with the work of providing employment, one word seems to be necessary about the Keisei-Sha. It is a juridical corporation, with an endowment fund of ₹1,000,000. This organization is engaged in such work as protecting the crippled, giving them employment, helping them to study, and providing them with artificial limbs. This study of the problem of providing artificial limbs by the organization is so far the only example in this country, though it has been greatly developed abroad and especially since the European War. It is believed that it will do much in the future toward the promotion of the happiness of the crippled. The homes as well as the workshops of the organization are situated in the compounds of the Asylum for Disabled Soldiers in Tokyo prefecture.

The Population and Food Investigation Committee has adopted very important resolutions, and the Government is now seriously studying the points contained in them. The most important of them are (1) to put employment exchanges under the management of the State, (2) to provide the means for prevention of unemployment and relief work by the establishment of public unemployment funds of the State and local public bodies, (3) to take some measure for the supervision and encouragement of unemployment mutual aid institutions, (4) to encourage and supervise the establishment of the systems of giving discharge allowances and of providing unemployment reserve funds (5) to encourage the establishment by industrials themselves of labour efficiency and unemployment prevention committees, and (6) to establish such organizations as an unemployment investigation committee or an unemployment investigation institute.

As for the establishment of an unemployment insurance system, the Government, besides trying to obtain exact figures about unemployment as the basis of such a system, is doing its best not only to examine the results of systems of discharge allowances, mutual aid associations and health insurance but also to make a comparative study of the legislation on this subject in various foreign countries, and when it reaches definite conclusion, intends to submit it to a labour insurance investigation committee.

Poor Relief

General Poor Relief The Regulations for Relief of the Poor were promulgated as early as 1874. The revised Relief Law was promulgated on April 2, 1924 and was put in force on January 1, 1932. The regulations maintain the old spirit of mutual help among relatives and neighbours and, at the same time, emphasize social solidarism and public responsibility of relieving the impoverished people. Those who are relieved by the law are poor old people above 65, helpless juveniles under 13, poor pregnant women, helpless invalid and cripples, those who are handicapped by sickness, wound or mental disorder, and poor mothers who are nursing infants under one year.

The period of time for relief should generally be as long as it is

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required, but sometimes, especially when the case is taken up by a Block Committee, it is fixed, for example, at three or four weeks. The method of relief is of two kinds, indoor and outdoor, and as for the former, such large cities as Tokyo or Yokohama have their own homes or other relief institutions, otherwise the smaller municipalities entrust the relief of the poor to those orphanages, asylums or charity hospitals which are managed by private persons or organizations.

In 1932-1933 the number of the poor relieved was 157,072 and that in 1933-1934 was 208,570.

Special Poor Relief Special poor relief, as against general poor relief, includes (1) Proper attention for those found sick, dying or dead by the roadside, (2) Relief of sufferers from natural calamities, and (3) Relief of empoverished soldiers and their bereaved families.

Attention to the sick and dead found by the roadside is of fairly long standing, but the regulations now in force were issued in 1899; these regulations aim at relieving those people who are found sick on the road, or disposal of dead bodies, and care for the children who are with them. The heads of the cities or towns where they are found must apply to the prefectures concerned for authority to take charge of them in case there are no relations on whom they can depend. The expenses for their relief, if not met by those who are relieved themselves or their supporters, must be defrayed by the prefectures concerned, and they may be handed over to public or private institutions for further help though there is no fixed period of time.

Calamity Relief Japan suffers particularly from natural calamities owing to its climate and volcanic activities, the losses amounting to nearly ¥70,000,000 every year, from fires and floods. To relieve the sufferers from these calamities, there have been established the Natural Calamities Relief Fund Law and Sea Disaster Relief Fund Law, in 1899. The Government had promulgated the Biko Chochiku Law in 1880, according to which ¥1,200,000 each year had been paid out of the National Treasury. This amount of money had been distributed between the Central Government and Prefectures which, in addition to this national aid, and appropriated public saving funds. Consequently, the total of the funds both of the Central Government and Prefectures had been enormous. Since 1890, the disbursement from the National Treasury and the appropriations by Prefectures had been abolished and the said Laws were issued instead. At the end of April 1933, the total amount of the Funds was ¥93,334,800, and in 1931-1932 the amount of the disbursement for relief out of these Funds totalled ¥1,000,504.

With the sad experience at the time of the Great Earthquake of 1923 fresh in the public memory, Osaka and Kyoto introduced the Great Calamities' Relief Regulations soon after that terrible event, according to which the Prefectural Offices, the Municipal Offices, the Army Division, and the Gendarmerie Corps are to co-operate in cases of great emergency.

The annual number of marine disasters off the coasts of Japan is over 1,000, and the average number of persons killed, injured or missing in these disasters reaches 600 or 700 a year. For the relief of these persons, the Sea Disaster Relief Law was issued in 1899, by the terms of which the heads of municipalities are invested with certain

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powers to give relief at the expense of the captain or owner of the ship concerned, but in case the money is not refunded by the captain or owner, or the relief proves insufficient, the expense incurred is paid by the National Government.

Military Relief Military relief work is different from other relief work. Its object is to give help to soldiers or their families who are suffering from want on account of military service. The method of this relief is of two kinds, institutional and domiciliary, and the law for the former is the Disabled Soldiers' Asylum Law and for the latter the Military Relief Law.

The Disabled Soldiers' Asylum Law provides for the life-time care in the Disabled Soldiers' Asylum of those who are receiving an additional pension on account of wounds received on active service or illness incurred during their term of service. The governing condition is that they must have no other source of help, but those who need such relief and suffer from deformity or disablement more severe than the kinds mentioned in Article 24, Items 1 and 2 of the Enforcement Regulations of the Pension Law, can also be taken care of. The admission of all cases shall be sanctioned by the Home Minister. There is one such asylum established by the State at Sugamo, Tokyo.

The Military Relief Law was issued in 1928. By this Act, relief is given to common soldiers who were disabled or crippled while in public service, and to their families, to the families of soldiers on active service or soldiers called out for special service and the families of soldiers who died on service if the said families are in need of help.

The cost for this relief has been increasing though the number of cases fluctuates every year. The figures for the fiscal year 1933-1934 were 30,094 households involving 98,905 persons relieved, and ¥2,702,935 expended for the purpose.

Private Military Relief The organizations for private military relief work numbered 31 at the end of March 1929, the Japan Red Cross Society and the Imperial Military Aid Society being the most prominent, and these organizations are mainly engaged in the giving of relief, generally temporary, to those who are outside the application of the Military Relief Law.

Health Protection

From very long ago, the Imperial Household has paid attention to the care of the sick. A sort of dispensary called Hospitals for the Poor were established in 593, by Prince Shotoku. The present Saisei-Kai, a foundational juridical person, established by the wish of the Emperor Meiji to give medical treatment to the poor, continues the work of these ancient hospitals.

Free Medical Treatment There are fairly many organizations which give free treatment, e. g., hospitals, medical consultation offices, visiting treatment societies, visiting nursing societies, etc. The Government decided to extend the work to farm-villages and fishing communities with ¥6,000,000, a part of which was donated by the Imperial House. It is to be continued from 1932 to 1935. There are 142 hospitals and 313 smaller branch hospitals or medical clinics, according to the statistics of 1932. In 1933-34 persons treated by the hospitals only were 895,526.

Cost-Price Treatment The Emperor Meiji pointed out, in his edict, that Japan was also experiencing an economical change with the general trend in the world, that it was most regrettable to see faithful but poor subjects suffering from illness

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unable to get medical treatment, and that there was acute need to give suitable relief to them ; and he gave a large amount of money elsewhere mentioned.

The thing most dreaded by the labouring classes is sickness or injury. Once smitten by sickness or rendered idle by injury, a workman is thrown out of work no matter how much he may desire it and has no means of getting medical treatment ; his days of unemployment may be prolonged forever, and finally he may be stripped of all his possessions and his family may starve.

The Cost-Price Medical Treatment Association, a corporate juridical person, was organized on the 5th September, 1911 by the effort of Mr. Suzuki and Dr. Kato.

The Association has its headquarters in Tokyo and four branch offices in Tokyo, Yokohama, and Osaka and there are now 41 cost-price medical treatment offices established by public bodies in different parts of Japan, and 112 hospitals in which the proletariat patients are treated at cost-price.

The Do-ai (or mutual love) Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama, the Imperial Charity Association, the Red Cross Hospital, the Jikei (or benevolence) Association Hospital have recently begun cheap medical treatment. The Do-ai Hospitals in Tokyo and Yokohama were established with the money given by the American people at the time of the Great Earthquake, 1923, as a memorial of their kind assistance in that period of trial. Mr. Suzuki, who has played a brilliant part in the promotion of this kind of social work, is now insisting upon the national management of all medical business for the thorough protection of the life of the people in view of the unreasonable high cost of medical treatment by common practitioners and consequent loss of life and impoverishment.

Sanatoria, Asylums and Special Hospitals We find a regulation concerning mental disease in the Taiho Laws issued in 701. But the number of sufferers increased in direct proportion to the advancement of civilization. Our statistics record the fact that at the end of 1912 there were 32,964 insane persons, by the end of 1922 the figure rose to 50,891, and in 1933 it stood at 76,039, an increase of 2,499 as compared with the preceding year, the ratio is 11.31 in every 10,000 of the population, an increase of 0.22 as compared with the preceding year.

(a) Laws and regulations concerning insane persons. The Law for the custody of Insane Persons was enacted in 1900, with the object of protecting the public from harm at the hands of insane people. It provides for the appointment of a responsible person to place an insane person under his custody, and if necessary, by the approval of the prefectural governor, to confine the said insane person. The expenses, according to this law, shall be borne by the estate of the insane persons themselves or by proper responsible persons, as the case may be, and in case any insane person protected by the order of the head of a municipality is unable to reimburse the money advanced by the municipality, the prefecture shall bear the expenses.

The Insane Asylums Law, which may be taken as a sub-division of the previous one, gives power to the competent Minister to order and bring prefectures, if necessary, under obligation to establish insane asylums or hospitals (Art. 1), and makes provisions concerning the state subsidy.

(b) Present condition of insane

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asylums and hospitals. At the end of 1933 there were 8 public hospitals for the insane and 112 private asylums, with combined capacity for 15,996 patients. At the end of 1933 there were 5,070 in-patients in these hospitals and asylums.

(c) Tuberculosis. It is almost impossible to get the exact number of the cases of tuberculosis in this country, but the ratio of patients per 1,000 of the examined in accordance with the provisions of the Law for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was 0.26, a decrease of 0.05 as compared with the previous year, and in 1932, there were 87,427 killed by pulmonary tuberculosis, that is 74.4 in every 1,000 deaths, the highest ratio for these five years. The Government issued regulations, 1914, concerning the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoria in cities of more than 30,000 population, and regulating the state subsidy thereto. The present Tuberculosis Prevention Law was enacted in 1919.

(d) Leprosy. For the prevention of leprosy, the Leprosy Prevention Law was issued in 1908. By this law, aid for indigent lepers out of public funds, the order of the competent Minister for the establishment of leper-asylums by united prefectures, or the use of private ones in lieu of public ones and other such matters are provided for. The whole country, in conformity with this law, was divided into five Divisions numbered one to five. Besides these 6 public leper-asylums, there are 7 private ones. The Koyama Fukusei In, established by the Roman Catholic Church in Shizuoka prefecture, the Ihai En in Tokyo prefecture, the famous Kumamoto Kaishun Byoin founded by an English lady, Miss Riddell, and the Tairo In in Kumamoto prefecture have done valuable work for many years, being managed by Christian missionaries. (See Chapter XXXII on these subjects.)

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORKS IN JAPAN

(The fiscal year 1932-1933)

Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Fund	Expenditure
Organs	1,198	¥38,067,649	¥5,167,489
Unifying organizations	55	4,999,211	1,760,692
Investigation org.	35	850	1,204
Educational org.	6	13,500	8,412
Supplementary org.	17	30,300,150	1,984,189
Block committees	70	—	754,698
Backing organs of the block committees	1,010	2,753,938	708,294
Child protection	1,481	14,146,539	3,781,247
Protection of pregnant women			
(Midwives)	391	11,841	109,276
(Hospitals)	45	1,188,442	507,482
Protection of suckling infants	19	231,473	82,419
Day-nursery	589	3,188,642	925,867
Feeding infants	127	5,495,723	722,230
Child consultation	121	90,088	115,698
Protection of cripples	1	21,708	2,829
Protection of weak children	6	1,910,625	244,598
Protection of sick children	17	33,670	27,440
Protection of poor children	38	562,290	119,914
Schools for nursemaids	15	14,042	6,290
Education of working children	11	83,709	15,196
Reformatory education	59	—	677,812

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Name	Organization or Institution	Property and Fund	Expenditure
Reformatory protection	31	¥88,718	¥60,287
Protection of abnormal children	6	1,048,034	122,653
Stammer correction	4	64,041	19,152
Economical protection	1,832	—	—
Housing work	642	—	—
Common inns	152	—	—
Public markets	291	—	—
Cheap dining rooms	70	—	—
Public baths	167	—	—
Public pawnshops	510	—	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment	556	1,980,484	2,943,158
Giving works	72	1,887,054	1,262,354
Employment exchanges	479	—	1,479,876
Vocational guidance	5	93,430	200,928
Poor relief	582	24,980,670	2,747,668
Relief at homes	195	3,270,488	327,802
Relief in institutions	113	10,882,898	1,848,659
Protection of cripples and invalids	26	1,501,372	167,712
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	248	9,325,912	903,495
Medical treatment	599	33,301,464	10,659,165
Charity hospitals	142	22,203,020	56,188,448
Consultation rooms	312	3,500,318	1,664,418
Consignment treatments	61	302,351	76,545
Insane hospitals[1]	44	1,234,381	451,865
Tuberculosis sanatoria[2]	28	4,155,540	1,371,959
Leper homes	12	1,905,854	905,930
Miscellaneous	548	114,907,632	21,495,621
Settlement works	152	7,374,050	4,097,502
Consultation bureaux	146	65,818	23,477
Protection of women	23	600,312	172,397
Mather and child protection	13	63,257	11,883
Father and child protection	1	—	1,655
Visiting sick people	12	37,873	33,641
Hygienic education	89	2,334,988	1,092,967
Funeral aids	6	93,752	28,092
Other works	106	104,337,582	16,034,007
Total	6,791	227,384,488	46,794,348

Note: (1) and (2) for the poor only. See Chapter XXXII for full statistics.

STATISTICAL TABLE OF SOCIAL WORKS IN JAPAN

(Continued)

Name	Results (Cases or men treated)		Workers
Organs	(Cases)	3,707,680	33,755
	(Students)	198	
Unifying organizations		—	330
Investigation org.		—	36
Educational org.	(Students)	198	130
Supplementary org.		—	102
Block committees	(Cases)	3,707,680	33,107
Backing organs of the block committees		—	—
Child protection		155,778	5,047
	(Cases)	73,739	
Protection of pregnant women (Midwives)		8,507	
	(Cases)	18,636	347
(Hospitals)		45,175	426
Protection of suckling infants		12,655	84

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Name		Results (Cases or men treated)	Workers
Day-nursery		59,475	2,191
Feeding infants		7,015	691
Child consultation	(Cases)	55,103	250
Protection of cripples		14	6
Protection of weak children		716	110
Protection of sick children		12,124	86
Protection of poor children		4,599	220
Schools for nursemaids		451	47
Education of working children		824	61
Reformatory education		2,364	503
Reformatory protection		—	—
Protection of abnormal children		145	34
Stammer correction		1,195	19
Economical protection	(Houses)	33,500	—
	(Tsubo)	38,337,314	—
	(Sale)	51,280,228 (yen)	—
	(Loan)	8,475,093 (yen)	—
Housing work	(Houses)	33,500	—
Common inns	(Tsubo)	2,947,300	—
Public markets	(Sale)	51,280,228 (yen)	—
Cheap dining rooms	(Tsubo)	11,876,174	—
Public baths	,,	23,513,340	—
Public pawnshops	(Loan)	8,475,093 (yen)	—
Relief and prevention of unemployment		13,778,385	2,253
Giving works		13,332	303
Employment exchanges	(Hired)	540,725	1,886
Vocational guidance		13,778,385	
Poor relief		284	64
Relief at homes	(Cases)	136,211	1,128
	(Cases)	135,987	271
Relief in institutions		9,106	646
Protection of cripples and invalids		555	92
Protection of the bereaved families of soldiers	(Cases)	40,588	119
Medical treatment		1,838,854	13,000
Charity hospitals		1,038,521	6,713
Consultation rooms		757,763	4,153
Consignment treatments		20,801	451
Insane hospitals		8,130	791
Tuberculosis sanatoria		9,194	705
Leper homes		4,445	187
Miscellaneous		4,583	
	(Cases)	57,967	2,065
Settlement works		—	—
Consultation bureaux	(Cases)	43,446	190
Protection of women		3,512	
	(Cases)	8,405	89
Mother and child protection		1,071	22
Father and child protection		45	3
Visiting sick people		—	34
Hygienic education	(Cases)	—	35
Funeral aids	(Cases)	6,116	41
Other works		—	1,677

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The Red Cross Society of Japan

Red Cross Work before Meiji Era

The spirit of Japanese warriors was humane and their way of fighting against each other never evidenced such brutal cruelty as it was often seen in the battles in other countries. The oldest record of Japanese samurai spirit is the order issued by the Empress Jingō, in 200 A. D., when she conquered Korean peninsula. A paragraph of the order says: Neither be careless of a small body of the enemy, nor be afraid of a strong army; be relentless against the tyrannical, but be kind to the meek and obedient.

In 947 the ex-Emperor Suzaku pacified the spirits of both the government army and the rebellious in a great memorial service at Enryakuji temple.

After the Yuan Invasion in 1274 and 1281, a temple named Koraiji was established in a village near Fukuoka in memory of the Mongolian soldiers who perished in the Korean straits. It was protected by the Imperial House for some time, but it is now extinct. At present two mounds remain in the neighbourhood, of the old precinct of the temple. One is called Mōko Sennin Zuka (Mound for 1,000 Mongolians) and the other Mōko Mannin Zuka (Mound for 10,000 Mongolians). Each of them has a height of 3 metres and occupies an area of 1.5 ares. Tokimuné Hōjō, the chief executive of the Kamakura Shogunate, enshrined 1,000 Ksitigarbhas in Enkakuji temple of Kamakura to the memory of the Japanese and Mongolian soldiers who perished in the battles.

In 1597 Hideyoshi Toyotomi who sent armies to Korea buried parts of the Korean soldiers in a mound called Mimi Zuka (mound of ears) at Higashiyama, Kyoto, with an elaborate ceremony. In 1598, in the battle at Shisen, Korea, Yoshihiro Shimazu, a general of the Japanese army sent by Toyotomi, protected Korean people from the unguarded attack of his own soldiers and in 1599 he built a splendid tomb for Japanese and Korean soldiers at Kōya mountain, one of the most famous Buddhist holy places in Japan. Prisoners taken back by his army were humanely treated and given land, and many of them remained in Kyushu as potters. Another general Kiyomasa Katō took two young Korean princes, their consorts and attendants, prisoners, but treated them for full one year as guests in his camp in Korea and sent them back to Seoul in safety, for which act Korean princes left a letter of thanks with him.

The Japanese take sympathy with the wounded or killed in battles, those who sacrificed their lives for others, or things which served their useful purposes. Characteristic examples of this may be seen in many kinds of little religious ceremonies for the dead or used-up things, for instance, Harikuyō (ceremony for sewing needles), Kuyō for carcasses (of men and animals) used for autopsy. Harikuyō is celebrated by women, dressmakers or "tabi" (Japanese socks) makers who are great users of needles on February 8 (in some districts on December 8) every year. On that day those who observe the ceremony keep a holiday, gather old needles, pin them into bean-curd and present it to Awashima shrine, or gather all the old needles in the needle cushion, put them into folded paper, and place them on the "tokonoma" and present Japanese dumplings to them. Kuyō for carcasses is kept by medical colleges.

There were innumerable battles fought between warrior lords in all

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ages and periods of the Japanese history and many stories of philanthropic dealings of enemy soldiers are recorded in books and documents.

Present Status The Red Cross of Japan which owes so much to the high patronage of the Imperial House, and which can fairly claim that it enjoys the support and appreciation of the whole nation, has every reason to be proud of the advance it has made since 1930. The Society now shows a membership of 2,700,000 adults, of whom 170,000 are new members, induced to join following the institution of "Red Cross Day" in Japan. Between 1930 and 1933 the disaster sufferers who received aid from the Red Cross Society of Japan numbered 3,300. An activity not previously attempted in Japan—the institution of first aid posts on highways—was started during this period, four experimental posts being set up; and the success of this experience leads the Society to anticipate developing it on a nationwide scale. Besides this 1,300 new first aid chests have been distributed.

As examples of the health work of the Society may be cited the treatment given to 13,000 tuberculosis patients and to 36,000 expectant mothers. The statistics of consultations given in the Society's child health centres show 18,000 such consultations every year.

Nursing Schools Opened Two new nursing schools have been opened in connection with hospitals, and the number of the Society's nurses has risen by 1,100 to a total of 6,300. As from the year 1934 the educational standard for Red Cross nurses has been raised, and only girls who have finished secondary schools are admitted as probationers in Red Cross nursing schools.

The Junior Red Cross in Japan shows 1,200 new groups and 450,000 new members. The total Junior membership in the country is now over two million, divided among 7,300 groups. The active participation of the Japanese Juniors in disaster relief work is an important development to be noted. Since 1930 they have collected ₹37,000 for disaster victims and made 850,000 gifts in kind to disaster sufferers. As regards international school correspondence, the quality has continuously improved. The number of exchanges each year is about 2,000, and the countries with whom correspondence is carried on, has risen to 34.

The 15th International Red Cross Convention

The 15th International Red Cross Convention was held in October, 1934, in the Red Cross Building at Shiba Park, Tokyo. Delegates sent from overseas countries arrived in Japan in September and the early part of October.

Delegates Notable ones and those whose names were specially familiar to Japan were Mrs. John Allan Dougherty of Washington, D.C.; Judge John Barton Payne, chairman of the Red Cross of America and chairman of the Board of Governors of the League of Red Cross Societies; H.R.H. Charles Edward, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha and chief delegate of the German Red Cross; Dr. Rodolfo Espinosa, vice-President of Nicaragua; the Reverend W. Coleman Nevils, President of Georgetown University; Colonel Guillaume Favre, vice-President of the International Committee; H.E. Professor P. Nolf, President of the Belgian Red Cross, Lt.-General Sir Harold Fawcus, Director-General of the British Red Cross Society; Dame Rachel Crowdy, L.L.D. of England; Lt.-General J.C. Diehl, lately Director of the Medical Services of the Army of

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the Netherlands; Phya Rajanakul, Secretary-General of the Siamese Red Cross; Baron E. Stjernstedt, Secretary-General of the Swedish Red Cross; and Mr. Christian Rakowsky of the U.S.S.R. Fifty-seven nations were represented by 247 delegates, most of them being specially sent for the occasion, the U.S.A. led in number with 57.

On October 16, most of the delegates attended the 42nd National Convention of the Red Cross Society of Japan held in the Constitution Memorial Hall in Gondahara, Tokyo. In the presence of the Empress 13,000 delegates and guests from all over the country were gathered together and listened to the Imperial Message desiring a greater contribution of the Society toward the welfare of mankind.

Preliminary The business of the International Conference was inaugurated on October 17, with a meeting of the Executive Committee of the League of Red Cross Societies at the Japan Red Cross Headquarters, Shiba, Tokyo, and on the 18th the Board of Governors unanimously adopted a resolution inviting the alliance of the Red Cross and the Red Crescent Societies of the Union of the U.S.S.R. to the League by the motion made by Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, thus bringing the total membership to 61 national societies. On the 19th, the Board of Governors and the Board of Delegates discussed many matters of importance such as official acceptance by Soviet Russia of the invitation, acceptance of the financial report of the League presented by Mr. Ernest J. Swift, Secretary-General, and of the budget of 2,500,000 francs for 1935, election of Colonel Guillaume Favre, Vice-President of the International Red Cross Committee, and Dr. J. Max Olano, President of the Salvador Red Cross, as President and Vice-President respectively of the Board of Delegates, recommendation of the appointment of Prince Iyesato Tokugawa as President of the 15th International Conference, and a proposal by Marquis Jose Valdey of Spain, with the agreement of the Board of Delegates, to name Madrid as the seat of the 16th International Red Cross Conference in 1938.

Opening Session In the presence of Imperial Prince Kanin, and with Premier Okada and other Cabinet members in attendance, the opening session of the Conference was held in the Japan Red Cross building at Shiba, Tokyo, on October 20. The meeting was opened with Prince Tokugawa's welcoming address; Field-Marshal Imperial Prince Kanin then read the Imperial Message of the Empress. Other speakers of the day were Colonel Favre, Professor Nolf and Judge Payne. During the first plenary session vice-presidents, the secretary-general and secretaries of the Conference were elected.

On October 22, the second plenary session was convened and significant among the points taken up were the general report of the Committee, the report on the funds, adoption by the body of a resolution giving approval to the Council of the Red Cross Committee Foundation inviting governments which are parties to the Geneva Convention to grant the Foundation subventions sufficient to increase the endowment, and a general report of the League of Red Cross Societies. The International Committee's report stated that national societies are advised to redouble their vigilance to prevent abuses of the Red Cross emblem. In the past four years the research service of the Committee had handled 2,019 cases for its members and many more for other organizations and official bodies. The report said in

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conclusion that the International Committee was labouring under the difficulty of insufficient funds to pursue its numerous activities. The Marquis de Casa Valdes moved that full approval be given to the constitution of the foundation to place the International Committee on a sound financial basis, and suggested the advantages of capital contributions over annual dues and that if all the members of every national society could contribute a cent the Committee's finances would be placed on a stable basis. The resolution was approved by the Conference.

In the course of the general report the importance of the Junior Red Cross was emphasized. In the afternoon session the Russian delegate delivered a speech on the duty of the Red Cross to make every effort to prevent war, and introduced a resolution.

The third plenary session, on October 25, unanimously approved 13 resolutions, presented by Commissions.

Welcome by the Japan Junior Red Cross In the afternoon of October 25, five thousand boys and girls of the Japan Junior Red Cross from every school district in Japan gathered in the Hibiya Amphitheatre to honour the delegates to the Conference. Their motto for the day was "The Red Cross of Tomorrow Welcomes the Red Cross of To-day". It was the first of its kind ever held at an International Red Cross Conference. Every delegation of young Red Cross workers brought gifts from its section of the country and colour prints, scroll paintings, wood carvings and dolls were given to the delegates. Miss Yoshiko Oishi of the First Higher Elementary School of Kyoto sounded the keynote of the gathering when she said, "We are eager to do whatever we can to make the world brighter; to help relieve the suffering of the world. We realize that very soon the young people of to-day will be sharing the responsibilities that are now upon your shoulders. We want to ask you to help us so that we can all work together with new courage and new faith." The singing of "The Red Cross of Japan" and enthusiastic "Banzai" with which the bright-faced boys and girls bid farewell seemed to leave a lasting impression upon the hearts of the delegates.

October 26 was the last business day of the Conference which passed all the resolutions proposed by the Commissions, the number of resolutions passed reaching 35 in all.

Closing Meeting The closing meeting was held on October 29 and the delegate decided, by an unanimous vote, to have the sixteenth International Red Cross Conference at Madrid, Spain in 1938. Prince Iyesato Tokugawa reported the Empress' donation of ¥100,000, and the Conference ended with a record of having emphasized more than any previous meeting the importance of the Red Cross as a factor in the improvement of international relations.

Resolutions Important resolutions adopted were as follows:

Resolution on the Junior Red Cross

The Fifteenth International Red Cross Conference,

Expressing its satisfaction with the development of the Junior Red Cross, which is playing an increasingly important part in the physical and moral training of boys and girls and constitutes a valuable pledge for the future of the Red Cross movement throughout the world;

Considering that the creation of a Junior Section in each national Red Cross Society is the first step which should be taken in establishing the Junior Red Cross, and that each such Section should aim at enrolling all primary and secondary school pupils in the country;

Considering also that most national Societies now have Junior Sections, and that they have

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been able to judge of the value of the activities of these Sections for the Red Cross as a whole;

Recommends that the national Societies support and extend the activities of their Junior Sections by all the means at their disposal and that Societies which have not already done to organize Junior Sections without delay, in conformity with the directions given in the XIVth Circular of the International Red Cross Committee and the League of Red Cross Societies, basing themselves upon the experience of other Societies and upon the advice of the League Secretariat.

Resolution Against Poisonous Warfare

While noting that since the Fourteenth Conference the number of Governments which have ratified the Geneva Protocol of June 17th, 1925, concerning the prohibition of the use in war of asphyxiating poisonous or similar gases, and of bacteriological methods of warfare, has considerably increased;

Recommends that the International Red Cross Committee continue its endeavours to secure the ratification of the said Protocol, or adhesion to the said Protocol, by all countries which are parties to the Geneva Convention,

Thanks the International Committee for the initiative which it has taken in order to develop in time of peace and in time of war measures for the protection of civilian populations against poisonous gas,

Expresses the hope that the International Committee will be placed in the position to continue the technical investigations which it has already undertaken in spite of the difficulties of all kinds confronting it,

Approves the activities of the Documentation Centre, and invites national Societies to give their financial assistance to the International Committee in order to contribute to the development of this centre,

Notes the conclusions of the International Commission of Jurists of 1931, and expresses the hope that the studies of this Commission will be continued with a view to finding means for the legal protection of the civilian population against the dangers of aerial warfare in its various forms.

Resolution on Conflicts Without Declaration of War

Having taken cognizance of the report of the International Red Cross Committee,

Considering the regrettable consequences which might result from a too literal interpretation of the Geneva Conventions and of the Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of war of July 27th, 1929, in the event of military, naval or air operations unaccompanied by a declaration of war,

Considering that these operations, whatever may be their interpretation in international law, their motives or their purposes, cause the same destruction as declared wars,

Expresses the hope that the said Conventions which have been established for the circumstances of a declared war, will also be applied by analogy in the case of armed conflicts between States without declaration of war.

Resolution on the Progress of I. R. C.

Noting with approval that during the past four years the number of national Red Cross Societies and the aggregate of their membership have continued to show progressive increase,

Expresses its appreciation to all who have contributed to strengthen the movement by their leadership, both in the national and in the international field,

Expresses the hope that this development will continue, and in particular that the Red Cross Societies of countries possessing overseas dependencies or administering Mandated Territories will continue to give special attention to the possibilities which the Red Cross offers as a means of protecting the health and improving the conditions of subject populations,

Requests the International Red Cross Committe to study, jointly with the Secretariat of the League of Red Cross Societies, the question of Red Cross development in Territories under Mandate, and to transmit to the National Societies concerned their recommendations, regarding the lines upon which Red Cross development in such territories can best be stimulated,

And recognizing that regional Red Cross Conferences are of outstanding value during a period characterized by an important evolution in Red Cross work which is occurring as the result of changes in social and economic conditions, expresses the hope that the League of Red Cross Societies will go forward with its regular programme of regional conferences in close consultation with the national Societies concerned in each case.

Resolution on an Antiwarfare Movement

Having regard to the resolution of earlier International Red Cross Conferences, and especially to the resolutions numbered 7 of the Eleventh (Geneva) and 25 of the Fourteenth (Brussels) International Conference, declaring that the Red Cross, without losing sight of its usual wartime and peacetime activities, must exert every effort, within the sphere of its attributions, to prevent war,

And considering that the progress made in the technique of warfare creates ever increasing difficulties of the Red Cross,

Expresses the wish that all national Red Cross Societies, while continuing, as during

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the past, to spare no effort in order to safeguard the lives of millions of men, to protect other millions from suffering and privations, as well as to prevent catastrophies which threaten to destroy the intellectual and material wealth accumulated through the centuries, amplify their action against war and in favour of a better understanding between nations by every means at their disposal.

The members of the Standing Commission for 1934-38, which will prepare the groundwork for the 16th International Red Cross Conference in 1938, are Prince Iyesato Tokugawa of Japan, Sir Arthur Stanley of Great Britain, Lieutenant-General Ricardo Burguete of Spain, Refik Bey of Turkey and Dr. Alvaro Turino of Brazil. All of the members are Presidents of their respective national Red Cross Societies.

The Budget for 1934 was brought down from $230,000 (5¾ million French francs, the figure authorized in Brussels for the year 1931) to 105,500 Gold Dollars (2,637,500 French francs).

The League Headquarters was changed from 2, Avenue Velasquez, to a new building in Paris at 12, rue Newton, near the Place de l'Etoile.

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CHAPTER XXXI

LABOUR AND LABOUR MOVEMENTS

Labour

Vocational Classification

Statistics classifying the population according to the kinds of work done can be obtained only from the Report of the National Census of 1920. (A tentative report based on the 1930 census is given in Chapter II.) According to the census report the people in Japan proper may be classified according to their occupations as follows:

Occupation	Number	Percentage of whole
Farming	27,138,251	48.5
Marine industry	1,449,674	2.6
Mining	937,525	1.7
Industry	10,737,940	19.2
Commerce	7,312,593	13.1
Transport	2,549,472	4.5
Public service (Casual)	3,208,355	5.7
Miscellaneous	1,091,275	1.9
Domestic service	40,425	0.1
Unoccupied	1,497,543	2.7
Total	55,963,053	100.

According to the investigation made by the Labour Section of the Bureau of Social Affairs the classifications of labourers according to kinds of occupation at the end of 1934 was as follows:

Factory workers	2,539,384
Mine workers	247,186
Transport and communication, day-labourers and others	2,977,707
Total	5,764,277
Male	4,066,322
Female	1,697,955

Labour Conditions

Factories and Labourers The number of factories where more than 5 operatives are employed, in Japan proper in 1914 was 31,717. It was more than doubled in 20 years, the figure for the end of 1933 being 71,940.

The number of factory labourers in 1933 was 1,901,091 (967,659 males, 933,432 females), gaining 167,580 or 9.7 per cent. over the previous year. Classification of the same according to kinds of industry follows:

			Sex distribution	
	Number	Percentage	Male	Female
Textile industry	907,631	47.8	170,581(18.8%)	737,050(81.2%)
Metal industry	125,652	6.6	115,602(92.1%)	10,050 (7.9%)
Manufacturing of machines, tools, etc.	249,328	13.1	228,540(91.7%)	20,783(8.30%)
Ceramic industry	71,195	3.8	57,930(81.4%)	13,265(18.6%)
Chemical industry	163,706	8.6	106,272(64.9%)	57,434(35.1%)
Lumber industry and making of wooden manufactures	66,439	3.5	60,815(91.5%)	5,624 (8.5%)
Printing and binding	53,679	2.8	47,531(88.5%)	6,148(11.5%)
Food stuff industry	142,237	7.5	117,638(82.7%)	24,599(17.3%)
Gas and electric industry	8,320	0.4	8,257(99.2%)	63 (0.8%)
Miscellaneous industry	112,909	5.9	54,493(48.3%)	58,416(51.7%)
Total	1,901,091	100	967,659(50.9%)	933,432 (4.9%)

	Age distribution		
	Under 16	16–49	Above 50
Textile industry	149,716(16.5%)	749,481(82.6%)	84,34(0.9%)
Metal industry	2,782 (2,2%)	119,718(95.3%	3,152(2.5%)

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	Age distribution		
	Under 16	16–49	Above 50
Manufacturing of machines, tools, etc.	9,559(3.8%)	233,951(93.9%)	5,813(2.3%)
Ceramic industry	2,556(3.6%)	65,371(91.8%)	3,268(4.6%)
Chemical industry	7,259(4.4%)	152,185(93.0%)	4,262(2.6%)
Lumber industry and making of wooden manufactures	1,839(2.8%)	62,145(93.5%)	2,455(3.7%)
Printing and binding	2,389(4.4%)	50,128(93.4%)	1,162(2.2%)
Foodstuff industry	2,421(1.7%)	135,868(95.5%)	3,948(2.8%)
Gas and electric industry	5(0.1%)	8,003(96.2%)	312(3.7%)
Miscellaneous industry	7,199(6.4%)	103,298(91.5%)	2,412(2.1%)
Total	185,725(9.8%)	1,680,148(88.4%)	35,218(1.8%)

In 1933 the industrial world was rather active in general with the unusual expansion of Japan's foreign trade. The percentage of employment and income of labourers showed an increase; and together with the general cry for patriotism or Japan Spirit which put down the power of the left movements of labour unions these conditions naturally led labour controversies to reduce in number, and capital and labour seemed to be in a harmonious relation.

The real wage or real value of labourer's income, however, went down on the contrary and their living condition has hardly improved in any material degree.

Employment and Unemployment According to the survey of the Bank of Japan the index number of employment began to rise since the beginning of 1932, and in October, 1934 it was 94.1 increasing 9.8 per cent., as compared with the same month of the previous year. It arose to 95.8 in January, 1935.

The number of unemployment at the end of 1934 was 360,000 or 4.80 per cent. of 7,517,000, the total number of salarymen and labourers among whom the investigation was made. It is 18,000 less than in the previous year while the percentage is 0.31 lower. Details follow:

	Number of unemployment	Percentage of unemployment
Salarymen	67,000	3.88
Day labourers	176,000	9.89
Others	116,000	2.92
Total	360,000	4.80

Wages According to the investigation made by the Department of Commerce and Industry the average wage of factory labourers per hour was 12 sen, in 1933. The cheapest was 7 sen of textile industry labourers who contain a large number of women and juvenile workers, as shown in the above table. Details follow:

	Aggregate labour hours	Total amount of wage (in yen)	per hour wage (in sen)
Textile industry	2,599,851,096	190,767,980	7
Metal industry	372,269,184	71,512,314	19
Manufacturing of machines, tools, etc.	750,924,389	153,327,587	20
Ceramic industry	197,125,497	28,199,958	14
Chemical industry	479,950,976	66,440,693	14
Lumber industry and making of wooden manufactures	188,890,613	24,003,488	13
Printing and binding	164,578,811	33,937,592	21
Foodstuff industry	302,897,411	40,170,088	13
Gas and electric industry	33,402,376	7,230,556	22

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	Aggregate labour hours	Total amount of wage (in yen)	per hour wage (in sen)
Miscellaneous industry	310,271,021	31,749,943	10
Total and average	5,400,161,374	647,340,199	12

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABOURERS

(In 13 largest cities)

(Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

(In Yen)

Kind of employment	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Textile industry:						(December)
Silk-reeler (Female)	0.97	0.85	0.75	0.67	0.67	0.65
Cotton-spinner (Female)	1.17	1.07	0.89	0.79	0.75	0.67
Silk-thrower (Female)	0.88	0.81	0.78	0.76	0.77	0.64
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	0.99	0.87	0.76	0.70	0.67	0.65
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	0.99	0.84	0.81	0.78	0.80	0.82
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	1.63	1.60	1.49	1.45	1.45	1.64
„ „ (Female)	0.91	0.82	0.76	0.72	0.72	0.72
Manufacturing of metal, machine and tool:						
Lath-man	2.32	2.18	2.04	2.13	2.25	2.66
Finisher	2.33	2.16	2.14	2.14	2.28	2.61
Founder	2.35	2.19	2.01	2.08	2.18	3.09
Blacksmith	2.29	2.11	2.04	2.08	2.23	2.52
Wooden-pattern maker	2.43	2.32	2.17	2.16	2.30	2.79
Ceramic industry:						
Potter	1.92	1.87	1.81	1.70	1.74	1.89
Glass-maker	2.09	1.96	1.80	1.73	1.70	1.67
Cement-maker	2.06	2.13	2.07	2.10	2.12	2.03
Brick-maker (Shape)	1.64	1.42	1.14	1.09	1.15	1.35
Tile-maker (Shape)	1.77	1.59	1.40	1.29	1.33	1.63
Chemical industry:						
Medicine-worker	1.67	1.71	1.87	1.91	1.77	2.09
Match-maker (Male)	1.47	1.42	1.26	1.17	1.07	1.08
„ „ (Female)	0.68	0.65	0.59	0.54	0.49	0.53
Oil-presser	1.92	1.78	1.58	1.61	1.63	1.96
Japanese-paper maker	1.51	1.47	1.46	1.45	1.40	1.51
Foreign-style paper maker	1.75	1.76	1.72	1.68	1.68	1.72
Leather-maker	2.28	2.05	1.97	1.92	2.00	2.46
Foodstuff industry:						
Flour-miller	1.87	1.79	1.62	1.62	1.64	1.88
Saké-brewery worker	1.93	1.92	1.78	1.64	1.79	1.50
Soy-brewery worker	1.87	1.74	1.58	1.54	1.53	1.46
Sugar-refinery worker	2.12	2.17	2.08	2.07	2.06	2.38
Confectioner	1.53	1.50	1.41	1.40	1.44	1.47
Canner	1.68	1.70	1.64	1.53	1.54	1.21
Clothings manufacturing:						
Tailor (for European dress)	2.44	2.14	2.03	2.00	1.89	2.11
Shoe-maker	2.36	2.13	1.85	1.74	1.76	1.32
Wooden-clogs maker	1.83	1.61	1.40	1.38	1.41	1.49
Engineering and construction works						
Carpenter	2.77	2.49	2.14	1.98	1.88	1.92
Plasterer	3.07	2.66	2.32	2.19	2.13	2.11
Stone-mason	3.23	2.92	2.50	2.36	2.26	2.35
Brick-layer	3.12	2.87	2.56	2.38	2.31	2.31
Roofing-tile layer	3.32	2.92	2.49	2.38	2.31	2.40
Painter	2.76	2.54	2.28	2.14	2.12	2.10
Wood and bamboo works:						
Sawyer (Machine)	2.22	2.04	1.82	1.72	1.65	1.57
Joiner	2.32	2.15	1.92	1.80	1.80	1.87
Lacquerer	2.08	1.87	1.70	1.63	1.61	1.68

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Kind of employment	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934 (December)
Rope-maker	1.58	1.50	1.47	1.39	1.40	—
Floor-mat maker	2.56	2.36	2.03	1.95	1.90	2.18
Printing and book binding:						
Compositor	2.38	2.36	2.27	2.17	2.14	2.43
Book-binder	2.06	1.88	1.75	1.69	1.70	1.85
Stevedore and daily labourer:						
Stevedore	2.32	2.12	2.02	1.89	1.90	2.18
Daily labourer (Male)	1.93	1.63	1.40	1.30	1.28	1.30
,, ,, (Female)	0.99	0.83	0.75	0.73	0.74	1.77
Fisherman:	1.74	1.66	1.55	1.47	1.44	
Domestic employee:						
Male servant (monthly contract)	16.21	14.26	12.59	12.11	12.23	
Maid servant (,, ,,)	12.30	11.51	10.24	9.58	9.74	

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN FARMING AND SERICULTURE PRODUCTION

(In Yen)

Wages of Workers Employed in Farming

	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
General index numbers	96	99	93	94	92	87	95	58	52	54
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	0.73	0.78	0.74	0.71	0.66	0.66	0.57	0.47	0.42	0.44
Index numbers	95	101	96	92	86	86	74	61	54	57
Female										
Actual	0.53	0.56	0.53	0.51	0.46	0.48	0.41	0.33	0.29	0.32
Index numbers	93	98	93	89	81	84	72	58	51	56
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.44	1.53	1.45	1.42	1.43	1.45	1.25	0.95	0.85	0.89
Index numbers	89	94	90	88	88	90	77	59	52	55
Female										
Actual	1.20	1.23	1.17	1.12	1.13	1.08	0.96	0.72	0.66	0.69
Index numbers	94	96	91	88	88	84	75	56	51	53
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.52	1.51	1.42	1.53	1.44	1.35	1.14	0.86	0.77	0.79
Index numbers	100	99	93	101	95	89	75	57	51	52
Female										
Actual	1.18	1.21	1.10	1.24	1.28	1.03	0.87	0.64	0.55	0.57
Index numbers	103	105	96	108	111	90	76	56	48	50

N. B. The investigation refers to the facts in the districts selected as most suitable for the purpose. Wages per day are calculated by averaging wages, and amount paid in kind are estimated by equivalent money value. Average is calculated by means of simple arithmetical average. Base: 1921-23=100

Wages of Workers Employed in Sericulture

	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
General index numbers	166	120	120	97	96	98	74	61	56	59
Workers by the year										
Male										
Actual	1.20	1.20	1.29	1.07	0.99	0.94	0.73	0.59	0.53	0.58
Index numbers	124	122	139	115	106	101	78	63	57	62
Female										
Actual	0.90	0.90	0.86	0.69	0.73	0.72	0.51	0.38	0.37	0.41
Index numbers	127	121	121	97	103	101	72	54	52	58

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Year	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Workers by the season										
Male										
Actual	1.54	1.69	16.7	1.34	1.26	1.32	1.05	0.89	0.81	0.86
Index numbers	109	120	118	95	89	94	74	63	57	61
Female										
Actual	1.09	1.34	1.24	0.99	0.93	1.01	0.84	0.67	0.62	0.65
Index numbers	104	128	128	94	89	96	80	64	59	62
Workers by the day										
Male										
Actual	1.68	1.78	1.80	1.46	1.50	1.52	1.09	0.93	0.86	0.89
Index numbers	104	111	112	91	93	94	68	58	53	55
Female										
Actual	1.24	1.41	1.37	1.07	1.17	1.21	0.85	0.73	0.67	0.69
Index numbers	103	118	114	89	98	101	71	61	56	58

N. B. Base: 1921-1923=100.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF MINERS

(In Yen)

		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Mineral mines						
In the shafts	Male	2.10	2.04	1.85	1.72	1.77
	Female	0.86	0.84	0.76	0.73	0.73
Out of the shafts	Male	1.90	1.79	1.62	1.55	1.64
	Female	0.72	0.70	0.65	0.61	0.63
Average		1.86	1.78	1.63	1.54	1.62
Coal mines						
In the shafts	Male	2.05	1.90	1.63	1.53	1.65
	Female	1.66	1.48	1.12	0.95	0.96
Out of the shafts	Male	1.52	1.44	1.36	1.31	1.38
	Female	0.75	0.73	0.67	0.63	0.65
Average		1.79	1.68	1.48	1.40	1.51
Oil-fields						
In the field	Male	1.81	1.74	1.67	1.64	1.67
	Female	0.83	0.83	0.82	0.82	0.83
Average		1.76	1.69	1.62	1.60	1.63
Other mines						
In the pits	Male	2.21	2.11	1.82	1.72	1.68
	Female	1.04	1.25	0.91	0.80	0.69
Out of the pits	Male	1.91	1.81	1.63	1.61	1.61
	Female	0.90	0.85	0.70	0.65	0.63
Average		1.90	1.82	1.62	1.57	1.56
General Average		1.81	1.70	1.52	1.45	1.54
Male		1.91	1.80	1.60	1.52	1.61
Female		1.17	1.03	0.78	0.69	0.68

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF EMPLOYEES ON FISHING BOATS AND VESSELS

(In Yen)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
General average					
Actual	1.89	1.78	1.38	1.26	1.23
Index numbers	81	77	59	53	53
Engineer	2.21	1.92	1.56	1.44	1.30
Captain	2.46	2.66	1.46	1.33	1.35
Coxswain	1.91	1.90	1.70	1.63	1.57
Oiler	1.74	1.41	1.22	1.07	0.98
Sailor	1.52	1.42	1.10	0.87	0.78
Fisherman	1.50	1.34	1.20	1.08	1.01

N. B. The investigation refers to the facts according to the principal categories of fishing in the districts selected as representative. Base: 1926-1928=100.

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The index number of labourers' wages was still falling, according to the survey by the Department of Commerce and Industry on the average wage of the labourers in the 13 largest cities in 1933. The index number in 1933 was 82.3 or 0.4 per cent. lower than in the previous year, and was the lowest record since 1921. The 1934 index number has shown a reaction and is 82.8 or 0.5 per cent. higher than in the previous year. (The average wage in the period 1921-1923 is taken as 100.) The downward steps of the past ten years are shown below :

INDEX NUMBER OF WAGES

(Compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry)

	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Textile industry :										
Silk-reeler (Female)	100	102	101	95	95	100	89	79	72	73
Cotton-spinner (Female)	100	107	110	107	105	108	98	83	73	69
Silk-thrower (Female)	102	99	104	101	98	100	92	88	87	88
Cotton-weaver (Machine) (Female)	100	100	107	104	104	101	90	79	70	67
Silk-weaver (Hand) (Female)	98	97	98	98	102	93	81	73	72	75
Hosiery-knitter (Male)	104	101	99	101	100	101	99	94	90	88
„ „ (Female)	108	105	93	100	99	107	98	90	84	84
Average	101.7	101.6	101.7	100.9	100.4	101.4	92.4	83.7	78.3	77.7
Manufacturing of metal, machine & tool :										
Lath-man	103	102	102	102	101	99	93	85	87	90
Finisher	106	102	102	103	102	99	95	87	87	91
Founder	101	100	102	103	105	104	96	85	87	90
Blacksmith	104	103	105	107	106	105	97	91	92	98
Wooden-pattern maker	103	103	103	104	104	104	99	87	86	91
Average	103.4	102.0	102.8	103.8	103.6	102.2	96.0	87.0	87.8	92.0
Ceramic industry :										
Potter	100	102	107	104	99	96	95	90	86	88
Glass-maker	110	108	107	107	106	103	102	93	90	88
Cement-maker	99	96	97	98	100	101	107	104	106	107
Brick-maker (Shape)	103	98	100	113	110	93	82	63	66	69
Tile-maker (Shape)	97	97	96	95	95	87	77	64	58	59
Average	101.8	100.2	101.4	103.4	102.0	97.0	92.6	82.8	81.2	82.2
Chemical industry :										
Medicine-worker	98	100	112	107	109	113	113	116	118	109
Match-maker (Male)	95	92	90	80	84	85	83	75	69	63
„ „ (Female)	90	85	82	84	87	88	84	76	69	63
Oil-presser	112	102	101	100	100	101	93	82	83	84
Japanese-paper maker	103	99	106	105	111	113	110	110	109	103
Foreign-style paper maker	103	102	102	102	106	109	110	107	104	104
Leather-maker	104	103	100	95	95	97	85	78	70	76
Average	100.7	97.6	99.0	96.1	98.9	100.9	96.9	92.0	88.9	86.0
Foodstuff industry :										
Flour-miller	108	106	106	106	112	114	109	98	98	99
Saké-brewery worker	104	105	103	99	98	96	95	88	80	84
Soy-brewery worker	111	118	120	114	113	115	108	99	97	95
Sugar-refinery worker	111	115	119	114	114	123	125	120	119	119
Confectioner	108	109	104	100	95	93	92	86	86	87
Canner	106	113	99	96	100	101	100	97	89	90
Average	108.0	111.0	108.5	104.8	105.3	107.0	104.8	98.0	94.8	95.7
Clothings manufacturing :										
Tailor (for European dress)	107	100	96	96	101	99	87	82	82	80
Shoe-maker	110	108	107	104	105	104	98	84	80	81
Wooden-clogs maker	104	100	97	94	94	95	84	73	73	74
Average	107.0	102.7	100.0	98.0	100.0	99.3	89.7	79.7	78.3	78.3

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	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Engineering and construction work:										
Carpenter	109	105	103	102	100	98	88	78	69	66
Plasterer	110	109	108	107	105	104	90	78	75	71
Stone-mason	105	103	102	101	98	96	87	74	70	66
Brick-layer	104	101	100	99	96	95	87	78	72	70
Roofing-tile layer	110	103	103	101	100	99	87	74	71	69
Painter	110	110	110	108	109	107	98	88	83	82
Average	108.0	105.2	104.3	103.0	101.3	99.8	89.5	77.8	73.3	70.7
Wood and bamboo works:										
Sawyer (Machine)	106	102	101	100	100	97	89	80	75	72
Joiner	113	106	101	98	98	95	88	79	74	74
Lacquerer	109	110	108	102	107	108	95	86	83	82
Rope-maker	112	108	111	114	110	109	104	93	86	88
Floor-mat maker	104	107	105	106	107	106	97	83	81	78
Average	108.8	106.6	105.2	104.0	104.4	103.0	94.6	84.2	79.8	78.8
Printing and book-binding:										
Compositor	102	105	106	107	111	112	111	106	101	100
Book-binder	102	105	104	104	104	103	95	88	85	86
Average	102.0	105.0	105.0	105.5	107.5	107.5	103.0	97.0	93.0	93.0
Stevedore and daily labourer:										
Stevedore	103	98	94	92	93	91	82	78	73	74
Daily labourer (Male)	103	102	99	95	94	92	78	67	62	61
„ „ (Female)	106	105	103	98	96	91	77	68	66	67
Average	104.0	101.7	98.7	95.0	94.3	91.3	79.0	71.0	67.0	67.3
Fisherman	94.0	93.7	94.7	99.8	114.7	111.3	105.2	97.8	92.5	88.8
Domestic employee:										
Male servant	98	97	102	102	103	101	89	79	77	77
Maid servant	103	102	109	105	107	105	98	87	82	83
average	100.5	99.5	105.5	103.5	105.0	103.0	93.5	83.0	79.5	80.0
Total Average	104.1	102.9	102.7	101.5	102.1	101.4	94.4	85.9	82.6	82.3

Comparison of Wage and Price The true valuation of wages has to be derived out of the comparison between wages and prices. The following tables compiled by the Department of Commerce and Industry are given for such comparison. Upon reading the table it may be said that wages go fairly well with prices in general, with the only exception in 1933. (See Chapter X for prices.)

STATUS OF THE INDEX NUMBER OF WAGE AGAINST THAT OF PRICE, 1930-1934

(December, 1929=100)

		Wage	Wholesale price	Retail price	Real Value of Wage: Wage÷Wholesale price×100	Real Value of Wage: Wage÷Retail price×100
1930	Average	95.2	87.7	91.1	108.6	104.5
1931	„	86.8	74.0	79.4	117.3	109.3
1932	„	83.7	81.0	79.7	103.3	105.0
1933	„	83.8	95.4	87.1	87.8	96.2
1933	Dec.	84.4	94.4	87.5	89.4	96.5
1934	Jan.	83.0	94.6	87.9	87.7	94.4
	Feb.	83.3	95.5	88.2	87.2	94.4
	March	83.5	95.3	88.6	87.6	94.2
	April	84.0	95.1	88.9	88.3	94.5
	May	84.1	95.2	88.6	88.3	94.9
	June	84.1	95.0	86.1	88.5	97.7
	July	83.9	95.0	87.2	88.3	96.2

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		Wage	Wholesale price	Retail price	Real Value of Wage: Wage÷Wholesale price×100	Real Value of Wage: Wage÷Retail price×100
1934	Aug.	83.8	96.0	88.7	87.3	94.5
	Sept.	84.6	98.3	89.1	86.1	94.9
	Oct.	84.6	99.2	90.9	85.3	93.1
	Nov.	84.8	97.7	89.4	86.8	94.9
	Dec.	85.7	97.5	89.3	87.9	96.0

Working Hours The working hours are being reduced at least legally. After July, 1929, night work for women and children was abolished in factories under control of the Factory Law, and the hours were shortened in the spinning and weaving industries. By the revision of the Factory Law in the same year, the limitation of hours was also enforced in such factories as employ 10 workers or less. Moreover, the 11 hour day in the silk industry was changed to one of 10 on July 1, 1930. Thus the hours are legally decreasing, but as a matter of fact, there is not much actual shortening, for grown up men work beyond the regular hours for additional wages, while factory owners often dismiss regular labourers and hire cheaper day labourers, or as an alternative require the regular men to do extra work. The average number of working hours in factories in 1933 was 11 per day with 0.55 hour of recess included.

Labour Calamities and Mortality In 1932 the number of labourers injured while at work in factories was 39,107 and deaths numbered 277.

CALAMITIES IN FACTORIES IN 1932

Private factories	Death	Severely wounded	wounded	Total
Textile industry	87	1,185	4,132	5,354
Machine, tools, etc.	75	3,591	13,358	17,024
Chemical industry	51	1,442	4,636	6,129
Food stuff „	8	230	637	875
Miscellaneous industry	42	1,237	2,300	3,579
Special factories	37	249	373	659
Total	250	7,934	25,436	33,620
Government factories	27	1,497	3,963	5,487
Grand total	277	9,431	29,399	39,107

RATE OF CALAMITIES PER 1,000 OPERATIVES IN 1931 AND 1932

	Death		Severely Wounded		Wounded		Total	
	1931	1932	1931	1932	1931	1932	1931	1932
Private factories								
Textile industry	0.04	0.04	1.42	1.28	4.51	4.46	5.97	5.78
Machine, tools, etc.	0.31	0.28	13.22	13.44	56.39	49.99	69.92	63.72
Chemical industry	0.38	0.26	7.38	7.29	26.61	23.44	34.37	30.99
Food stuff „	0.39	0.10	3.70	2.90	9.85	8.03	13.94	11.04
Miscellaneous industry	0.26	0.24	6.74	7.20	13.31	13.39	20.31	20.84
Special factories	1.00	1.52	9.97	10.24	24.63	15.34	35.61	27.10
Total	0.17	0.15	4.61	4.76	16.12	15.26	20.90	20.17
Government factories	0.27	0.23	13.94	12.76	38.05	33.77	52.26	46.76
Grand total	0.17	0.16	5.22	5.29	17.54	16.48	22.94	21.92

In 1933 the number of calamities in the mines was 66,929 with casualties of 67,173 people, death numbered 803, increasing in all items as compared with the previous year.

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CALAMITIES IN MINES 1922-1932

Year	Cases	Deaths	Wounded	Total of casualties
1923	186,963	741	187,870	188,611
1924	175,080	903	175,702	176,605
1925	187,026	786	187,515	188,301
1926	158,332	801	158,468	159,269
1927	163,108	1,002	163,593	164,595
1928	142,035	891	141,974	142,865
1929	129,649	964	129,419	130,383
1930	107,346	874	79,893	107,710
1931	78,310	694	56,328	78,649
1932	65,724	686	46,846	66,060
1933	66,929	833	46,370	67,173

Marine Accidents The number of fishing boats and vessels without engines wrecked in 1933 was 12,083 and that of vessels with engines 1,444, increasing 9,844 and 674 respectively as compared with the previous year. The number of crews wrecked with those boats and vessels was 5,829, increasing 3,608 on the previous year. 714 of the total were perished or missing. The enormous increase of marine calamities in 1933 is largely due to the earthquake and tidal wave in March at the north-eastern shores (Sanriku districts) of the Main Island.

MARINE ACCIDENTS

	Total number of fishing boats and vessels	Fishing boats and vessels wrecked		Total number of fisher men	Crews on the wrecked boats and vessels		
		Without engine	With engine		Perished	Survived	Total
1924	361,239	875	134	1,115,480	518	2,242	2,760
1925	356,920	835	171	1,116,565	618	2,631	3,249
1926	350,943	977	289	1,112,435	606	2,763	3,369
1927	354,554	1,788	332	1,125,983	520	3,728	4,248
1928	360,126	1,683	454	1,130,430	472	2,749	3,221
1929	359,961	1,141	362	1,112,002	419	2,774	3,193
1930	359,295	2,578	619	1,109,700	479	2,871	3,350
1931	360,690	1,076	510	1,110,506	1,174	2,840	4,014
1932	360,686	2,239	770	1,106,850	569	1,652	2,221
1933	363,473	12,083	1,444	1,097,254	714	5,115	5,829

Labour Hygiene The hygienic equipment of factories is legally required, but its progress and improvement is rather slow and partial. In compliance with the requirements stated in the new ordinance on labour hygiene, factory managers are endeavouring to make improvements under the guidance of the Government and prefectural authorities, and good results have been reported as to the health of factory labourers. (See Chapters on Agriculture, Fisheries, and Mining also.)

Labour Movements

Labour Disputes

According to the survey by the Bureau of Social Affairs the number of labour disputes in 1932 was 1,926 cases with 98,850 perticipants. The figures for 1933 were 1,897 and 116,733 respectively. The decrease in the number of cases is the result of a better labour condition in 1933

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as mentioned above and the increasing influence of patriotic, harmonious labour unions who have taken the place of radical unions.

The characteristic nature of the 1933 disputes was in the increase of positive demands. In contrast with the decrease of the number of negative implores for not to lower wages from 257 to 110 as compared with the previous year, demands for better wages increased from 354 to 576.

LABOUR DISPUTES

	1932 cases	1933 cases
Manufacturing of metal, machines and tools	259	251
Chemical industry	256	277
Textile industry	319	240
Foodstuff industry	52	73
Miscellaneous industries	266	261
Mine industry	55	52
Gas and electric industry	9	16
Transportation	236	215
Engineering and construction works	137	196
Communication	4	6
Others	333	308
Total	1,926	1,897
Participants	98,850	116,733

CASES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO DEMANDS

	1932	1933
Positive demands		
Increase of wages	354	576
Shorter hour	17	26
Holiday	3	4
Recognition of freedom of labour unions	6	7
On labour committees	0	0
Better equipments for labourers in factories	10	14
Rejection of overseers	24	45
Total	414	672
Negative demands		
Against lowering of wages	257	110
Against revision of working method, etc.	14	32
Against revision of the method of paying wages	81	103
For establishment or improvement of pension	263	255
Total	615	500
Others	897	725

NUMBER OF LABOUR DISPUTES ACCOMPANIED BY STRIKES, SABOTAGE OR LOCK-OUTS 1923-1932

Demand for		Recognition of freedom of labour unions	Against the reduction of wages	Increase of wages	Against the revision of the method of counting or paying of wages	Shorter hour
1923	Cases	4	118	29	—	20
	Men	2,507	15,303	2,446	—	1,702
1924	Cases	4	134	30	32	14
	Men	7,242	23,637	3,227	7,031	2,394
1925	Cases	4	100	41	44	9
	Men	631	7,903	6,245	5,226	942

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Demand for		Recognition of freedom of labour unions	Against the reduction of wages	Increase of wages	Against the revision of the method of counting or paying of wages	Shorter hour
1926	Cases	6	226	47	58	5
	Men	2,041	14,610	4,643	20,683	718
1927	Cases	13	94	60	86	8
	Men	9,347	8,610	6,129	3,454	314
1928	Cases	(1)8	(1)108	58	19	9
	Men	467 (2,196)	16,252 (678)	4,762	1,645	625
1929	Cases	6	91	129	45	10
	Men	231	5,807	18,441	26,031	1,214
1930	Cases	10	80	(3)288	(1)38	8
	Men	591	8,045	33,628 (673)	3,222 (49)	214
1931	Cases	(2)10	167	(4)213	55	18
	Men	907 (384)	18,800	11,207 (681)	2,710	1,919
1932	Cases	2	(2)194	(3)137	(1)50	(1)11
	Men	565	14,416 (69)	6,968 (22)	4,197 (38)	956 (15)

Demand for		Establishment of holidays	Against the revision of working method or rule	Against the establishment or reorganization of labour committees	Better equipments	Establishment or increase of pension
1923	Cases	—	—	1	17	17
	Men	—	—	813	1,548	3,262
1924	Cases	—	13	1	8	28
	Men	—	393	17	1,487	3,254
1925	Cases	—	5	—	10	11
	Men	—	344	—	5,146	566
1926	Cases	—	24	—	8	32
	Men	—	3,476	—	3,280	2,380
1927	Cases	1	2	—	7	28
	Men	12	212	—	585	3,502
1928	Cases	1	4	—	6	40
	Men	100	51	—	2,408	2,672
1929	Cases	1	20	—	3	(2)62
	Men	219	2,082	—	94	5,143 (77)
1930	Cases	1	11	—	4	(1)126
	Men	7	1,772	—	167	5,035 (783)
1931	Cases	—	10	—	6	(2)79
	Men	—	242	—	968	2,915 (64)
1932	Cases	1	6	—	6	53
	Men	10	263	—	229	1,619

Demand for		Reappointment or against dismissal	Not to punish the leaders of disputes	Rejection of superintendents	Other	Total
1923	Cases	—	—	18	48	270
	Men	—	—	1,105	7,573	36,259
1924	Cases	—	—	15	54	333
	Men	—	—	1,431	4,413	54,526
1925	Cases	—	—	16	53	293
	Men	—	—	1,471	12,268	40,742
1926	Cases	4	—	30	55	495
	Men	39	—	2,974	12,390	67,234
1927	Cases	53	—	37	45	383
	Men	6,214	—	2,164	6,701	47,194

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Demand for		Reappointment or against dismissal	Not to punish the leaders of disputes	Rejection of superintendents	Other	Total
1928	Cases	30	4	(1)24	(1)82	(4)393
	Men	5,260	118	1,098	7,879	43,337
				(15)	(26)	(2,915)
1929	Cases	(1)81	2	(1)25	(1)96	(5)571
	Men	7,320	116	2,666	7,917	77,281
		(40)		(35)	(11)	(163)
1930	Cases	128	—	12	(1)195	(6)901
	Men	9,702	—	975	16,466	79,824
					(33)	(1,538)
1931	Cases	(2)182	—	25	(4)219	(14)984
	Men	11,128	—	1,616	15,893	63,305
		(37)			(65)	(1,231)
1932	Cases	(8)183	—	17	(8)210	(23)870
	Men	9,240	—	1,070	13,805	53,338
		(782)			(519)	(1,445)

Figures in parenthesis represent female cases or partakers.

Tenant Disputes

Tenant disuptes which have become more and more numerous since 1927 increased enormously in 1930 and numbered 2,478 cases. This increased to 2,689 in 1931, and 2,763 in 1932. In 1933 the number reached to 2,677. Contrary to the increase of the number of cases the area involved and number of participants are decreased; that is, the disputes occur not so much on farm rent as on tenant rights. It should be also noted that the disputes by union movements are decreasing while those between individuals are increasing. Important disputes in 1932 are 1,379 cases (62% of the total) on the return of tenanted land, 339 (15%) because of bad crops, 209 (9%) on the delayed payment of farm-rent. Strongest demands are 1,300 cases (59%) for the continuation of tenancy and 537 (24%) for the reduction of farm-rent. The increase of fundamental demands such as the continuation of tenancy and the recognition of tenant or long-term tenant rights reflects the profound land famine caused by the difficulty of farmers to leave farm land and the return of unemployed workers to villages.

TENANT DISPUTES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO CAUSES

	1931		1932	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Raising of farm-rent	43	1.3	50	1.8
Payment of farm-rent	77	2.3	16	0.6
Bad crops caused by natural forces	1,171	34.3	741	26.9
High farm-rent	97	2.8	52	1.9
Lower price of farm products	240	7.0	46	1.7
Excessive cost of production	13	0.4	7	0.2
Meager income of tenant farmers	45	1.3	7	0.2
Disorder of farm-rent	1	0.1	2	0.1
Copying of method	96	2.8	24	0.9
Return of tenanted land	1,307	38.2	1,326	48.1
Arrearage of farm-rent	174	5.1	266	9.7
Others	153	4.4	219	6.9
Total	3,419	100.0	2,756	100.0

Outcome Of the 2,756 disputes in 1932 953 were left unsettled. Of the 1,803 settled ones 1,380 ended in compromise.

Tenant Disputes in 1934 According to an investigation made at the

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Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, the number of tenant disputes that occurred during the year 1934, was more than 4,500, majority cases of which being disputes arising out of the attempt on the part of landowners to take over their farms from the hands of tenant-farmers. Other causes of the disputes were bad crops, defaults in the payment of tenant fees, increased attempts on the part of landowners to farm the lands by themselves, sales or public auction sales of the tillages without notice to the tenant-tillers and the consequent increase of tillage rent. A noticeable feature is the increased difficulties in the solution of the disputes. Another thing to be noted was the increased number of persons involved in the disputes, as compared with previous several years. The same tendency was seen in the sphere of territories affected by unseasonable heat or cold and typhoon and flood. Figures follow:

	1934 Number of cases	Increase over the Number in 1933	percentage of increase
Because of bad crops	986	432	78.0
Because of increase of rent	2,503	529	26.8
Defaults in the payment of rent	465	63	15.7
Others	630	176	38.8
Total	4,584	1,200	35.2
Number of landowners involved	19,503	7,867	67.6
Number of tenant-peasants involved	66,529	29,306	78.7

	Area of Farms Affected (Cho)	Area of Farms Affected (Cho)	
Rice-fields	36,783	18,327	99.3
Upland-farms	4,952	503	11.5

Both landowners and tenant-peasants have their own respective associations, the number of which follows:

	Number of Associations	Members
Landowners' associations	633	48,836
Tenant-peasants' unions	4,390	276,246
Mutual cooperation asociations	2,222	271,434

Tenant peasants' unions were very inactive in recent years, but owing to the growth of various mishaps in 1934 which gave indications of exceptionally bad crops they became suddenly heated, and active measures were taken. Meantime, landowners' associations remain inactive and they are conciliative in their attitude.

Labour Unions

Labour unions can be conveniently divided into two types, (1) those of factory, mine and transport workers, and (2) those of farmers.

The first type, that is to say, the movement of labourers in factories, mines and transport makes the central part of the whole labour movement, and an investigation on their organization and activities reveals the general trend of the labour movement in this country.

The number of organized unions in Japan was, in 1932, 932 with a membership of 377,625. In comparison with that of the previous year, it shows an increase of 114 unions and 8,650 men.

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LABOUR UNIONS

(Compiled by the Bureau of Social Affairs)

	Unions	Members	Total number of labourers	Union percentage
1924	469	228,278	4,245,619	5.3
1925	457	254,262	4,485,810	5.6
1926	488	284,739	4,641,681	6.1
1927	505	309,493	4,703,757	6.5
1928	501	308,900	4,824,780	5.3
1929	680	330,985	4,873,081	6.8
1930	712	354,312	4,713,002	7.5
1931	818	368,975	4,729,436	7.9
1932	932	377,625	4,860,276	7.8
1933	942	384,613	5,126,719	7.5

Farmers' Unions Farmers' unions are changing from temporary organizations to permanent ones, and steadily increase in number. In 1921 there were only 681 tenant farmers' unions. It increased to 4,775 unions at the end of June, 1933. The number of landowners' unions correspondingly increased from 192 to 672 in the same span of time. Opposition between the two apparently is much expanded in scope and deepened in nature.

FARMERS' UNIONS

	Landowners		Tenant-farmers		Landowners and tenant farmers	
	Unions	Memberss	Unions	Member	Unions	Members
1929	655	55,138	4,156	315,771	1,986	244,943
1930	640	53,278	4,208	301,436	1,980	247,880
1931	645	50,556	4,414	306,301	2,047	255,088
1932	662	50,454	4,650	296,839	2,098	258,613
1933	682	49,645	4,810	302,736	2,309	279,431

The Consumers' Co-operative Movement

The consumers' co-operative movement among the working classes is rather unsound since 1931. Many consumers' co-operative societies have been dissolved or amalgamated. The estimated number in 1933 was 90 with a membership of 20,000. Tokyo had the largest number of the societies counting 40. The most important societies are the Yokohama Koshin, membership 1,700 ; the Ishikawajima Jikyo, 1,400 ; the Steel Manufacturing Workers' 600 ; the Tokyo Kyodo Sha, 1,520 ; the Josai, 850 ; the First Godo, 700 ; the Koto, 500. The 90 societies classified according to the size of membership are as follows :

Range of membership	Percentage of the number of societies included
1-50	14.0
51-100	9.0
101-200	35.0
201-300	24.0
301-400	4.0
401-500	1.0
501-600	3.0
601-700	4.0
701-800	1.0
801-900	1.0
901-1,000	0.0
Above 1,001	4.0

Generally one member has one share ranging from 1 to 20 yen. The classification of 31 larger societies according to their capital is as follows :

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Paid-up capital (In yen)	Number of societies
100-300	0
300-500	4
500- 1,000	8
1,000- 2,000	6
2,000- 3,000	5
3,000- 4,000	2
4,000- 5,000	3
5,000-10,000	2
Above 10,000	2
„ 20,000	2
„ 30,000	1

The average monthly purchase of a member is ¥8.00 with ¥17.48 maximum and ¥1.47 minimum, and the purchasing power is on the decline.

The rate of business expenses against the amount of sale was from 8 to 10% in most of societies, and 10% of the societies exposed deficits, owing to the rising tendency in prices in the year.

Village Societies In addition to these more closely organized societies, there are some village co-operative associations. Since 1926, the need of forming village co-operative societies has come to be recognized by the farmers, and such societies are making rapid progress with the help of the national farmers' unions.

VILLAGE COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Number of Cooperative Societies

(At the year end)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total	14,171	14,047	14,082	14,163	14,352	14,651
Credit	2,601	2,547	2,449	2,135	2,051	1,756
Trading	308	315	328	330	325	311
Purchasing	316	305	323	325	336	332
Utilization	273	281	295	304	312	316
Trading and purchasing	275	265	284	286	307	292
Trading and utilization	253	276	287	277	267	268
Purchasing and utilization	74	85	102	114	116	131
Trading, purchasing and utilization	323	339	359	427	478	490
Credit and trading	144	227	223	204	196	175
Credit and purchasing	2,241	2,145	2,024	1,929	1,759	1,370
Credit and utilization	150	153	149	129	117	106
Credit, trading and purchasing	3,217	3,086	3,075	3,132	3,194	2,718
Credit, trading and utilization	94	66	59	47	42	38
Credit, purchasing and utilization	368	364	374	373	355	286
Credit, trading, purchasing and utilization	3,534	3,593	3,751	4,151	4,497	6,062
Classified by the organization						
Limited liability	12,586	12,619	12,733	12,910	12,968	8,363
Unlimited liability	1,354	1,179	1,112	1,030	990	1,182
Guaranteed liability	231	249	237	223	394	5,106

Operation of Cooperative Societies

(Amount in yen)

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Number of societies investigated	13,197	13,169	13,170	13,161	13,122	13,106
Number of members of societies	4,157,404	4,405,553	4,571,785	4,743,091	4,813,140	4,978,248
Capital						
Total amount	266,849,014	284,095,172	299,557,511	307,597,146	318,023,822	312,668,822
Amount paid up	181,977,491	199,589,562	216,248,937	228,226,949	234,572,589	239,725,266
Reserved fund	81,654,264	94,085,007	104,593,916	113,881,893	120,622,210	124,157,646
Loans	148,142,589	175,049,134	197,224,836	239,581,816	255,913,637	276,072,070

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	1927	1928	1929	1930	1921	1932
Credit societies						
Number of societies investigated	11,722	11,578	11,580	11,449	11,358	11,290
Number of members of societies	3,489,355	3,636,878	3,755,876	3,861,078	3,856,482	3,925,901
Deposits	885,824,220	1,011,242,067	1,108,366,648	1,102,573,886	1,070,803,053	1,063,163,980
Trading societies						
Loans (in advance)	740,639,515	845,354,705	897,206,318	984,476,442	1,005,672,599	1,017,632,665
Number of societies investigated	7,524	7,515	7,626	7,777	8,167	8,477
Number of members of societies	2,404,754	2,547,218	2,690,273	2,845,490	3,027,070	3,151,868
Total amount of sales (for the year)	221,454,464	245,773,860	254,555,387	192,473,843	181,140,200	202,832,620
Purchasing societies						
Number of societies investigated	9,739	9,559	9,505	9,576	9,931	10,086
Number of members of societies	2,833,270	2,927,980	3,014,997	3,152,016	3,341,512	3,498,860
Total amount of purchases (for the year)	143,430,109	149,011,320	155,174,923	127,270,950	105,881,259	129,110,813
Utilization societies						
Number of societies	4,592	4,761	4,826	5,073	5,424	5,647
Number of members of societies	1,585,228	1,756,142	1,855,751	1,998,105	2,143,193	2,281,068
Total amount of charges for utilization (for the year)	5,362,102	5,670,698	5,826,309	5,727,582	5,391,517	5,731,098

Fishermen's Societies Fishermen's societies are the corporations organized by fishermen with the object to acquire fishing right and piscary as well as to establish common working orders.

(At the year end)

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Number of societies classified by number of members	3,781	3,870	3,892	3,874	3,928	3,957
Under 50	1,272	1,287	1,267	1,239	1,260	1,262
51—100	902	938	924	913	884	892
101—200	923	919	947	957	997	1,004
201—500	588	619	642	649	661	670
501—1000	84	93	98	100	105	109
1001 and over	12	14	14	16	21	20
Number of members of societies	470,962	509,863	512,761	526,579	546,622	555,736
Federations of societies						
Number of federations	41	48	64	61	63	69
Number of member-societies	557	636	816	830	881	917

Measures for Assistance of Workers

The Government Aid The most important policy of the Government in this connection in 1931 was the drafting of the Labour Union Law. But by the strong opposition of the representatives of business organizations the essential part of the Bill was deleted. The Labour Dispute Harmonizing Bill met the same fate. But the Government did something for the labourers by enforcing the Child Insurance Law, the Labour Accident Relief Law, and the Labour Accident Legal Insurance Law.

The second one, the Labour Ac-

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cident Relief Law provides for relief by employers of workers injured in quarrying, etc., in civil engineering work, in transport work, and as longshoremen. Hitherto, these labourers had no protection, being outside the terms of the Mine Law or the Factory Law, except that they occasionally received gifts or consolation money from employers. By the enforcement of this law their compensation becomes for the first time a legal obligation on employers. The number of enterprises which come under the Law was 8,160 and that of employees 321,962 in 1932. The number of cases in 1932 was 31,582 and the money expended amounted to ¥927,037.

Relief in Factories and Mines The condition of reliefs in 1932 in the factories and mines which come under the Factory Law and the Mine Law was as follows :

	Number	Expenses (In yen)
Factory		
Number of factories	75,799	
„ „ operatives	1,783,868	
Cases of relief		
Casualties	21,661	1,144,394
Private factories	8,888	720,543
Government factories	12,773	423,851
Sickness	758	9,891
Private factories	621	6,038
Government factories	137	3,853
Mine		
Number of mines	1,134	
„ „ miners	185,840	
Cases of relief		
Casualties	9,772	1,818,290
Sickness	181	46,893

The Insurances The types of insurance available for labourers and people of small means generally are (1) Health Insurance, (2) Post-Office Life Insurance, (3) Post-Office Annuities and (4) Labour Accident Relief Legal Insurance.

(1) Health Insurance has been in existence since 1926. The system was revised thoroughly in 1920 and showed a good progress. In 1932 the number of labourers who were injured while at work and relieved according to the provisions of the Health Insurance Law was 21,661, and deaths numbered 254, decreasing 886 and 59 respectively as compared with the previous year.

There were 341 Health Insurance Associations with a membership of 615,734 at the end of May, 1933. Besides, the Health Insurance handled by the Government had 1,127,250 men insured who were workers in 49,125 factories and enterprises.

(2) The Post Office Life Insurance policies for adult in force at the end of March, 1934 were as follows :

	March, 1933 (revised)	March, 1934
Number	18,183,187	20,057,686
Premiums	¥ 14,726,032.8	16,251,313.5
Sums insured	¥2,412,798,951.1	2,654,183,347.2

There is no way of finding the exact number of policies contracted by labourers, but judging from the lowest class of sums insured about 17 per cent. of the total may be insurers of the labouring class.

Child Insurance is provided for under the Post-Office Insurance scheme. According to the rules, the age of the child must be from 3 to 12, which means that about 19,000,000 children are eligible. The monthly

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premium is of three kinds, 30 sen, 50 sen and one yen, while the term of insurance is for 15 years or 20 years. For a monthly premium of one yen the insured amount is ¥60 for children under 4 years, 20 yen is added for every subsequent year, reaching 180 yen at the age of 9. From age 10 to the expiration of the term a total amount of from ¥86 to ¥190 according to the age of the insured at the time of making the original contract. The number of policies in force at the end of March, 1934 was 1,760,029, premiums ¥1,213,149.5 and sums insured ¥237,262,337.

(3) The condition of the Post Office Annuities at the end of March, 1934 was as follows:

	March, 1933	March, 1934
Number of policies	248,197	276,664
Premiums	¥44,334,975.03	55,178,047.03
Amount of annuities paid in the fiscal year	¥18,901,336.06	21,932,757.02

(4) Labour Accident Relief Legal Insurance. The Labour Accident Relief Legal Insurance Law was enforced on April 1, 1932. The purport of the law is to insure harmonious practice of the provisions of the Labour Accident Relief Law, in view of the cases that may arise in which labourers engaged in works under such smaller capitalists as stone-cutters, public-works or building contractors and stevedore masters cannot get allowances specially when large-scale accidents occur. According to the provisions of the law, subscription is compulsory for public-works or building contractors, and the premium is borne by the employers entirely. In 1932-1933 the number of policies taken was 5,148 and the premiums received amounted to ¥1,100,188.43. The number of cases of sickness or casualties was 3,505 and the expenses amounted to ¥143,572.68.

Creation of Landed Farmers The work of creating and maintaining landed farmers by national subsidy was begun in 1926, and it was carried out in all prefectures except Tokyo. During 8 years from 1926 to 1933, the amount of loans reached ¥109,072,100 for new establishments and maintenance. The money comes from the treasury of the Post-Office Insurance.

The area of land possessed by the new landed farmers in 1933 was 25,201 cho (cho=2.45 acres) of rice fields, 22,464 cho of upland-farms and 1,097 cho of other land, making a total of 48,763 cho. The number of new landed farmers in 1933 was 125,232, and that of maintainers 13,046.

Mutual Assistance Organizations The number of associations organized by the new landed-farmers, for the purpose of mutual assistance in payment of loans and improving farming methods, reached 1,116 in 1932 with a total membership of 34,576. The business of these bodies varies according to local conditions, but almost all of them are making efforts to save money and pay back loans received by members or prepare for lean years, and to help members in cultivation, etc. They also organize subsidiary occupations for members, give help in paying taxes, and organize lectures or exhibitions. When there are sick people among members the association helps them with materials or by working on the fields for them so as to maintain the ownership.

Dispute-Harmonizing Law The Government is eager to prevent labour disputes if possible, and especially those involving left wing organizations. If this cannot be done there

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is no other means to meet the situation than equitable adjustment of disputes after their occurrence. The Labour Dispute Harmonizing Law was first issued in 1926, but experience has since convinced the Government of the need for its revision. The Government sets much store by the services of official mediators or "harmonizers," and in the revised law the power of such officials is to be increased.

In 1933, there was only two cases in which a labour dispute was settled by the effort of a harmonizing committee organized according to the provisions of the Harmonizing Law. The number of cases settled by harmonizing effort outside the Law increased along with the increase in the number of disputes. Figures for 1933 follow:

Number of disputes	1,897
„ „ cases handled by arbitrators of all kinds	602
Harmonizing committee	2
Official arbitrator	152
Police arbitrator	210
Other officials	8
Municipal officials	27
Private arbitrator	203
Settled by arbitration	594
Not settled by „	8

Employment Exchange (See Chapter XXX.)

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CHAPTER XXXII

MEDICINE AND SANITATION

General

Foreign Physicians "Where there are three doctors there are two atheists" says the old proverb: yet medicine has ever been the handmaid of religion, and it was through a Christian missionary, St. Francis Xavier, that Western bodily healing first reached the shores of Kyushu. Later, when trade between foreign countries and Japan was the privilege of Dutch merchants only, the physicians who came with them proved a priceless source of knowledge to those Japanese who travelled secretly to Nagasaki in order to learn these new things: and the Bavarian scientist, P. F. von Siebold, spent three years in Yedo instructing the Shogunate doctors in his art. Then, as the Meiji Era opened the gates to foreign learning of every sort, Western medicine entered on the flowing tide, submerging, at least for a time, the native or Chinese system that had obtained for so many centuries, and of which further mention will be found on another page. Europeans were engaged to organize hospitals and to teach medical science in the colleges; and though Germany soon came to dominate the field in the latter case, it was an Englishman, Dr. Willis, who was the first to be officially engaged; he and Dr. Anderson being appointed to the Military and the Naval hospitals respectively in Tokyo.

It was largely through the influence of the late Dr. Baelz, who successfully attended an Imperial patient when the latter was dangerously ill, and of Dr. Scriba, the well-known surgeon, that Japan soon turned to Germany for almost all her medical instruction, though the late Baron Takagi, founder of the Tokyo Charity Medical College and Hospital and formerly head surgeon of the Navy, kept his institution for many years representative of the English school of medicine.

Among Americans might be mentioned Dr. A. E. Vedder, naval surgeon, Dr. Hepburn, and Dr. Eastlake, the father of American dentistry in Japan, though perhaps both were more famous as dictionary-makers; and, more recently, Dr. Teusler of St. Luke's Hospital in Tsukiji.

Physicians, Dentists, Pharmacists, etc.

Medical Practitioners The total number of medical licences issued in 1933 was 3,141 (besides 13 to foreigners), showing an increase compared with the preceding year of 286 licences (the number issued to foreigners increased by 3). In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1932	1933
Graduates of universities	1,576	1,649
Completed course in Government or public colleges	97	115
Completed course in designated private colleges	1,180	1,374

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	1932	1933
Completed course in foreign colleges (including examination)	2	3
Total	2,855	3,141

The total number of medical practitioners at the end of 1932 was 50,068 (besides 23 foreigners), including 1,881 women, showing an increase on the preceding year of 1,963 practitioners (an increase of 7 among foreigners). The following table gives the number of medical practitioners at the end of 1933:

NUMBER OF MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS

	Males	Females	Total	Actually Engaged	Per 10,000 of Population
1929	47,484	1,320	48,804	43,676	6.94
1930	48,239	1,442	49,681	45,582	7.07
1931	46,493	1,612	48,105	44,889	6.87
1932	48,188	1,881	50,069	46,029	6.94
1933	50,578	2,214	52,792	49,844	7.41

Of the above total number in 1933, those who actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients were 49,844, being 94 per cent. of the total.

The total number of those medical practitioners who were actually engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of patients at the end of 1933 was at the rate of 7.41 practitioners per 10,000 inhabitants, showing an increase of 0.47 when compared with the preceding year.

The ratio of the distribution of medical practitioners between urban and rural districts was 13.24 practitioners per 10,000 of population in the urban districts while it was 4.78 per 10,000 inhabitants for the rural districts. Compared with the preceding year, it was an increase of 1.55 for urban districts and a decrease of 0.01 for rural districts.

Dental Surgeons The total number of licences issued to dental surgeons in 1933 was 1,175, being an increase of 179 when compared with the preceding year. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom the licences were issued in 1933, classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1932	1933
Completed course in dental colleges	923	1,074
Completed course in foreign schools (including those who passed examination)	4	7
Passed examination	69	94
Total	996	1,175

The total number of dental surgeons at the end of 1933 was 17,984 (besides two foreigners), including 1,178 females, showing an increase on the preceding year of 820 (number of foreigners remained stationary). The following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

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	At the end of 1933	Percentage 1933	1932	1931	1930	1929
Completed course in dental colleges	9,139	50.82	48.14	44.57	42.02	38.97
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	78	0.43	0.43	0.45	0.51	0.53
Passed examination	8,761	48.72	51.40	54.94	57.41	60.45
In practice from the time before the promulgation of the Law of Dental Surgeons	6	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.05
Total	17,894	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Of the above number, those who were actually engaged in practice numbered 17,562 which corresponds to 97.65 per cent. of the total number of dental surgeons.

The total number of those dental surgeons who were actually in practice was at the rate of 2.61 per 10,000 of the population.

The ratio of the distribution of dental surgeons in cities and districts of the country was 5.04 for cities and 1.52 for districts per 10,000 inhabitants. Compared with the preceding year, it was an increase of 0.25 for cities and 0.04 for the districts.

At the end of 1933, besides the above mentioned number of dental surgeons, there were 85 medical practitioners who specialized in dentistry.

Pharmacists The total number of pharmacist's licences issued in 1933 was 1,502, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 105 licences. In the following table is given the number of persons to whom licences were issued in 1933 classified and compared with the preceding year's figures:

	1932	1933
Graduates of universities	28	22
Completed course in colleges	822	296
Completed course in designated private school of pharmacology	952	1,138
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	4	2
Passed examination	91	44
Total	1,397	1,502

The total number of pharmacists at the end of 1933 was 21,802 (besides 1 foreigner), including 2,278 females, showing an increase, compared with the preceding year's figures, of 1,332 (the number of foreigners remained stationary); and the following table gives the number classified and in percentage (the percentage for the preceding four years are also given for comparison):

	Number at the end of 1933	Percentage 1933	1932	1931	1930	1929
Graduates from universities	287	1.32	1.21	1.27	1.19	1.19
Completed course in colleges	10,906	50.02	46.57	42.46	39.44	36.42
Completed course in foreign schools (including examination)	30	0.14	0.12	0.13	0.15	0.15
Passed examination (including examination under former regulations)	10,579	48.52	52.10	56.14	59.22	62.24
Total	21,802	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

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Of these pharmacists, (1) the number of practising pharmacists (those who were engaged in the dispensing of medicines in the pharmacy, those who were engaged in the sale of medicines and those who were engaged in the manufacture of medicines) was 14,847 (2) the number of those who, being employed by hospitals or other dispensaries, were engaged in the dispensing of medicines was 2,371 and (3) those who were exclusively engaged in the sale of patent medicines numbered 1,323. Those coming under (1) corresponds to 68.10 per cent. of the total number of pharmacists while (2) and (3) represented 10.88 and 6.07 per cent. respectively.

At the end of 1933, the proportion of pharmacists to the population was 3.24 per 10,000 inhabitants, showing an increase of 0.15 on the preceding year.

Pharmacies and Traders in Medicines

Pharmacies The number of pharmacies at the end of 1933 was 11,713 of which 11,595 were run by pharmacists and 118 by non-pharmacists, showing an increase, when compared with the preceding year, of 403 pharmacies run by the pharmacist and 28 pharmacies managed by non-pharmacists.

Traders in Medicines The total number of persons engaged in the sale of medicines at the end of 1933 was 28,806, showing an increase of 616 persons on the preceding year; among them, the qualified pharmacists who are engaged in the sale of medicines without opening pharmacies numbered 650 and the druggist 28,156. Of these druggists those who were qualified to deal in designated medicines numbered 4,230, of which those employing pharmacists were 1,760, those coming under the provisions of Art. XXXVII, Item 4 of the "Regulations for the Trade in Medicines and the Handling Thereof" were 131 and those coming under the second clause of the supplementary provisions of the same regulations were 2,339.

Medicine-Manufacturers The total number of medicine-manufacturers at the end of 1933 was 3,832 being an increase of 22 on the preceding year. Of these manufacturers 1,199 were pharmacists, 879 those who employ pharmacists, and 1,754 neither pharmacists nor those employing pharmacists.

Midwives

Number The total number of midwives at the end of 1933 was 56,590 (besides two foreigners), showing an increase of 1,935 (no change in the number of foreigners) on the preceding year; they may be classified into 4,176 persons who completed the course in designated schools or training institutes, 48,563 who passed the examination, and 3,397 who have been in practice from time prior to the operation of the Midwives Regulations, and 454 who practise in limited districts.

Distribution The proportion of midwives to the population was 8.42 per 10,000 of the population, being an increase of 0.18 on the preceding year.

The ratio of the distribution of midwives between urban and rural districts of the country was 11.72 in the urban districts and 6.92 in the rural districts per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the ratio in the preceding year, a decrease of 0.08 in the urban districts and an increase of 0.19 in the rural districts.

Nurses, Acupuncturists; Moxicauterists, and Shampooers

Nurses The total number at the end of 1933 of nurses who had

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obtained licences from the prefectural offices was 96,020 (of which 4,412 were under-nurses) showing an increase of 6,336 on the preceding year.

Male Nurses The number of male nurses at the end of 1933 who had obtained licences from the prefectural offices was 172, showing an increase of 30 on the figures of the preceding year.

Acupuncture, Moxicautery, and Shampooing The following table gives the number of persons engaged in acupuncture, moxicautery, and shampooing who had obtained licenses from the prefectural offices at the end of 1933.

	Not Blind			Blind		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Acupuncture	2,515	566	3,081	1,730	343	2,073
Moxicautery	3,165	862	4,027	689	172	859
Shampooing	7,675	3,673	11,350	15,272	9,280	24,552
Acupunture and moxicautery	7,272	1,360	8,632	1,440	308	1,748
Acupuncture and shampooing	1,043	259	1,302	2,706	635	3,341
Moxicautery and shampooing	527	119	646	410	80	490
Acupuncture, moxicautery, and shampooing	4,451	660	5,111	4,526	825	5,351
Total	26,648	7,501	34,149	26,771	11,643	38,414

Among the above mentioned shampooers there were 1,928 who were engaged in the treatment of contusion by means of Judo.

The following table gives the ratio to the population of the above mentioned acupuncturists, moxicauterists, and shampooers and the percentage of the blind and those who are not blind among them:

	Per 10,000 inhabitanits	Percentage Not Blind	Blind	Total
Acupuncture	0.77	59.78	40.22	100.00
Moxicautery	0.73	82.42	17.58	100.00
Shampooing	5.34	31.61	68.39	100.00
Acupuncture and moxicautery	1.54	83.16	16.84	100.00
Acupuncture and shampooing	0.69	28.04	71.96	100.00
Moxicautery and shampooing	0.17	56.87	43.13	100.00
Acupuncture, moxicautery, and shampooing	1.55	48.85	51.15	100.00
Total	10.79	47.06	52.94	100.00

Hospitals

Public Hospitals At the end of 1933 there were 87 public general hospitals, the number being same as in the preceding year.

PUBLIC HOSPITALS IN 1933

Capacity of admitting patients	In cities	In towns	In villages	Total
More than 10	2	13	4	19
" 30	5	10	—	15
" 50	12	7	—	19
" 100	31	3	—	34
Total	50	33	4	87

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In the following table are given the capacity for admitting the patients and the number of patients admitted in 1933 to these hospitals :

Patient admitting capacity	9,029
Of the above capacity :	
For tuberculosis	266
„ infectious diseases	699
Number of patients :	
Remaining from the preceding year	3,439
Admitted this year	81,926
Discharged	75,162
Died in hospital	6,566
At the end of the year	3,637
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	1,920,338
Average capacity per hospital	103.78
Average number of in-patients per hospital	981.21
Average number of days a patients stayed in hospital	22.50

Private Hospitals (Charity Hospitals, Tuberculosis Hospitals, Insane Asylums and Leprosaria excluded.) The total number of private hospitals at the end of 1933 was 2,453 (of which 59 had been established by the public juridical persons and 12 by foreigners), which, when compared with the figures for the preceding year, shows an increase of 102 hospitals.

The following table gives the number of these hospitals in urban and rural districts classified according to their capacity of admitting patients:

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
With capacity for more than 10	1,082	542	198	1,822
„ „ 30	253	86	29	368
„ „ 50	127	37	21	185
„ „ 100	66	7	5	78
Total	1,528	672	253	2,453

In the following table are given the number of private hospitals classified according to the diseases they treat :

	Cities	Towns	Villages	Total
General	744	525	190	1,459
Medicine	185	48	15	248
Surgery	144	28	11	183
Paediatrics	56	1	1	58
Ophthalmology	82	26	18	126
Obstetrics and gynaecology	175	34	13	222
Dermatology and venereal and Genito-uriary diseases	66	4	3	73
Otorhinolaryngology	72	6	2	80
Dental surgery	1	—	—	1
Others	3	—	—	3
Total	1,528	672	253	2,453

In the following table are given the figures in connection with the capacity of admitting patients and the number of patients, etc. in the private hospitals :

Capacity	69,738
For infectious diseases	3,742
„ tuberculosis	2,252
Number of in-patients	
Remaining from the preceding year	19,311
Admitted in 1933	487,685
Left the hospital	454,973
Died in hospital	29,284
At the end of 1933	22,739
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	8,715,087
Average capacity per hospital	28.43
Average number of in-patients per hospital	206.68
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	17.19

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Charity Hospitals (Tuberculosis Hospitals, Leprosaria and Insane Asylums excluded.) The total number of public and private charity hospitals at the end of 1933 was 35, of which 12 were public and 23 private hospitals, showing a decrease on the preceding year of one private hospital.

The following table gives the capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1933.

Admitting capacity	3,360
Number of in-patients	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,109
" " *	210
Admitted in 1933	31,143
" *	7,111
Left the hospital	27,314
" *	6,606
Died in hospital	3,638
" *	458
At the end of 1932	2,300
" *	257
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	945,430
" "	*110,504
Average capacity per hospital	96.00
Average number of in-patients per hospital	1,159.23
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	26.03
Percentage of paying patients	18.04%

* Indicates the number of paying patients.

Insane Asylums The total number of public and private insane asylums (with the admitting capacity of at least 10) at the end of 1933 was 120, consisting of 8 public and 112 private asylums, showing an increase on the preceding year of ten private asylums.

The following table gives their admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1933.

Admitting capacity	15,996
Number of in-patients	
Remaining from the preceding year	6,904
" " *	4,291
Admitted in 1933	3,824
" *	10,622
Left the asylum	1,984
" *	8,740
Died in asylum	1,230
" *	1,103
At the end of 1933	7,514
" *	5,070
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	2,555,071
" "	*1,838,438
Average capacity per asylum	133.30
Average number of in-patients per asylum	213.68
Average number of days in asylum of a patient	171.35
Percentage of paying patients	58.16%

* Indicates the number of paying patients.

Tuberculosis Hospitals The total number of public and private tuberculosis hospitals (with admitting capacity of at least 10) at the end of 1933 was 76 (three of which had been established by foreigners), consisting of 20 public and 56 private hospitals showing an increase of one public and six private hospitals, on the preceding year.

The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1933.

Admitting apaccity	6,177
Number of in-patients	
Remaining from the preceding year	2,701
" " *	1,766
Admitted in 1933	3,476
" *	7,554
Left the hospital	1,477
" *	5,150
Died in hospital	1,962
" *	1,977
At the end of 1933	2,744
" *	2,193
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	989,677
" "	*762,433
Average capacity per hospital	81.28
Average number of in-patients per hospital	203.91
Average number of days in hospital of a patient	113.06
Percentage of paying patients	60.14%

* Indicates the number of paying patients.

Leprosaria The total number of public and private leprosaria (with the capacity for at least 10) at the end of 1933 was 15 (one of which

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had been established by foreigners), consisting of 3 Governmental, 5 public and 7 private leprosaria. The following table gives the admitting capacity and the number of patients who entered them in 1933.

Admitting capacity	4,639
Number of in-patients	
Remaining from the preceding year	4,319
" " *	35
Admitted in 1933	1,451
" *	59
Left the leprosarium	585
" *	24
Died in leprosarium	309
" *	3
At the end of 1933	4,876
" *	67
Aggregate number of in-patients treated each day	1,636,698
" " *	14,204
Average capacity per leprosarium	309.27
Average number of in-patients per leprosarium	390.93
Average number of days in leprosarium of a patient	281.53
Percentage of paying patients	1.60%

* Indicates the number of patients who bear the whole or a part of their expenses.

The following are the figures concerning the three National leprosaria of Nagashima Aiséién, Kuryu Rakusénén and Miyako Ryoyojo:

	Aiseien	Rakusenen	Miyako
Capacity of admitting patients	678	115	60
Number of in-patients:			
Remaining from last year	500	1	43
Admitted in 1933	353	94	18
Discharged	57	—	4
Died	45	2	5
At the end of the year	751	93	52
Aggregated number of in-patients treated each day	228,258	22,648	18,469
Average number of days apatient stayed in leprosarium	267.59	238.40	302.77

Hospitals for Prostitutes At the end of 1933 there were 133 hospitals for prostitutes, and the total capacity for them was 5,330 (of which 10 were in the infectious diseases rooms). Compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of three hospitals and 51 in their admitting capacity. The number of patients who had remained over from the preceding year in the hospitals was 1,289 and those who entered them in 1933 numbered 49,934, making a total of 51,223 (of which 769 were clandestine prostitutes admitted under the provisions of Art. III of the Administrative Execution Law).

The following table gives ratios respecting facts connected with the above mentioned hospitals for prostitutes:

	1933
Average capacity per hospital	40.08
Average number of patients admitted per hospital	385.14
Average number of days a patient remained in hospital	18.99
Average number of days a clandestine prostitute remained in hospital	19.09

Infectious Diseases Hospitals (Established under the provision of the Law for the Prevention of Infectious Diseases). The total number of infectious diseases hospitals at the end of 1933 was 1,261, consisting of 116 established by cities, 960 by towns, villages and other similar public corporations and 185 established by town or village associations or other similar associations. The admitting capacity of these hospitals was 26,737, making an average of 21,20 per hospital.

The isolation wards at the end of the same year numbered 7,398, consisting of 56 established by cities, 6,971 by towns, villages or similar public corporations, and 371 by the town or village associations or similar associations; and the admitting capacity in these isolation wards was 67,558, the average per ward coming to 9.13.

The total number of isolation houses at the end of 1933 was 75, of which 12 were those established by cities, 63 by towns, villages or similar public corporations. The es-

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timated total capacity of these isolation houses was 1,926, the average capacity per house coming to 25.68 persons.

At the end of 1933, there were 44 disinfecting stations.

Medicines

Medicines and Preparations not Mentioned in Pharmacopoeia The total number of persons who have reported in 1933 to the respective prefectural offices of the manufacture, importation and sale of medicines and preparations not to be found in any pharmacopoeia was 705 and the number of medicines reported 2,372 showing, compared with the preceding year an increase of 50 persons and an increase of 250 medicines.

Inspection of Medicines In the tours of inspection made during 1933, 27,661 places (an increase of 4,273 when compared with the preceding year) were visited; and the following table gives the places visited and the results of the inspection:

	Number of places visited	Percentage of places visited against places to be visited	Percentage of deleterious medicines discovered		Percentage of violators of the regulations punished
			places	medicines	
Total	27,661	25.16	22.93	42.89	0.65
Pharmacists (with pharmacy)	5,128	44.30	26.66	48.54	1.11
Pharmacists (others)	91	7.03	10.99	21.98	—
Non-pharmacists	36	30.77	16.67	36.11	—
Druggists	7,129	26.06	7.86	12.96	0.87
Medicine-manufacturers	648	23.56	1.08	2.31	2.01
Hospitals	766	28.19	33.03	59.14	—
Medical practitioners	10,006	23.27	34.83	67.95	0.33
Dental surgeons	3,501	21.21	15.68	23.16	0.26
Veterinary surgeons	356	7.68	29.49	56.74	1.69

Patent Medicines At the end of 1933, the total number of patent medicine traders was 40,845, which shows an increase of 333 when compared with the figures of the preceding year. Of these, there were 10,276 pharmacists, 3,099 medical practitioners and veterinary surgeons, and those who employ pharmacists numbered 2,488, those who come under Art. XXIV of the Patent Medicine Regulations were 18,700, and those who come under Art. XXV, of the same law 6,243, while there were 39 who were engaged exclusively in the importation and sale of patent medicines.

The total number of recognized patent medicines was 283,475 (of which 175 were imported), showing an increase of 14,849 when compared with the figures of the preceding year.

Patent medicines manufactured or imported in 1933 amounted to ¥81,627,188 (of which ¥546,590 represents the import from the territories), showing when compared with the population in that year the ratio of 1.21 yen per person, being a decrease of 1 sen compared with the preceding year.

Japanese and Chinese Medicine

In Japan, as in the West, there is a system of home treatment, the history of which can be traced back into ancient times. Needless to say, however, that by far the greater part of home treatment in those days sprang from superstition. The people in those days had no knowledge

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of medicine, but it would be an error to say that all the methods employed in home treatment were nonsense. Such methods as are really efficacious and can stand the test of modern science have come to survive to this day and these cannot be cast aside as mere superstition. In this connection it may be remembered that digitalis, cocaine, and other remedies and drugs have all originated in some simple home medicine of uncivilized peoples.

There are naturally many methods of home treatment in Japan, some of which can hold their own against the tests of modern science, while others cannot.

(1) The latter group of treatments is based upon superstition or erroneous conceptions of medicine and as such it cannot stand the test of modern medical science. Belonging to this group are such so-called methods of cure as incantation, prayer, conjuration, etc. Yet it must be said that sometimes people are cured from their diseases in consequence of auto-suggestion, and in such cases the cure can hardly be said to have been brought about by superstition.

(2) Rational home treatment can be classified into physical and pharmaceutical treatment. The former includes hydrotherapy, balneotherapy, sand-bathing, massage, acupuncture, moxibustion, etc. and since other remedies are already recognized as physical therapy by present medical science and need no special explanation, it is only necessary to review here, in brief, acupuncture and moxibustion.

Acupuncture Acupuncture, as a method of treatment or preventive of disease, consists in the introduction of a gold, a silver, or a steel needle into the living tissues and moving it very little vertically or, in some cases, leaving it in the tissue for from 2 to 3 minutes. Little is known of the early history of acupuncture in Japan, but this much is known, that the art was introduced to this country from China in the reign of the Emperor Kimmei (about 550 A. D.). After reaching Japan great improvements were made in technique as well as in the needle itself and the practice of it spread widely year after year. However, with the introduction of Western medical science after the Meiji Restoration, acupuncturation gradually dwindled in favour, but in recent years it has somewhat regained.

The needle now in use is from 3 to 10 cm. in length and about 0.2 mm. in thickness. There are certain specified points in the human body, some three or four hundred, where the needle can be inserted and it has been found that these points agree, in general, with Head's zones.

If the operator is skilful in introducing a needle into the tissues, no pain will be felt by the recipient. Only a little shock as though caused by electricity will be felt and hardly any bleeding will take place. As regards the action of the needle upon the human body its stimulative function must first be mentioned. As the needle stimulates the nerves, it serves to invigorate their function directly or reflectively and dilates the blood vessel, thus bettering the nourishment of that part of the body to which the treatment is applied and arousing a weakened function into greater activity. In the second place its sedative function has to be mentioned, and sedative results are achieved according to the length of time the needle is allowed to remain in the tissue. Its third function is that of inducing blood from other parts of the body to the part where the treatment is given, thus serving to relieve any congestion of blood.

Acupuncture is thus a good reme-

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dy for functional diseases of the nervous system as paresthesia, motor paralysis, anchylosis, and several forms of neuralgia. It cannot be applied in cases of high fever, wasting disease, hæmorrhagic diathesis or any acute infectious disease. Among the places where the application must not take place may be mentioned wounds, gangrenous growths, the heart, the lungs, blood vessels and the pregnant uterus.

Moxibustion This method was brought, with acupuncture, from China in the reign of the Emperor Kimmei, and it came into general use after gradual improvement in its methods.

The moxibustion method of this country, with the moxa, was introduced to Western countries by Rhiene (1673), Buschaf (1674), both of the Netherlands, Jan Craset (1689) of France and Kampfer (1690) of Germany. After the beginning of Meiji, moxibustion, like acupuncture, gradually ceased to be practised, but of late it is again growing in popularity. In moxibustion, as in acupuncture, there are specific points of the body on which lighted moxa may be placed, thus producing erythema or blisters on the skin. Moxa is made from the leaves of mugwort which, after being dried in the sun, are rubbed and softened like cotton. They are then rolled into balls the size of a red bean or a soya bean and placed upon the skin. Cases where moxibustion cannot be used are almost the same as in acupuncture. Due allowance in the size of the moxa balls and the frequency of their use must be made for an infant or a weakened body. The diseases for which moxibustion is effective are :

(1) Nervous diseases : — neuralgia, cramp, neurasthenia, hysteria, chorea, and certain kinds of cerebrospinal diseases.

(2) Motor nervous diseases : — myalgia, articular rheumatism, myositis, arthritis.

(3) Digestive disorders : —atonia of the stomach and bowels, Ectasia of the stomach, gastric and intestinal catarrh, stomach paroxysm, dyspepsia, constipation, and diseases of the liver.

(4) Urinary diseases:—nephritis, pyelitis, cystitis, ureteritis.

(5) Gynecological diseases :—endometritis, metritis, Ovaritis, salpingitis, anomaly of situation and functional disorders.

(6) Pediatric diseases :—dyspepsia, catarrh of the stomach and bowels.

Moxibustion causes leucocytosis, gives an impetus to the recovery of the exhaustion curve line, increases blood sugar, complement and saponin. When used constantly, it creates erythrocytes and hæmoglobin. The nature of moxibustion, according to the studies of authorities, is not only that of heat stimulation, but also that of a protein-therapy.

Home Medicines Prince Sukunahikona is generally regarded as the founder of the indigenous medical science and pharmacy of this country. Communication with China naturally served to bring into this country Chinese medicine and pharmacy, which enjoyed great vogue, so much so that towards the end of the Tokugawa Shogunate Japanese medicine, to use an apparent contradiction of terms, was almost entirely Chinese. When, however, Western medical science was introduced immediately after the Meiji Restoration, people soon abandoned the Chinese school, and not only was Chinese medicine driven out of this country, but most of the Japanese people gave up using home remedies, though in recent years, there has been a return to them. Medical science has made great progress, but

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the methods of cure have not advanced hand in hand with this progress. Diseases which were incurable in the past still remain incurable and people have again begun to think of home remedies. At the same time we cannot overlook the fact that new Western medicines, which are dispensed on purely scientific lines, are always better than drugs, though these, to some extent, are incorporated in the new medicines. In some cases, however, natural drugs are better than chemically prepared ones, and some physicians, who formerly considered drugs rather lightly, are now prescribing them more freely. In Japan, there are hundreds of drugs, but as space does not permit writing in full, a brief mention will be made of a few which may be of interest to the Western world and which have scientific value.

Home medicines are usually classified into animal, vegetable, or mineral matter, as below.

ANIMAL MATTER:

(1) The sea-ear. The shell, when powdered, is used for eye trouble.

(2) The oyster. The shell is used as an antacida and stomachica; and its fleshy part is utilised as a roborantia and a nutrientia.

(3) The blister beetle. Cantalidin contained in the insect is an efficacious ingredient and is good for the relief of arthritic rheumatism or an abscess, and sometimes is used to give impetus to suppuration. In China, it is said, the insect was used for poisoning purposes.

(4) Honey. Used as a cough remedy and as a laxative.

(5) The lamprey. Used for hemeralopia. Recently it was found that it contains plenty of vitamin A.

(6) The toad. Used as a cardiaca and its efficacious ingredient is gamain or Bufotoxin, and its work is similar to digitalis.

VEGETABLE MATTER:

(1) The tangle. This, as it contains iodine in its composition, is used as an alterantia of syphilis and consumption or scrofulousness.

(2) Rhea-grass. Used for diarrhœa as perspiratory diuretica, narcotic expectorantia or astringentia; and it is well known that the efficacious ingredient "ephedolin," was abstracted from it by Dr. Nagai.

(3) The lily of the valley. Contains convallarin and is used for heart trouble.

(4) The rocambole. This is good for stopping a cough and helping expectoration, besides which it has a sterilizing power in the bowels. It is also prescribed for pulmonary tuberculosis.

(5) Saffron. Polycroid and crotin are efficacious ingredients and the vegetable is good for disorders of menstruation.

(6) Ginger. This is a sudorific and expectorantia, and is sometimes used for dyspepsia. The efficacious ingredient is gingerol.

(7) The purple willow. This, as it contains a chemical compound of salicylic acid, is used for skin diseases, rheumatism or fever.

(8) The geranium nepalenses. This is used widely in Japan, and is good for diarrhœa and intestinal catarrh. The efficacious ingredients have not yet been found.

(9) Ginseng. Is the best-known of Japanese home medicines. It contains volatile oil and saponin. It is used as a tonic in consumption, neurasthenia, impotence, decrepitude, anæmia.

(10) The plum. This is good for dyspepsia and diarrhœa as a pepastic.

(11) The plantain. This is used as a diuretic and expectorant. It is also good for whooping-cough. Plantagion is the efficacious ingredient.

(12) Arrowroot. After being dried in the sun, the root is used for fevers or headaches. It contains plenty of starch.

MINERAL MATTER:

(1) Calcite. This is a peptic and is good for pulmonary tuberculosis. It contains calcium carbonate and magnesium.

(2) "Fukuryukan." This is made from the burnt clay of old clay cooking-stoves and is good for morning-sickness, sea-sickness and intoxication. It contains vitrioline, calcium and magnesium, but it is still uncertain what ingredient is good for disease.

Health Preservation Work

Control of Foods, Beverages, etc. Foods, beverages, and other articles actually under control of the Home Department in accordance with the provisions of the Department Ordinances based on Law No. 15, 1900, are milk and milk-products, non-alcoholic drinks, snow and ice, artificial saccharine matters, food and beverage preservatives, injurious

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pigments, utensils for foods and beverages, and methyl alcohol, etc. The business of producing and manufacturing these things is making healthy development under the guidance of the authorities concerned, as is shown by the following figures :

PRODUCTION OF MILK DRINKS, ETC.

(In litres)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Cow's milk	104,529,047	109,035,601	110,364,398	116,475,168	123,686,138
Goat's milk	581,587	720,989	878,731	838,247	1,001,713
Milk products					
Condensed milk	10,187,691 kg.	10,748,790 kg.	10,245,595 kg.	9,338,778 kg.	13,523,866
Condensed skim-milk	1,125,573 ,,	1,495,627 ,,	1,859,168 ,,	1,688,183 ,,	1,537,776
Powdered milk	918,636 ,,	603,605 ,,	753,218 ,,	529,603 ,,	979,870
Butter	1,124,743 ,,	4,443,022 ,,	4,714,772 ,,	1,628,727 ,,	1,810,719
Snow and ice					
Artificial ice	1,804,542,750 kg.	2,172,032,110 kg.	2,076,336,118 kg.	2,255,939,221 kg.	2,498,899,730 kg.
Natural ice	133,210,362 ,,	118,057,532 ,,	123,210,908 ,,	115,737,956 ,,	110,685,674 ,,
Snow	1,362,176 ,,	1,024,500 ,,	2,259,213 ,,	1,871,539 ,,	1,356,332 ,,
Refreshing drinks					
Mineral water and soda water	3,591,349	5,356,235	7,519,309	7,119,783	7,384,382
Ramuné	64,566,752	73,778,361	60,667,910	56,722,724	43,221,367
Cider	68,578,465	64,369,594	64,839,992	73,047,750	53,684,554
Lemonade, etc.	24,084,709	22,637,902	22,637,902	22,954,172	24,152,273
Fruit juice, syrup, etc.	10,610,996	9,770,019	9,872,600	11,279,420	10,036,299
Acid drinks made from milk and milk products	—	—	—	1,369,521	1,224,910

The total quantiy of refreshing drinks as given above, when compared with the total population for the year, comes to 2.08 litres per inhabitant, showing a decrease of 0.52 litre, compared with the preceding year.

Results of Examination The following are the results of examinations carried out by prefectural authorities in 1933 with the object of exercising control over foods, beverages, and other articles which require control within the limits of provisions of the Law No. 15, 1900.

	(A) Total number of examination	(B) Number of examination in which injurious articles were discovered	Ratio of (B) to (A) in percentage	Compared with the preceding year
Milk and milk products	81,491	3,005	3.69	0.24 (incr.)
Snow and ice	4,496	507	11.28	3.96 (,,)
Refreshing drinks	249,403	21,870	8.77	0.57 (decr.)
Utensils for foods and beverages	85,334	14,858	17.41	0.22 (incr.)
Confectionary	39,708	732	1.84	3.79 (decr.)
Canned and bottled foods	17,875	442	2.36	0.16 (,,)
Alcoholic drinks	78,805	1,201	1.52	0.11 (,,)
Other foods and beverages	88,598	3,797	4.54	1.13 (,,)
Preservatives and decolourisers	197	10	5.08	3.11 (,,)
Toys	1,941	50	2.58	0.33 (incr.)
Toilet articles	671	45	6.71	1.22 (decr.)
Miscellaneous	23,767	5,228	22.00	4.43 (incr.)
Total	667,286	51,725	7.75	0.21 (decr.)

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Waterworks and Sewerage

Waterworks During the year from April, 1933 to March, 1934, sanction was given for the construction of waterforks in 20 cities and municipalities.

Those places which obtained permission to construct waterworks may be classified as follows:

Undertaken by	Number of waterworks for which sanction or permission of the construction was given	Number of waterworks which now supply water
Cities	101	97
Towns and villages	326	300
Towns' or villages' associations	5	5
Prefectures	4	3
Private parties	101	92
Total	537	497

Sewerage During the year from April, 1933 to March, 1934, permission to construct sewers was given to four places, namely, Gifu city in Gifu prefecture, Koya town in Wakayama prefecture, Yawata city in Fukuoka prefecture and Miyazaki city in Miyazaki prefecture.

The places which obtained permission to construct sewers are 25 municipalities which completed construction and 18 municipalities under construction.

Removal of Foul Matter The following table gives a general idea of foul matter conducted in 1933 in 122 cities.

Number of houses within the districts in which removal of foul matter was carried out		3,946,909
Removal from the above mentioned houses	Refuse	2,775,872,133 kg.
	Dirt	691,875,513 ,,
	Night-soil	638,186 kl.
Average amount removed per house	Refuse	703.3 kg.
	Dirt	177.4 ,,
	Night-soil	1.3 kl.
Number of houses from which the holders of the land removed foul matters under Art. XXI of Regulation for Enforcement of the Law		77,903
Number of incineration plants		113
Water-closets with purifying equipments		11,423

Note: 1 The figures of the night-soil given in the table represent only those for which city authorities are held responsible for its removal.
2 Number of incineration plants does not include the provisions for burning in the open.

Slaughter-houses and Slaughtering

Slaughter-houses The total number of slaughter-houses at the end of 1933 was 677, of which 85 was established by cities, 343 by towns and villages, 38 by live-stock raisers' or industrial associations, and 211 by private individuals. When compared with the figures of the preceding year, it shows an increase of 9 in city slaughter-houses, 5 in those of live-stock raisers' or industrial associations, and 17 in those privately established.

Slaughtering The number of animals of various kinds slaughtered in 1933 for food purposes and its comparison with the figures for the preceding year are given below (those slaughtered in emergencies or for household use are not included):

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Kind of animals	Number of cattle slaughtered in 1933	Compared with 1932
Cattle	319,198 head	2,825 (decrease)
Calves	31,164 ,,	1,528 (increase)
Sheep	1,554 ,,	346 (,,)
Goats	2,869 ,,	8 (,,)
Pigs	969,557 ,,	668 (,,)
Horses	93,242 ,,	12,947 (,,)

The following table gives the weight of meat yielded in 1933 by the slaughtered animals and a comparison of the yield with that of the preceding year:

	Total weight		Average weight per head	
	1932 kg.	Compared with 1931 kg.	1932 kg.	Compared with 1931 kg.
Cattle	58,232,989	240,448 (decr.)	182.44	0.86 (incr.)
Calves	1,497,407	45,987 (incr.)	48.05	0.93 (decr.)
Sheep	29,469	3,134 (,,)	19.09	2.89 (,,)
Goats	28,678	513 (,,)	10.00	0.16 (incr.)
Pigs	47,240,401	86,021 (decr.)	48.72	0.13 (decr.)
Horses	13,026,146	1,887,878 (incr.)	139.70	0.98 (incr.)

The following table gives the number of cases in 1933 in which, after examination of animals for slaughter, slaughter was prohibited or orders were given for destruction after slaughter of the whole or parts of the carcasses or of the viscera only.

	Number prohibited	After slaughter: Wholly destroyed	After slaughter: partly destroyed	After slaughter: Viscera only destroyed
Cattle	74	147	4,314	81,695
Calves	9	22	210	1,244
Sheep	—	1	2	576
Goats	—	—	—	18
Pigs	239	194	4,076	363,275
Horses	211	68	3,157	12,198

Inspection of Imported Meat In 1933, the inspection of imported meat was carried out in the 9 ports of Osaka, Yokohama, Kobé, Shimonoseki, Moji, Ujina, Nagasaki, Izuhara and Tsuruga.

The total amount of meat inspected at these ports was 10,316,815 kilogrammes, showing a decrease of 446,046 kilogrammes on the preceding year. Classified by the kinds of meat, it was as follows:

	Weight of meat inspected (in kg.)
Fresh beef	158,332
Chilled beef	7,060,148
Frozen beef	2,959,884
Mutton	32,504
Pork	105,947

Insane Persons

At the end of 1933, the total number of insane persons was 76,039 which shows an increase of 2,499 on the figures for the preceding year. Its ratio to the population of the country in that year was 11.31 per 10,000 of population, which compared with the preceding year, shows an increase of 0.22.

The following table gives the number of insane persons at the end of 1933 classified according to the places of their custody or confinement:

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	Actual numbers			Percentage		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Admitted into insane asylums under the law concerning Asylums for the Insane	1,156	649	1,805	2.38	2.37	2.37
Admitted into substitute asylums under the same Law	1,590	1,081	2,608	3.27	3.71	3.43
Under custody in other asylums or hospitals	2,816	1,542	4,357	5.79	5.62	5.73
Under custody in other places	5,463	1,193	6,656	11.24	4.35	8.76
Under temporary custody	75	19	94	0.15	0.07	0.12
Not requiring admission or custody	34,505	23,014	60,519	77.17	83.88	79.59
Total	48,604	27,435	76,093	100.00	100.00	100.00

Poisoning

The total number of persons poisoned in 1933 was 14,071 (an increase of 2,893 on the preceding year), of which 8,086 (57.47 per cent.) were poisoned intentionally, 5,947 (42.26 per cent.) by accident, and 38 (0.27 per cent.) through other's injuries; and of these persons poisoned 3,324 died, of which 2,912 were those poisoned intentionary, 394 those poisoned by accident, and 18 those poisoned by others, so that 36.07 per cent. of those intentionally poisoned died, 6.63 per cent. of those accidentally poisoned also died, and 47.37 per cent. of those poisoned through other's injuries also succumbed. Of poisonous substances the most frequently used in intentional poisoning and poisoning through other's injuries are chemicals, especiality a preparation containing phosphorus; accidental poisoning is mostly due to eating poisonous animals or plants or putrid food.

Burials and Cremations

The total number of burial-grounds at the end of 1933 was 977,418 and their total area was 22,560 hectares, making the average area of burial-ground 0.02 hectare; and the total number of crematoria at the end of the same year was 34,728 in which 639,261 bodies were cremated during the year, so that a crematorium burnt on an average 18.4 bodies. In the same year 645,535 bodies were buried uncremated, so that those cremated came to 49.8 per cent. and those buried uncremated to 50.2 per cent. of the total number of burials, which, when compared with the percentage for 1932, showed an increase of 1.5 per cent. in those cremated.

Prevention of Infectious Diseases

Cholera In 1933, there was no cases of cholera.

Dysentery, including Ekiri The total number of cases of dysentery in 1933 was 38,049 and there were 14,220 deaths therefrom which when compared with the figures for the preceding year, show an increase of 5,798 cases and 1,355 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.66 cases and 2.11 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.80 cases and 0.17 deaths.

The total number of cases of dysentery which broke out in urban districts only during the year under review was 25,065 which corresponds to 65.88 per cent. of the total number of dysentery cases throughout the country. Of these, there were 8,414 deaths. The rate of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 11.98 and 4.02 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 4.23 cases and 1.31 deaths.

Typhoid Fever The total number of

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cases of typhoid fever in 1933 was 38,529 cases and deaths therefrom 7,232, showing an increase of 3,010 cases and 731 deaths when compared with the preceding year. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 5.73 cases and 1.08 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.37 cases and 1.10 deaths.

The total number of cases of typhoid reported for urban districts only during the year was 17,647 which corresponds to 45.80 per cent. of the total number of cases for the whole country. Of the above number, there were 3,585 deaths.

The ratios of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 8.44 and 1.71 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 1.02 cases and 0.29 deaths.

Paratyphoid Fever The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever in 1933 was 5,305, of which 358 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 483 cases and a decrease of 38 deaths.

The ratio of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.79 cases and 0.05 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.06 cases and a decrease of 0.01 deaths.

The total number of cases of paratyphoid fever reported for urban districts only in 1933 was 2,090 which corresponds to 39.40 per cent. of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the deaths therefrom numbered 174.

The ratio of cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 1.00 and 0.08 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, a decrease of 0.14 case and an increase of 0.01 death.

Smallpox In 1933 smallpox broke out in Tokyo and other 27 prefectures, the total number of cases being 375 with 56 deaths. The ratios of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 0.06 case and 0.01 death per 10,000 inhabitants. The largest number of cases occurred in Kagoshima prefecture, it being 112 cases with 14 deaths; in the other prefectures the number of cases was all less than 36. (In 1932 there occurred 305 cases with 45 deaths). The total number of cases of smallpox in urban districts was 135 (16 deaths), corresponding to 36.00 per cent. of the total number of cases for the whole country, and the ratio to 10,000 of urban population shows 0.06 case and 0.01 death.

Typhus In 1933 four cases of typhus broke out, one in Osaka prefecture (in urban district) and three in Hyogo prefecture of which two occurred in urban district (with 1 death) and one in rural district. (There were 3 cases in 1932 with 2 deaths).

Scarlet Fever The total number of cases of scarlet fever in 1933 was 12,631 with 408 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 4,374 cases and 73 deaths.

The ratio of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year were 1.88 cases and 0.06 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants. Compared with the preceding year, there was an increase of 0.63 in the ratio of cases while the death-rate increased by 0.01.

The number of scarlet fever cases which broke out in cities throughout the country in 1933 was 10,363, representing 82.04 per cent. of the total number of cases in the whole country. Of these there were 302 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 4.95 and 0.14 respectively,

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showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 2.17 cases and 0.04 deaths.

Diphtheria The total number of cases of diphtheria in 1933 was 28,545 with 5,274 deaths, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 6,679 cases and 916 deaths.

The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 4.25 cases and 0.78 deaths per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.95 case and 0.12 death.

The number of cases of diphtheria which broke out in cities throughout the country in 1933 was 14,118 which represents 49.46 per cent. of the total number for the whole country. Of these, there were 2,416 deaths and the ratio of these cases and deaths per 10,000 of urban population was 6.75 and 1.16 respectively, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 2.62 cases and 0.46 death.

Epidemic Cerebrospinal Meningitis The total number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in 1933 was 359, of which 221 ended fatally, showing, when compared with the preceding year's figures, an increase of 121 cases and 59 deaths. The proportion of these cases and deaths to the population in the same year was 0.05 case and 0.03 death per 10,000 inhabitants, showing an increase of 0.01 both in the ratio of cases and deaths on the preceding year.

The number of cases of epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis in cities throughout the country in 1933 was 219, which represents 61.00 per cent. of the total number of cases in the whole country. Of these cases, there were 142 deaths, and the proportion of these cases and deaths to the urban population in the country was 0.10 case and 0.07 death per 10,000 inhabitants, showing, when compared with the preceding year, an increase of 0.03 cases and 0.02 deaths.

Plague No cases of plague occurred in 1933.

The following table gives the condition of cholera and four other infectious diseases in the country during the fifty years since 1884:

FIFTY YEARS OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

	Cholera		Dysentery		Typhoid fever	
	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1884	0.24	0.67	6.01	9.68	5.56	9.57
1885	3.64	11.32	12.46	12.97	7.38	8.10
1886	40.15	14.43	6.26	7.22	17.05	14.57
1887	0.31	0.87	4.09	5.65	12.01	13.02
1888	0.20	0.61	6.69	8.69	10.87	12.18
1889	0.18	0.53	5.62	7.30	8.81	10.54
1890	11.23	42.91	10.41	10.60	8.48	10.31
1891	2·70	9.10	11.23	13.15	10.65	11.28
1892	0.21	0.55	16.99	18.76	8.55	9.50
1893	0.15	0.39	39.78	44.11	8.10	8.74
1894	0.13	0.37	36.57	44.91	8.64	9.49
1895	12.81	43.49	12.24	18.68	8.60	9.83
1896	0.34	1.00	19.54	14.72	9.67	10.14
1897	0.20	0.56	20.54	26.49	6.07	6.69
1898	0.15	0.42	20.81	25.12	5.79	6.39
1899	0.19	0.53	24.59	25.82	6.26	7.01
1900	0.08	0.25	10.34	11.16	5.33	5.89

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	Cholera		Dysentery		Typhoid fever	
	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1901	0.02	0.07	10.97	11.68	5.33	5.80
1902	2.92	9.62	8.09	8.80	4.61	5.01
1903	0.03	0.10	6.50	7.74	4.04	4.61
1904	0.00	0.00	4.82	5.41	4.16	4.84
1905	—	—	7.93	8.57	4.78	5.25
1906	—	—	4.59	5.38	5.19	6.17
1907	0.74	2.48	5.08	5.85	5.29	5.59
1908	0.13	0.39	6.38	7.62	4.76	5.18
1909	0.07	0.02	5.61	6.22	5.03	4.97
1910	0.56	1.90	6.33	6.85	6.98	7.35
1911	0.00	0.00	5.37	5.51	6.68	6.26
1912	0.53	1.62	4.96	5.52	6.09	6.06
1913	0.01	0.02	3.20	3.59	5.29	5.30
1914	0.00	0.36	4.87	5.19	6.61	6.01
1915	—	—	3.88	3.99	6.70	6.52
1916	1.88	5.27	4.07	3.63	7.56	7.07
1917	0.16	0.45	2.67	2.63	6.28	6,05
1918	—	—	2.46	1.89	7.59	6.61
1919	0.52	2.09	2.30	1.98	9.72	6.92
1920	0.89	2.16	2.27	2.05	9.63	7.15
1921	0.01	0.01	2.19	2.28	8.83	8.25
1922	0.13	0.22	2.67	2.12	9.08	5.70
1923	0.00	0.00	3.47	5.53	9.00	8.53
1924	—	—	3.15	5.77	9.87	10.04
1925	0.10	0.31	2.46	5.49	7.66	7.51
1926	0.00	0.01	2.83	6.63	7.26	7.65
1927	0.00	0.00	3.49	7.81	6.12	6.04
1928	0.00	0.00	4.06	9.06	6.77	6.63
1929	0.03	0.09	4.81	10.02	5.93	5.94
1930	—	—	4.61	10.57	6.43	6.68
1931	—	—	4.54	9.93	5.85	6.12
1932	—	—	4.86	10.95	5.26	5.53
1933	—	—	5.66	11.91	5.73	6.06

	Smallpox		Diphtheria	
	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1884	0.45	0.66	0.60	2.03
1885	3.33	4.04	0.74	1.75
1886	18.89	19.71	0.84	1.55
1887	10.07	13.22	0.69	1.90
1888	1.01	1.13	0.64	1.92
1889	0.33	0.40	0.66	1.83
1890	0.07	0.03	0.60	1.75
1891	0.87	0.85	0.83	2.32
1892	8.10	9.36	1.05	2.82
1893	9.96	12.66	1.36	3.42
1894	2.93	3.94	1.25	3.42
1895	0.30	0.31	1.42	3.54
1896	2.44	3.75	1.96	3.64
1897	9.46	14.03	3.49	6.38
1898	0.40	0.41	4.50	7.24
1899	0.27	0.27	4.76	7.24
1900	0.02	0.00	4.00	6.22
1901	0.02	0.00	3.29	5.03

Note: In the figures for dysentery after 1922, those of "Ekiri" are included.

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	Smallpox		Diphtheria	
	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes	Cases per 10,000 inhabitants	Deaths per 1,000 deaths from all causes
1902	0.01	0.01	3.28	4.50
1903	0.02	0.01	2.99	4.48
1904	0.25	0.25	2.68	3.89
1905	0.06	0.00	2.77	3.86
1906	0.10	0.11	2.92	4.38
1907	0.21	0.48	3.01	4.22
1908	3.51	5.67	3.46	4.93
1909	0.01	0.00	3.63	4.65
1910	0.02	0.01	3.78	4.92
1911	0.04	0.03	3.93	4.79
1912	0.00	0.00	3.72	4.59
1913	0.02	0.04	3.65	4.88
1914	0.09	0.10	3.42	4.16
1915	0.00	0.00	3.62	4.31
1916	0.05	0.04	2.94	3.33
1917	0.91	0.97	3.12	3.65
1918	0.26	0.19	2.77	2.58
1919	0.72	0.57	2.54	2.30
1920	0.57	0.58	2.71	2.38
1921	0.16	0.16	2.56	2.72
1922	0.12	0.06	2.38	1.65
1923	0.33	0.29	2.18	2.38
1924	0.29	0.21	2.22	2.53
1925	0.07	0.07	2.32	2.79
1926	0.21	0.15	2.26	2.89
1927	0.06	0.08	2.48	3.04
1928	0.12	0.09	2.83	3.30
1929	0.02	0.01	3.13	3.60
1930	0.00	0.00	2.88	3.25
1931	0.00	0.00	3.23	3.54
1932	0.05	0.04	3.30	3.71
1933	0.06	0.05	4.25	4.42

Expenses The amount of infectious diseases prevention expenses defrayed out of the National Treasury in the fiscal year 1933 (from April, 1933 to March, 1934) was ¥1,396,983.

In addition to the above, the amount of grants-in-aid from the National Treasury for infectious diseases prevention expenses incurred by Hokkaido and the prefectures (in the cases of sanatoria for tuberculosis, by cities) was ¥1,568,064.

Tuberculosis

The following table shows the results of health examinations conducted in 1933 by the prefectural governments.

	1933	Compared with the preceding year
Estimated number of persons requiring health examination	1,835,992	47,516 (decr.)
Number of persons examined	1,526,142	84,000 (incr.)
Number of persons diagnosed as tuberculous	403	87 (decr.)
Ratio of the tuberculous per 1,000 of the examined	0.26	0.05 („)
Number of persons ordered to suspend from work	64	33 („)

Trachoma

The following table shows the result of examinations conducted by the prefectural governments during 1933.

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	1933	Compared with the preceding year
Number of persons examined	5,901,344	127,895 (decr.)
Number of trachoma patients		
Severe cases	42,392	1,327 („)
Mild cases	444,550	6,487 („)
Suspected cases	122,894	8,047 („)
Total	609,836	15,861 („)
Ratio of patients per 100 persons examined	8.85	0.40 („)
Number of patients ordered to suspend from their work	202	42 (incr.)

Vaccination

The total number of the 1st period vaccination performed in 1933 was 2,082,671 of which 1,932,762 proved positive and 87,269 negative while 62,640 were not examined of the result of vaccination. Compared with the figures of the preceding year, there was an increase of 33,107 in the total number of vaccination, and of 24,895 in the number of positive vaccination and 10,935 of negative vaccination and 2,723 cases where results not yet examined.

The total number of the 2nd period vaccination was 1,898,386 of which 1,104,957 proved positive, 761,457 negative and 31,972 yet unexamined, showing, compared with the figures of the preceding year, a decrease of 21,548 in the total number vaccinated and 61,240 in positive takes, an increase of 42,221 negatives and a decrease of 2,521 unexamined cases.

The following table gives the percentages of successful vaccinations (the percentages for the preceding four years are also given for comparison.)

			1933 %	1932 %	1931 %	1930 %	1929 %
First period	Public vaccinations	First time	96.46	96.94	96.90	96.78	96.88
		Second time	77.62	79.40	77.67	78.80	79.54
	Private vaccinations	First time	98.00	97.79	98.22	97.68	98.08
		Second time	71.22	78.70	88.24	72.88	68.15
Second period	Public vaccinations	First time	67.16	70.07	66.92	62.87	63.80
		Second time	23.55	25.84	23.60	21.61	23.60
	Private vaccinations	First time	76.59	59.31	56.10	49.86	58.99
		Second time	30.43	36.07	26.95	23.58	30.98

Special vaccinations were carried out in 1933 in Tokyo and other 28 prefectures, and the number of persons vaccinated at these vaccinations was 3,458,489.

Port Quarantine

The total number of vessels inspected in 1933 by harbour offices and temporary port quarantine stations was 19,339 Japanese vessels (with a total tonnage of 66,008,065) and 3,273 foreign vessels (with a total tonnage of 25,989,104), making a total of 22,612 vessels (with a total tonnage of 91,997,169). The total number of persons inspected was 2,288,840 of which ship's crew numbered 1,314,487 and passengers 974,353. Compared with the corresponding figures of the preceding year, the number of vessels increased by 1,147 and that of crew and passengers by 119,761. By these inspections were found 2 persons suffering from smallpox, 5 from scarlet-fever and 21 from other notifiable infectious diseases, making a total of 28 cases. (There was no death from these diseases during the year.) Compared with the preceding year, this shows a decrease of 10 patients.

Of the above mentioned vessels inspected, 10 vessels and 234 per-

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sons thereon were subjected to disinfection. When compared with the preceding year, there was a decrease of 459 vessels and 1,579 persons. The vessels subjected to detention numbered 6, being a decrease of 29 when compared with the preceding year. The destruction of rats and insects was carried out on 1,258 vessels and 5,318 rats were caught, which, compared with the preceding year, shows an increase of 91 in the number of vessels and a decrease of 348 in that of rats.

Health Examination of Prostitutes

The prostitute quarters actually existing at the end of 1933 (the term prostitute quarters does not here and hereinafter necessarily mean segregated quarters, but is also intended for convenience's sake to include all places where licensed prostitutes have been permitted to carry on their trade) numbered 476, being a decrease of 16 on the preceding year. The daily average during the year of licensed prostitutes in these quarters was 48,687, showing a decrease of 1,138 on the preceding year.

The number of health-examination offices for these prostitutes was 430, and the total number of cases examined in these offices was 2,910,837, and in 57,214 cases the prostitutes were found diseased. The ratio of cases of disease to the total number examined was 1.97 per cent. or 0.09 per cent. lower than in the preceding year. The number of hospitals (including places for treatment lacking hospital accommodations) for admitting these diseased prostitutes was 170, and the average number of times a prostitute was admitted into hospital during the year was 1.18 or 0.07 less than in the preceding year.

The following table gives the number, classified according to disease, of prostitutes in the whole country who were during the year found to be diseased upon examination. When two or more diseases are found in the same person, the one which appears first in the table is taken to be the principal disease; thus for instance, if a person is suffering from both syphilis and gonorrhoea, she is taken to be infected with the former disease and the latter is added to the number in brackets under gonorrhoea (the percentage for the preceding four years are also given for comparison).

	Number of cases in 1933	Ratio in percentage to the total number of cases of disease				
		1933	1932	1931	1930	1929
Syphilis	3,957	6.92	7.02	6.46	5.65	6.26
Gonorrhoea	26,482 (998)	48.03	49.99	52.44	53.57	50.30
Chancroid	15,847 (1,796)	30.84	30.08	27.04	26.97	28.89
Ulceration	3,694 (688)	7.66	7.14	8.21	7.49	7.38
Infectious skin-diseases	223 (59)	0.49	0.41	0.53	0.45	0.47
Tuberculosis	9 (4)	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.01	0.02
Leprosy	— (—)	—	—	—	—	—
Trachoma	1,245 (32)	2.23	2.96	4.40	3.36	3.17
Other diseases	5,755 (299)	10.58	10.98	10.10	11.75	10.21
Total	57,214					

Note: In the percentage of cases of diseases, the diseases which are found in one and the same person are taken as separate cases, so that their total exceeds 100.

Rabies

There was no case of rabies in men in 1933. (In 1931, there was one case).

The number of rabid animals reported in 1933 was 22, showing a decrease of 41 on the figures for the preceding year.

The number of persons bitten by

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rabid dogs in 1933 was 20 showing a decrease of 92 on the preceding year.

The number of persons who had preventive injection for rabies in 1933 was 3,030, showing an increase of 175 on the preceding year. Of the above number, 20 were those who had been bitten by rabid dogs, and 3,010 by animals suspected of rabies.

Bacteriological Laboratories

The number of bacteriological laboratories at the end of 1933 was 202 consisting of 142 which were established by prefectural governments, 19 by cities, 1 by towns or villages and 40 by private individuals, showing a decrease of 2 in the total number on the figures of the preceding year.

The number of bacteriological examinations made in 1933 were 3,428,637 of which those connected with the notifiable infectious diseases were 3,137,323 and those not connected therewith 291,314, showing a decrease of 234,189 in the total number of examinations on the figures of the preceding year.

(On vital statistics of the Japanese see Chapter II.)

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CHAPTER XXXIII

PROGRESS OF SCIENCE

Geophysics

Volcanic Activities in Japan during the Period between June, 1931 and June, 1934

By Hidezo Tanakadate

Tisima Zone

(a) Alaid Island

Alaid island, a conical volcano with an altitude of 2,339 m. a. s. l., is the northernmost of the Kuriles, and lies westward of the Lopatka cape of Kamchatka, as well as the islands of Syumusir and Paramusir of the Kuriles. A new volcano islet appeared close to this island.

1933. October 20—November 10, numerous earthquakes were felt at Murakami Bay in Paramusir Island, 28 km. S-E from Alaid.

On November 13, enormous smoke cloud was seen from the same bay.

1934. On January 26, when the S. S. Hakuhō-Maru, a watch boat of the Fishery Department of the Government, was passing near the island, a new volcanic islet came in sight among the eruptive scene, where the sea was more than 20 m. deep before the eruption. It was circular in shape, measuring about 200 m. in diameter and 50 m. in height, and was crowned with a large horse-shoe shaped crater. The exact site of this new islet is 155° 40′ 10″ E and 50° 50′ 30″ N, about 900 m. off the place called Itinowatasi in the east coast of Alaid island. The outbursts were intermittent at that time, emitting smoke clouds with scories in every one to two hours.

In the beginning of March, the following was reported by a naval boat "Otomari," which returned from a two weeks' cruise around the northern extremity of the Kuriles: When the boat passed close to the new islet at a distance of one sea-mile, they saw the island considerably enlarged in size and height as compared with that when it had been discovered by the Hakuhō-Maru. The volcano was circular with a diameter of 400 m. and a height about 90 m.

General aspect of the islet was dark in colour, possibly it is composed of scorious sand. The outburst was paroxymal, each time dark smoke columns rose to a height of 1.0 km. or more.

The prefectural authority of Hokkaidō named this volcano islet "Taketomi-Zima", after the name of Mr. E. Taketomi, Captain of the S. S. Hakuhō-Maru.

(b) Harumukotan (Kharimkotan) Island in the Kuriles

This volcano island lies near Paramusir island in northern Kuriles and is situated at about 154° 30′ E, 49° 6′ N. The area of the island is about 73.55 sq. km. with a length of 13 km. in NW-SE direction, and at breadth of about 8.4 km. The volcano is crowned with a large caldera in which a central cone called Harumukotan (1,213 m. a. s. l.) stands.

1931. September 3—October 8. When a watch boat of the Fishery

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Department of the Government first visited the island on September 3rd, no unusual scene could be seen there. At the time of its second visit on October 8th, however, the north-western half of the island was covered with volcanic ash. In the western coast where land-slide had occurred several times, the ash was thickest. It is probable that the volcano made an explosion in the month of September.

1933. On January 8, 4.00 a. m., an outburst took place with a huge column of dark smoke, and thereby the upper half of a volcanic hill standing at the south-eastern side of the island, was blown. The lava blocks fell abundantly on the northern part of the island, where the warehouse of the fox-farm station stands. Soon after the explosion, a tremendous tidal wave occurred along the coast of the island and thereby ice floes were carried ashore. It is said that the tidal wave attained a height of about 9 metres above sea level. In the islands of Onnekotan and Paramusir earthquakes were felt three times, tidal waves having been accompanied by each shock.

Nasu Zone

(c) Tarumai

This is the most active volcano in North Japan, but it has not shown any remarkable outburst during the past five years up to the end of 1933.

1933. On December 1, 6.24 p. m., a violent explosion took place after loud roarings which lasted about five minutes. A huge column of dark smoke rose directly above the volcano at first, then it inclined toward WNW at an altitude of 1 km. Volcanic ash rained in an elliptic area, 10 km. in extent in the north-westward direction. By this explosion the main fissure running across the dome from W to E seems to have been extended, so that the volcano became more active than before, sending enormous quantity of smoke. A new fissure appeared on the atrio surface at the eastern foot of the dome; it is a continuation of the main fissure and runs toward ENE for a distance of about 250 m. It was 7 metres wide utmost, and had a branch about 30 metres long. The fissure was active in several parts therefrom sending sulphurous gas.

The position and the course of the fissures did not much differ from those occurred in the case of the explosive eruption of 1917.

On December 5, $4^h\ 35^m\ 19^s$ a. m., a strong earthquake was registered on the seismogram of the Muroran meteorological observatory, about 65 km. SW from the volcano.

On December 6, early in the morning, two earthquakes of volcanic character were felt in Mōrap, NE foot of the volcano.

On December 11, 2.0 p. m., a big explosion with a smoke cloud.

On December 14, 10.0 a. m., after an explosion smoke column of 400 m. high stood above the crater and at 3.0 p. m., it attained a maximum height of 700 m.

The materials, including detritus, lapilli, ash, etc., thus ejected by the above-mentioned outbursts belong to two pyroxene andesites, which had been probably derived directly from juvenile mass.

It is noteworthy that the time-interval between two paroxysms in the recent eruptive period of this volcano was almost constant, being 12-13 days. By this eruption, also, the time-interval between the first paroxysm and the second was 10 days and that of the second and the third was 13 days.

(d) Akita-Komagadake

This volcano belongs to the Nasu-

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Zone and is situated in the north-east Japan. Its base consists mostly of the neogene rocks, such as shale, sandstone, marl, tuffaceous rocks, etc. The volcano rose early in the Quaternary period on the erosion relief of the above-mentioned sedimentaries, which attain a maximum height of 1,000 m. a. s. l.

The volcano is crowned with a large caldera of horse-shoe form, opening towards south-west. The major axis, which lies in the above-mentioned direction, is about 1.5 km. long. The highest peak is Onamedake (1,637 m. a. s. l.) and the next Odake (1,632 m. a. s. l.) ; both stand near the rim of the caldera and to the north of it. Two central cones, called Medake (more than 1,500 m. a. s. l.) and Yokodake (more than 1,400 m. a. s. l.) rise in the north-eastern part of the caldera.

The volcano consists of hypersthene andesite containing either common augite or olivine, sometimes both of them.

It is said that a point somewhere in the south-east of the somma had been fuming until about 1902. But the volcano was dormant from untold ages until its recent explosion in 1932.

1932. On July 20, between 1.00 p. m. and 2.00 p. m. people who were in a cottage on the eastern piano, 9 km. from the volcanic peak, heard two thundering detonations. Ash fell on the south-eastern foot of the cone.

On July 21, 6.00 p. m., in a spa called Kunimi, 2.5 km. south-east of the active scene, the ground was in strong vibration and the people heard detonations towards the peak. The weather was rainy, so that no one ventured to visit the scene of the explosion.

On July 22, 7.00 a. m. ; 23, 6-7.00 p. m., 24, 6-7.00 p. m., detonations like thunder were heard towards the peak.

On July 24, ash covered thickly the eastern foot of the volcano.

The people in the vicinity visited the crater at first on July 26, and found that the explosion occurred just in the southern foot of the central cone at the bottom of the atrio, which is 1,000-1,150 m. high a. s. l. and is covered with thick forest. By this explosion, eight or more explosion pits were formed ; five on a line trending south-west and three, which are connected with each other, on a line trending south-south-west.

The largest pit is 70 m. long, 40 m. wide and 18 m. deep.

Some pits were emitting steam gas, SO_2, H_2S, etc., towards the end of the month of July.

Big ejectamenta, scattered within a distance of 200 metres from the pits, were rarely 2 m. in diameter. The area covered with ash extended about 2 sq. km. mostly to the eastward of the pits.

The explosion materials are not likely to have been derived directly from the juvenile mass.

Some notable phenomena associated with the present explosion are as follows :

(1) The cold water spring which was gushing out near the end of the barranco, changed into carbonated one without rising in temperature.

(2) The temperature of the hot spring of Kunimi, increased considerably after the explosion. It was 36.5° C before the explosion, but soon after the outburst, viz., on August 3 it became 45° C and it was 49° C on October 6.

(3) In Kunimi spa, the flow of the spring also increased considerably after the explosion.

(4) The water quantity of a rivulet called Sirataki, which drains the atrio, decreased.

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(5) Local earthquakes were felt at the town of Oomagari, 43 km. south-west of the volcano, both before and after the explosion.

(6) The linear arrangement of the new explosion pits seems to suggest that a tectonic line lies immediately under the earth's surface.

1933. Since March 3rd, when a tremendous tidal waves occurred in the east coast of north-east Japan, the people in the vicinity of the volcano heard frequently thundering detonations from the crater.

On 23, 10.00 a. m., the ground trembled remarkably at the foot of the volcano.

(e) Asama-Yama

According to Mr. H. Tsuya, the condition of the crater in recent years has been as follows:

The crater is circular, and is surrounded by a perpendicular wall. The bottom floor is also circular with a diameter of about 300 m.

The depth of the crater was measured as follows:

254 m. in November 1931,
165 m. in October 1932,
129 m. on July 8, 1933.

In the middle of October, 1932, the crater depth was about 150 m., and a dome of red hot lava stood at the central part of the bottom floor. The rising and sinking of the dome was often clearly observed when the volcano was in an explosive activity. The height difference due to such movement amounted sometimes approximately to 50 m. in a single day. In 1933 this phenomenon could be seen no more. In the summer of 1933, a lava pit appeared at north-eastern corner of the crater bottom just under the wall cliff. The pit was 10 m. in diameter and contained red hot lava, with fragments of new lava scattered around it.

1931. On June 9, 2.10 p. m., the volcano which had been in repose since the last autumn broke its silence with an explosion, accompanying a strong earthquake.

On June 22, 3.30 p. m.; 23, 9.50 p. m., ash explosions.

On June 25, 7.00 p. m., a strong detonation and ash shower.

On June 26, 28, and 29 ash explosions.

On August 5, at 3.40 p. m., an ash explosion.

On August 6, 1.50 p. m., an explosion; 7.05 p. m., roarings and tremors accompanying an outburst.

On August 7, 3.00 a. m., red hot ejectaments of lava were hurled up in the dark sky; 3.05 p. m. a smoke explosion.

On August 10, 10.03 a. m., a smoke explosion.

On August 11, 10.00 a. m., smoke increasing; again at 4.00 p. m., an explosion with strong detonations.

On August 12, six earthquakes of volcanic origin.

On August 13, thirteen earthquakes of volcanic origin.

On August 14, from 6.00 a. m. to 3.00 a. m. next day, 376 shocks were registered on the seismogram of the Oiwake meteorological station situated at the southern foot of the volcano, while he eruption on 14th, at 11.30 a. m., was most violent for the two days.

On August 10, 8.15 a. m., a violent explosion with loud detonation. The seismogram in the Nagano meteorological station, 30 km. north-west of the volcano, recorded tremors of a maximum amplitude of 58 microns. It began at $8^h\ 13^m\ 39^s$ a. m. and continued for $4^m\ 50^s$. Large lava blocks, lapilli, sands, etc., were projected towards the east. At the Oiwake meteorological station, tremors recorded 23 times in 24 hours since 6.00 a. m. on the 19th.

In the morning of August 20 two explosions took place, each accom-

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panying an earthquake. Both earthquakes were recorded on the seismogram of the Nagano meteorological station, one which occurred at 3.21 a. m., continued for $21^m\ 4^s$, while that of 9.44 a. m. continued for 4 minutes. By the first explosion, the red hot blocks of lava were projected very far from the volcano and fired the forest at its southern foot. By the second one, the smoke column attained an altitude of 12 km. above the crater. The earthquakes occurred with the outbursts of the 19th and 20th were instrumentally registered at the Seismological Institute of the Tokyo Imperial University, about 140 km. south-east of the volcano.

By these two outbursts, the ejected lava blocks gave heavy damages to the roads around the volcano. Lava blocks of 2 cubic metres were scattered on the crater rim. The thundering sounds associated with the first explosion were audible in Gihu city, 200 km. south-west of the volcano, while the area covered with ash extended to Hida province towards the west and to Gumma prefecture towards the east.

The earthquakes, which were associated with the present explosion, and which were instrumentally recorded at the Seismological Institute of the Tokyo Imperial University, are tabulated as follows:

Date			Time of the first shock			Maximum amplitude	Period
1909	XII	7	10h	43m	55s	0.177μ	5.7s
1921	VI	4	17	06	59	0.049	3.8
1921	VI	21	17	42	17	0.104	6.2
1929	IX	18	1	08	30	0.120	4.6
1930	VI	11	8	10	44	0.025	3.4
1931	VIII	19	8	13	47	0.025	4.3
1931	VIII	20	3	21	35	0.029	4.9
1931	VIII	20	9	44	19	0.032	4.8

On August 22, at 3.00 a. m., an ash explosion.

On August 27, at 8.00 p. m., a fire column.

On August 29, at 6.00 p. m., a smoke explosion.

On September 2, 1.20 p. m., the earth shook for two minutes, then an explosion with huge detonations followed; lava blocks fell on the flank of the mountain, causing heavy damages to the villages in the vicinity.

On September 3, 4 and 5 ash explosions with detonations.

On September 6, 0.30 p. m., ditto.

On September 13, 4.00 a. m., two earthquakes at first, then an explosion with detonations. In the town of Taira, near the coast of the Pacific Ocean, 220 km. east of the volcano, fine ash veiled the sky in the early morning of the same day.

On September 1-18, 64 tremors were observed at Oiwake.

On October 21-24, 43 tremors were observed.

On October 21, 23 small explosions.

On December 8, 7.33 a. m., a great explosion took place with smoke clouds of pine form, which rose 6 km. high above the crater. The meteorological station of Maebashi, about 35 km., east of the volcano, reported that the explosion was the strongest since September, 1928.

By the air shocks, about 40 pieces of window panes were broken in Karuizawa railway station, 10 km. south-east of the crater.

The eastern flank of the volcano was covered with large lava blocks while the town of Karuizawa was showered with lapilli for 5 minutes.

In a region more than 20 km. south of the crater including three villages,

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Iwata, Konuma and Saku, the air shook very strongly. It is said that the explosion was the most violent in the last 30 years.

In the city of Maebasi, the ash shower began at 7.45 a. m. lasted for 20 minutes.

At the city of Nagano, the earth shook as large as 32 microns at maximum.

In the region of Titibu, about 80 km. south-south-east of the volcano, an air shock was felt very strongly at first, then at about 9.30 a. m. ash veiled the sky. In the city of Kumagai, 80 km. south-east of the volcano, ashes showered from 8.50 a. m. to 9.18 a. m. Ashes precipitated even in the city of Noda, 150 km. south-east of the volcano, at 8.00 a. m., and also in the harbour of Yokohama, 150 km. south-south-east of the mountain, at about 11.30 a. m.

1932. On February 15, 6.55 a. m., an ash explosion with detonations. In the city of Maebasi ashes fell between 7.50 a. m. and 9.00 a. m.

On February 18, 0.45 a. m., dark smoke emissions,—9.30 a. m., another explosion accompanied by detonation.

In both cases ashes rained in the town of Karuizawa.

On February 19 and 20, minor explosions.

On February 24, 10.24 a. m., an explosion of dark smoke accompanying showers of lapilli and ash in the eastern foot of the volcano.

At the south-eastern foot of the mountain a forest took fire by the glowing projectiles. Again at 4.45 p. m. another explosion.

On February 28, 9.15 p. m. an explosion.

Through the month of March, the crater was in an eruptive activity, throwing ash continuously. Explosions were paroxysmal on the following days: March 1, 2, 3, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 25, 26, 28, 30, 31. Among those occurred in March the more violent outbursts are described in the following lines.

On March 1, 4.00 a. m.; 3.10 p. m., 6.00 p. m., ash explosions.

On March 2, 9.10 a. m., a dark smoke explosion with showers of projectiles, among which lava blocks of two cubic metres were found on the eastern flank of the volcano. Sand and ash covered an extensive area, east of the crater, they reached the city of Takasaki, 35 km. south-east-east of the volcano.

On March 3, 9.18 a. m., an explosion.

On March 10, 10.50 a. m., an explosion with smoke columns, 1.5 km. high above the crater rim.

On March 11, 4.11 a. m., explosions with three detonations like thunder.

In the spa of Kusatu, air shocks were very strong.

On March 16, 7.00 a. m., an explosion.

On March 18, 0.15 a. m., a fire column accompanying red hot projectiles.

On March 25, 8.25 a. m., smoke clouds and showers of red heated lapilli in the region east of the volcano. At about 9.30 p. m., ashes precipitated in the city of Tokyo.

On March 30, 4.03 p. m., an explosion, ashes showered in the city of Takasaki.

On April 1, 1.25 p. m., an ash explosion.

On April 2, 3.20 p. m., an explosion.

On April 4, 4.00 p. m., an explosion.

After this explosions were observed on 13, 14, 16, 25 and 26. In the month of May, the explosions were observed on 1, 5, 8-11, 13, 16-20, 23 and 28-29, of which the followings are more important.

On May 1, 2.10 p. m., an explosion with detonations and ash showers.

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On May 4, 6.00 a. m., an outburst, accompanied by an earthquake of a maximum amplitude of 4 microns at the Nagano meteorological station.

On May 5, 5.55 p. m., a strong explosion with a heavy rain of ash on the eastern neighbourhood. In the city of Kumagai, ashes showered at about 9.50 p. m.

On May 9, 7.15 a. m., an explosion with ash shower, which damaged the mulberry plantations in the regions of Takasaki as well as Saitama, near Tokyo.

On May 11, 2.00 p. m., an explosion with dark smoke.

On May 18, 6.30 p. m., an explosion.

On May 19, 1.20 p. m., an explosion.

On May 28, 1.19 p. m., an ash explosion with detonation and fire.

On May 29, 4.28 p. m., an explosion.

In the month of June, explosions were big on the days ; 4-5, 7-10, 12-14, 24-26 and 28-30, of which, the stronger ones were as follows.

On June 24, 2.00 a. m., an explosion with tremblings, which continued until the 25th, 7.00 a. m. ; 51 tremors were recorded on the seismogram of the Oiwake meteorological station.

On June 25, 2.00 p. m., a strong explosion.

On June 28, 9.06 a. m., an explosion with detonations which were heard in the region of Titibu, 85 km. south-east of the volcano. In the vicinity the clocks were stopped by air shocks.

On June 29, 4.30 a. m., an explosion accompanying an earthquake, by which a railway train was obliged to stop for 7 minutes at a point between Oiwake and Kutukake in the southern foot of the volcano.

In the month of July, the explosions were violent on 1-3, 9-13, 15-19, 23-24 and 29-30, of which only two were big.

On July 3, 5.03 a. m., an outburst.

On July 10, 6.00 a. m., an explosion with roarings and tremblings which continued about 24 hours.

In August the frequency of tremors decreased.

On September 3, 3.00 p. m., an explosion took place with detonations, then ashes showered in the region of Matuida and Annaka near Takasaki.

After this eruption, the crater was quiet for a long time, but tremors originated in the volcano were often registered on the seismogram of Oiwake on the following days.

1932 : November 2 and December 2, outbursts.

1933 : January 9, February 5, March 8, April 11, May 1, June 6, July 10 and August 3, explosions.

1934. On January 9, 4.45 p. m., a smoke explosion with thundering sound.

On February 11, 2.00 a. m.,—7.30 p. m., in each case, dense smoke was vomitted and ash-rain followed.

(f) Kusatu-Sirane-San

As this volcano manifested a remarkable explosion in October, 1932, a brief description about the volcano will be given at first.

The volcano stands north of Asama-Yama, 25 km. from it. The base of the volcano consists of the neogene formation with gravels, shales, marls, tuffs, breccias, etc. Here and there it is penetrated by intrusive mass of porphyrites, etc.

The eruptive activity of this volcano began at the close of the Tertiary epoch. In the first stage, ash, pumice, volcanic breccia, etc. were emitted ; in the second stage, lava issued principally. The lavas of this volcano belong mostly to the two pyroxene andesites, such as quartz bearing one ; quartz-biotite-

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bearing one; biotite-bearing one; olivine-bearing one, etc.

The volcano has two peaks on the top: Moto-Sirane-San, one of the two, is the peak of the volcanic cone and is 2,176 m. a. s. l., while Sirane-San, the other, is a side cone and is 2,162 m. high a. s. l. Sirane-San stands north of Moto-Sirane-San and is joined to it with a saddle-shaped rise. The cone of Sirane is likely to be a monogene volcano crowned with a circular shallow depression, of which the diameter is about 600 m. Three combined explosion craterlets are situated in the eastern part of the above-mentioned depression, and lie on a line, running in north-west-west direction.

Each of the craterlets is circular in shape and surrounded by a steep wall except those parts where two make contact. They are called Midugama, Yugama and Karagama; Midugama (water caldera), the eastern one, is 200 m. in diameter; Yugama (hot water caldera), the central one of the three, is 250 m. in diameter while Karagama (empty caldera) the western one, is 150 m. in diameter.

On the floor of the crater bottom of Yugama, sulphur has been mined for a long time.

The history of the activity of this volcano is as follows: About 120 years ago, the volcano was fuming constantly, but since it was in repose for about 70 years.

1882. On August 6, 2.00 p. m., Yugama showed a big explosion after long repose, ejecting lava blocks, lapilli, etc. At the same time mud flowed out from the crater.

This outburst continued more than ten days.

1897, In January, roarings began and they continued with increasing intensity and frequency until the month of July.

On July 8, 4.00 a. m., Yugama manifested a paroxysmal explosion, which terminated in a short time, so that the sulphur miners could work again soon after.

On July 31, 5.00 a. m., another explosion took place in the Yugama craterlet and a sulphur miner was wounded by a barrage of projectiles. Several new pits as well as fissures were formed by this outburst.

On August 2, 2.00 a. m., and 2.30 p. m., explosions took place and a sulphur miner was wounded by the ejectaments. The activity continued until the 16th of the same month.

1900. On October 1, an explosion.

1902. On July 15, 4.00 p. m., an explosion occurred on a hill standing near the saddle part between the two peaks, Sirane and Moto-Sirane.

On August 20, another explosion.

On September 4, an ash explosion.

On September 17, 1.00 p. m., an explosion occurred continuing four days.

On September 23, and 24, explosions.

1905. In October, explosions.

About in the year 1910, the water of Yugama lake was boiling. The water temperature of the lake measured in the year 1916, showed 50°C and the several subaqueous pits were spattering water spray on the surface.

1925. On January 22, an explosion occurred and thereby a fissure, 20 m. long and 7 m. wide, was formed on the wall of the craterlet of Yugama.

1927. On December 29, 7.00 a. m., an explosion and 30, 9.00 a. m., roarings: and 31, 11.00 a. m., an ash explosion. (In the former note in the Japanese Journal of Astronomy and Geophysics, Vol. IX, No. 1, these explosions are described as the events of 1928, but they must be corrected as those of 1927.)

1932. On October 1, 1.54 p. m., an explosion took place in the Yu-

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gama craterlet, and lava blocks, lapilli were ejected and mud flowed from a new pit. Twenty miners, who were working just at the moment of the eruption in the floor of the crater bottom, came under a barrage of projectiles, and two persons were killed and seven were wounded.

On October 4, 2.30 p. m., an ash explosion.

On October 6, 3.00 p. m., an explosion.

On October 8, 6.40 a. m., a minor explosion.

On October 14, 3.00 a. m.; 16, 7.40 a. m.; 18, 9. 20 a. m.; explosions.

On October 23, 10.25 a. m.; an outburst took place and it continued until the evening. The explosion was paroxysmal in character, and the smoke column attained sometimes an altitude of 13 km. above the crater.

On October 24, about 10.30 p. m., an ash explosion.

On October 27, 9.03 a. m., a small explosion.

During the month of November, ash-rain fell at the spa of Kusatu, on the eastern foot, 6 km. from the Yugama craterlet.

By these explosions, ten pits were newly formed: 7 of them. on the north-eastern wall of Yugama and the other on the southern shore of the lake in the same craterlet.

On November 4, 20, 23, smoke quantity augmented.

On December 18, 19, a smoke explosion.

1933. On January 7, 20, smoke increased.

On March 8, 15, 31, smoke clouds.

On April 1, smoke clouds.

On June 5, 4.00 p. m., smoke increased.

On June 11, in the morning, smoke.

On August 1, smoke clouds.

On September 7 and 18, smoke clouds.

Norikura Zone

(g) Yakedake

1931. On June 18, 11.40 a. m., an explosion took place on this volcano for the first time since May, 1927. A new crater pit, about 60 metres in diameter, was formed on the western flank of the dome at the top of the volcano, and the lava blocks of every size were scattered in the vicinity of the crater. At about 1.30 p. m., the explosion terminated.

On June 23, 2.30 a. m.—11.00 a. m.; strong explosions with rumblings and ash-rains.

On June 24, 2.51 p. m., an explosion.

1932. On February 4, smoke increased.

On February 6, 10.35 a. m., a dark smoke column, with detonations and ash precipitation at the western foot of the volcano.

Fuji Zone

(h) Hakone

1933. On May 10, 2.0 p. m., a solfatara in the Oowakidani crater exploded with a big detonating sound. As the labourers of the spas of Hakone were working near the solfataras to put conducting pipes of hot water under the ground, mud gushed up from a new pit suddenly about two metres high. A workman happened to come under the heated mud and died. The activity terminated with this single explosion.

(i) Miharayama in Oosima

1933. From the beginning of October the explosive intensity was increasing, and red hot lava was gushing out on the crater bottom. On October 14, early in the morning, an outburst took place with detonating sounds. Since that day the roar-

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ings were heard very often and sometimes fire could be seen above the crater in the night.

1934. On April 18, 5.0 p. m., dark smoke covered the summit after weak rumblings. The smoke eruption continued about one hour. The eruption seems to have occurred in the following way; a part of the crater rim slipped down and the avalanched detritus pressed the surface of the lava lake on the bottom so as to cause an outburst.

(n) Iwōzima volcano

According to a newspaper, the following eruption is likely to have occurred. "On April 2, 1934, 6 p. m., the volcano Iwōzima manifested an explosion all at once in its old crater and a new pit was formed thereby." On this eruption, we can say nothing about the exact position of the volcano, as the name Iwōzima is ambiguous.

Aso Zone

(j) Aso volcano

Aso is the most active volcano in South Japan; it has repeated eruption very frequently since remote time. The active crater lies on the top of Nakadake, one of the central volcanoes in Aso caldera. The diameter of the crater is about 1 km. from N to S and about 400 m. across. The crater contains three craterlets divided by two ridges; they are called the north crater, the middle crater, and the south crater. The north crater consists of two craterlets; the northern and the southern. For the sake of convenience let us call them as follows; the first, the second, the third and the fourth crater respectively instead of the northern craterlet in the norh crater, the southern craterlet in the north crater, the middle, and the south.

The eruptive centre of Aso volcano seems often to change its site. It was in the first crater in the beginning of the present century; later the fourth became active for about twenty years up to about 1930. Recent eruptions have been occurring again in the north crater, while the south is at present dormant, containing water in it.

1931. On August 18, clouds of white smoke were vomitted from the base surface of the south crater.

1932. In March, both craters, the second and the fourth, were filled with water.

In June, the first crater showed a minor explosion with rumbling sounds.

On June 27-28, mud explosions in the same crater.

On September 4, 11.00 a. m., an ash explosion accompanied by roaring sounds took place at the corner of the fourth crater.

On November 8, a smoke explosion.

On November 19, an ash explosion.

On November 24, explosions.

On November 25, 7.10 a. m., eruption was paroxysmal in its character and took place periodically every 10-15 seconds, and by the paroxysms dark smoke columns were vomitted, attaining sometimes an altitude of 200 metres above the crater rim. Large scoria were scattered near the crater while volcano sands called "yona" fell in the vicinity. By this eruption new pit, about 15 m. long and 5 m. wide, was formed on the bottom of the first crater.

On December 7, 1.07 p. m., after a big detonation, fire columns stood high in the sky, red hot scoria having been ejected up to a height of 300-400 metres above the crater rim. Each eruptive paroxysms continued about 5 minutes with an intervening repose of 10-15 seconds. A new

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pit was formed on the north-western part of the wall of the craterlet.

On December 9, in the night, the air shoock very strongly on the flank of the volcano about 1 km. from the crater.

1932. On December 16, from the evening to the morning of the next day, explosions were very violent accompanying prolonged detonation like thunder.

On December 17, 0.58 p. m., 1.20 p. m., and 2.12 p. m., after strong detonations red hot scoria were ejected as high as about 300 m. above the crater rim. By the explosion of 2.12 p. m., large lava blocks were thrown up; one 3 m. in diametre was found within a distance of about 300 m. from the crater. In the night, the column of red hot scoria illuminated the vicinity.

On December 18, 7.30 p. m., heavy showers of scoria fell on the crater rim and some tourists who visited the active scene just at that moment, were wounded by the ejectamenta.

On December 20, the eruptive force reduced remarkably.

1933. Since January, the lake water in the second crater diminished.

On February 11, a new pit, 30 m. in diameter, was formed by an explosion at the western rim of the second crater and hot mud of dark gray colour was gushing out from it.

On February 15, 6.40 a. m., an explosion.

On February 22, another pit was formed in the second crater.

On February 24, strong explosive paroxysms with detonatic sounds took place in every 2-3 seconds. As the period of paroxysms became longer, the eruptive force augmented more and more, until a large block of lava, 6-8 m. long and 0.5 m. thick, was thrown to a distance of 600 m. from the crater. Even scoriaceous lava block with 1 m. diameter was ejected often to a distance of 1.2 km. while smoke column attained sometimes a height of 1 km. above the crater rim.

As soon as the maximum force of the outburst was reached on this day, the activity of the second crater became remarkably feeble. At the same time the eruption of the first crater increased rapidly.

On February 26, 27, terrific outbursts continued.

About February 28, the first and the second craters were simultaneously active with equal intensity of eruption, vomitting abundant quantity of smoke illuminated by the electric flashes.

On March 1, the first crater was more active than the second.

On March 3, the eruptive intensity of the first crater began to diminish.

On March 9, 4.00 p. m., the second crater again became more active than the other.

According to the seismogram of the Aso Volcanological Observatory, which belongs to the Kyoto Imperial University, and is situated 7.5 km. westward from the crater, the amplitude of the explosive earthquakes responsible to the first crater was gradually increasing from the beginning of December, 1932 and culminated 0.3 microns at maximum on about the 30th of the same month. It must be noted that the maximum amplitude was reached after the explosion intensity attained its maximum on December 17.

As regards the activity of the second crater, the amplitude of the explosive earthquakes increased rapidly on February 24, and the next day it attained a maximum of more than 70 microns, but again decreased abruptly. The time of the maximum intensity of the eruption and that of the maximum amplitude of earthquake thus coincided exactly in the

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present case.

By the above mentioned eruptions of the first and the second craters, the scoriaceous ash, or "yona" fell on an extensive area even at a distance of 100 km. northwards from the crater. The large blocks of scoriaceous lava was spread around the crater and reached a distance of 1.2 km.

According to Mr. Kawano of the Tohoku Imperial University, the ejecta including lava blocks, scoria, lapilli, ash, etc., is basaltic andesite containing about 52% of SiO_2.

On April 6, the second crater exploded.

1933. On May 1-2, explosions in the second crater.

On May 3, an ash explosion in the first crater.

On May 3-5, the eruptive centre removed to the second crater, and the outburst was intermittent. In the night of the 5th, the ground shook strongly.

From the 6th, the paroxysmal explosions in both craters continued to the end of the month, and by each paroxysm, dark cloud with electric lightning and red hot scoriaceous lava were thrown up sometimes 250 m. high above the crater rim.

On May 18, 7.00 p. m., outbursts, with strong detonation and red hot scoria hurled out occurred in both craters, the first and the second.

On August 8, explosive intensity of the first crater increased towards the middle of the month, since then, again abated gradually.

On August 26, the activity of outburst was renewed; the smoke often attained a height of 1.3 km.

In August the second crater was quiet while the fourth crater was replaced with water, white fume rising from the centre of its surface as high as about 100-150 m.

On September 8, the small lake in the fourth crater became ramarkably shallow.

In September, explosions occurred in the first crater on the days; 2, 3, 5, 9, 24, 25 and 28, of which that of the 24th was big.

On September 24, 7.00 p. m., a paroxysmal explosion with 2-3 hours' period and followed by strong showers of red hot scoria and sands.

Kirisima Zone

(k) Kutinoerabu

This island volcano belongs to the Kirisima Zone and is situated in SSW of Satanomisaki, the southernmost cape of the island of Kyusyu, and 12 km. west of Yaku-sima island. It is about 12 km. long in NWW direction and 5 km. across. The volcano has two peaks, Hurudake, the highest, is 649 m. a.s.l. and the other Sindake, 640 m. a.s.l. Sindake, or the new peak, has many solfataras in its crater, sulphur mining having been operated there.

The recent eruptive scene is the crater of Sindake, which lies at 130° 138′ E and 30° 27′ N.

Among the records on the past eruptions, those of 1841 are to be regarded as authentic.

1841. On May 23, an outburst.

In August, a big explosion occurred and enormous quantity of ejectamenta was thrown out, thus devastating the villages at he western foot of the volcano, such as Motomura, Mukaehama, etc.

It is said that about 28 years ago roarings and tremblings were felt by the islanders.

1914. On January 5, just one week before the great eruption of Sakurazima, a part of the crater wall of Sindake avalanched, accompanying roarings and smoke emissions.

1931. About March 20 and following one week, roarings and tremblings took place very often.

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On April 2, about 7.00 a. m., noon and 3.00 p. m., sulphur miners on the mountain felt violent shocks of the ground with thundering sounds.

After the labourers had left the mountain, strong rumblings were heard at about 3.45 p. m. and 6.48 p. m., and finally 7.44 p. m., a disastrous explosion took place. Dark smoke columns with electric lightnings stood high in the sky, detonations were heard and soon after a heavy shower of ejectamenta including ash and lava block followed. The explosion terminated with this single paroxysm, but four tremors were recorded on the seismogram of the Kagosima meteorological station, 135 km. north of the eruptive scene, on the day of the outburst.

By the explosion of 7.44 p. m., the thunder-like detonations were heard in some islands near Kutinoerabu and even at Makurazaki in the Province of Satuma, 92 km. away from the crater. Ashes spread over the island, especially thick on an elliptical area including the Mukaehama at the north-western foot of the volcano. Vast area of the mountain flank was devastatel by the flows of lava blocks of every size.

On May 15, an explosion.

On June 6, 3.30 p. m., another explosion.

On June 22, 7.00 a. m., an outburst began with big detonating sounds, ash rain having soon after followed it. The villages of Mukaehama and Yumukai were covered with ash 1.5 cm. thick.

1932. On July 23, eruptive activity was reported.

1933. Since the middle of December, the temperature of the solfatara in the Sindake crater increased remarkably.

On December 23, in the evening ashes rained slightly in the vicinity. In the night some fishers on board the fishing boats saw fire phenomena on the summit.

On December 24, 2.00 a. m., some people observed a weak fire phenomena above the crater. At 4.10 a. m., a disastrous explosions took place with awful detonating sounds; it continued about 10 minutes. Huge columns of dense smoke rose about 600-700 m. high above the crater, electric lightning illuminating them.

Ejectas were abundantly projected towards SSE; 8 persons became victims. A hamlet called Nanakama, 1.5 km. away from the crater was burnt by fire caused by glowing blocks of lava, while an immense area of forest was completely devastated.

On December 27, 1.00 p. m., an ash explosion.

On December 31, 8.30 p. m., an explosion took place for several minutes, accompanying thundering detonations. Dense cloud of smoke rose on the crater causing the rain of ejectamenta in the vicinity.

1934. On January 11, 4.15 p. m., a strong explosion occurred after roarings. At first it strongly thundered three times, then the cauliflower of dark smoke with electric flashes rose as high as 1 km. above the crater. Ashes fell to the east on the sea and reached Yakusima Island, 15 km. east of the crater.

Two volcanologists, Profs. T. Matumoto and F. Homma, were, just at the moment of the outburst, standing on the eastern flank of the volcano, where they experienced heavy shower of ejectas.

After this outbreak, the explosive activity abated rapidly.

On January 12, 6.00 a. m., ash precipitated in Yakusima and at 1.13 p. m., dark clouds veiled the summit.

According to Prof. F. Homma of the Kyoto Imperial University, the times of outbursts during the last explosive period coincided with those of high tide in the locality. Further,

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the explosions took place almost always one or two days after it had heavily rained on the mountain.

Considering that the ejectamenta including ash, sand and lapilli are all pre-existing materials, the outbursts of the recent period of eruptive activity of this volcano may be regarded as belonging to the ultra-volcanian type.

(l) Subsidence of the bottom of Kagosima Bay (Ahira Caldera) in Kyusyu

1931. In the month of June, it was reported that a part near the village of Sirahama, on the northern coast of Sakurazima, the sea bottom subsided remarkably.

The depressed part lies about 20 metres off the coast in the time of the high tide and 4 metres in the ebb time. The area is somewhat circular with 36 m. diameter, and now it is 6 metres deep below the low tide level; the subsidence amountd to about 4 metres. It lies in the submarine part of the piano of Sakurazima volcano, which is the central cone of the caldera of Ahira (this name is proposed by Prof. T. Matumoto for the circular depression of the northern end of Kagosima Bay), and is situated in the subsided region due to the great eruption of Sakurazima in 1914; so the depression phenomenon seems to be of volcanic origin.

(m) Subsidence of the bottom of Toya lake in Hokkaido

1932. On May 19, in the morning, a part near Muko-Toya village and off the northern coast of Toya lake about 40 metres from the shore, the water was bubbling. According to the result of sounding, an elliptic area 100 metres long from east to west and 60 metres wide subsided as much as about 11 metres, and it is 13 metres deep at present.

At the end of May, the water temperature was 11°.3 C in the subsided part while it was 5°.5-7°.3 C in other parts of the lake, the normal temperature of the lake water in the month of May being 5°.0 C or thereabout. Lake Toya is situated in the caldera of the same name, its central part and southern rim having been the scenes of volcanic activity since the caldera formation. The islands in the central part of the lake are volcanic domes of the post-caldera time. Volcano Usu on the southern rim of the lake basin is now active; its eruption in the year 1910 is very well known by volcanologists. The present depression phenomenon of the ground, therefore, seems to be of volcanic origin.

Concluding remarks

The volcanic activities so far mentioned may be grouped into the types as follows:

1) Ultra-volcanian type of eruptive explosions. This type has been manifested in recent years by many volcanoes as, for instance, Kusatu-Sirane-San, Akita-Komagadake, Kutinoerabu, etc.

Among these outbursts, that of Akita-Komagadake is notable, though the explosion was of minor strength. This volcano had been dormant since untold ages up to the recent outburst, which occurred suddenly on the bottom of its large caldera without any premonitory sign. The scene of the explosion has been covered with thick forest, and the outburst occurred in linear fissures.

The minor outbursts such as those of Mihara-Yama, Hakone, etc., seem apparently to belong to the present type, and they are merely simple superficial phenomena having no connection with the inner mass.

2) Volcanian type of eruption. Many minor explosive paraxysms of Asama-Yama belong to the Volcani-

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an type, the ejectamenta including lava blocks, lapilli, ashes, etc., being derived from both origins the secondary and the primary. Some strong eruptions of the volcano seem to belong to the Strombolian type, projectiles in this case being regarded to be of primary origin.

The explosions of the volcanoes of Tarumai and Yakedake are for the most part of Volcanian type. Each volcano has a lava plug in its crater, while the explosions occur in the fissures which run across it and from which lava fragments are thrown out. But in some violent outbursts the ejectamenta seem to be of juvenile character.

The eruptions of the island volcano Harumukotan in the Kuriles possibly belong to the present type.

3) Strombolian type of eruption. Volcano Aso in Kyushu manifests this type of eruption, red hot scoriaceous lapilli, sands and ash being ejected from the crater in each eruptive paroxysm.

The new volcanic islet near Alaid seems to be built up by dark scoria, products of the eruption of the present type. The eruption of the island volcano Uraccas in Marianas in recent years is said also to be of the same type.

4) The depression phenomena of a part of the bottom in the calderas of Tōya in Hokkaido as well as of Ahira in Kyushu are most remarkable. It may possibly be that the subsidence process in the course of caldera formation is not yet terminated in those places.

Botany

A Contribution to the Knowledge of Regeneration in Higher Plants

By Kinzirō Kakesita

The author has induced the regeneration in Bryophyllum calycinum and B. crenatum even in the leaves attached to the stems, which consists in the formation of new roots and shoots in the notches. The methods were the warm-bath treatment, and the confinement which H- or N-gas for a certain time. According to the author's view, such treatment will induce the anaerobic respiration, and its products act as stimulants for the regeneration. In fact the author could induce this process by the injection into stems and leaves of certain products of anaerobic respiration, especially acetaldehyde and ethyl alcohol. Further, the author could ascertain the accumulation or formation of acetaldehyde, alcohol and organic acids in the attached leaves subjected to the above treatments.

Botanical discoveries on the Citrus flora of China

By Tyōzaburō Tanaka

The paper is concerned with the description of the results of studies by Western and Japanese authors, incl. those of the author himself. The introduction of various Chinese Citrus forms into Europe as well as Japan is described. As to the Citrus flora of China the author's general conclusion is : in the southernmost region of the Chinese coast citrons, lemons, sweet oranges, shaddocks, and large-fruiting mandarins are predominating. Towards the north the lemons disappear, and large-fruiting loose skin oranges as Ponkan and Tankan take the lead. Still towards the north the citrons disappear and small-fruiting mandarins become important. In the northernmost region only hardly species like Citrus junos and small-fruiting mandarins exist while others disappear.

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Plants susceptible to dwarf disease of rice-plant

By Teikichi Fukushi

It is well known that certain virus diseases are transmitted by the agency of some leafhoppers. The auther tried to study experimentally the transmission of dwarf disease of rice by the agency of the leafhopper, Nephotettix apicalis var. cincticeps. It was found that Panicum miliaceum, Echinochloa crus-galli Beauv. subsp. colona var. edulis Honda, Alopecurus fulvus and Poa pratensis are subject to the attack of the virus of the rice-plant. But corn, Italian millet, barely and Sorghum gave negative results, so far as the author's experiments have shown. These plants are inappropriate as food of the leafhoppers, for the latter could live on them simply for 15 days to die sooner or later.

Studies on the influence of ultra-violet rays on the physiological activities of Azotobacter I. On the lethal action

By Arao Itano and Akira Matuura

The authors have studied the influence of ultra-violet rays on Azotobacter chroococcum by using the mercury lamp of Hanovia. The variation of the intensity of ultra-violet ray during the experiment was so, that the discolouration of acetone methylene blue was 3.0-2.5 after one hour, and by the molybdic acid method aH (activated hydrogen) was 2.1-1.6 after 10 min. Though the intensity of ultra-violet rays is variable according to the distance between the light source and the object of which the influence of rays is to be studied, yet in the authors' experiment the difference of the intensity in different distances was not very great. The plate culture of Azotobacter in Petri dish of hard glass does not die after 2 hours; that in "Acme" ultravit glass for 1 hour grows very weakly and dies after 2 hours, while that with no cover dies after 30 seconds. The liquid media culture in quartz test-tube dies after somewhat more than 5 minutes, the number of bacteria being greatest after 5 seconds, even greater than in the control. In liquid media culture in ordinary Erlenmeyer's flask of hard glass we see the decrease of the individual number, the quantity of fixed nitrogen as well as of pH, but not the death. Both in plate and pure culture the exposition of bacteria to ultra-violet ray for a short moment stimulates their activity.

Matsudake of Japan and America

By Kogo Togashi

The study of an American mushroom which the Japanese living in the Pacific border, Oregon and Washington use to identify with the famous Japanese Matsudake (Armillaria Matsutake) revealed the fact that it is really Armillaria ponderosa (Peck. Sacc., Syn. A. arenicola Murrill, A. magnavellaris Murrill). Both are very similar to each other, but in the American species the cap is much paler in colour and the development of scales less significant than in the Japanese one.

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Geology and Geography

On the Use of Standard Glass Powders in Refractive Index Determinations

By Teiroku Sueno

The author proposes the use of standard glass powders in refractive index determinations with the microscope. By this method the refractive index and the dispersion of the immersion liquid can be determined simultaneously with those of the crystal mounted on the microscope stage, without the Abbe refractmeter. The method of preparing the standard glass is also described in detail.

The Stratigraphy and Structure of the District Northeast of Heijō, Korea

By Susumu Matsushita

The district northeast of Heijō is composed of the gneiss system, Shōgen system (Proterozoic), and Chōsen system (Cambrian and Ordovician). The gneiss is intrusive into the Shōgen system (lower, mica schist; upper, limestone and dolomite), which is overlain unconformably by the Chōsen system (lower, phyllite; upper, limestone and dolomite). The Shōgen and Chōsen systems, which generally dip northeast, are believed to have suffered overturned folding. The age of the folding may be supposed to be late(?) Trias, because the Chōsen system, on which the Heian system (Anthracolithic and Trias) rests unconformably, is covered unconformably with the lower Daidō formation (Lias). There are two low-angle thrusts, dipping NW or N, and affecting all the formations above stated. The thrusting is believed to be due to the late Jurassic disturbance. The high-angle faults (chiefly normal), which formed later than the thrusts, run in three directions: E-W, NNE, and NNW, those in the NNW direction being important. Since dykes of quartz porphyry intruded along the NNW fault line at the end of the Cretaceous, the age of the main faultings is concluded as being late Cretaceous.

Shore Profile of the Pacific Coast of NE Japan

By Sadao Yamaguti

From the numerous shore profiles represented along the Pacific coast of northeastern Japan we can read the crustal movements that have affected these regions.

It was not only once that the land rose and sank. The depth of submergence of this region, that is, of an ancient mouth, was measured from a point in reference to which the profile of the bay bottom changes its angle of inclination. Besides policyclic crustal movements there were differential movements. While one region had upheaved in a straight line by mere tilting, another had deformed in a series of elevations and depressions, resulting in a wavy surface, at the junction of which two forms of crustal movements or the existence of a flexture axis may be inferred.

In this paper, the coastal profiles of the northern half of the Kitakami district and the sea bottom profiles, or their differentiated curves, alone are given.

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Engineering

The Process of Creep of Metals

By Atumaro Simizu

By combining a mechanical lever or mechno-optical device with a rotating drum, more minute time-elongation curves for steel and aluminium were obtained with a magnification of deformation of 100 or 180 times. Summarising the results, the author holds that creep is not a mere plastic flow of metal, as generally expressed, nor is it a mere repetition of sudden yielding, depending only on the temperature; but an alternate repetition of two kinds of deformation.

On the Bottom Structure of Steel Ships

By Teruo Ono

The paper consists of two parts: 1. Standard for the strength of floor girders. 2. Spacing of transverse strength bulkheads or of compound floor girders. The conclusions is.

1. The modulus of resistance of the floor girder, either of signal bottom or double bottoms at the centre line of a ship ought not to be less than that of a freely supported straight beam of constant cross section, and of a length equal to the moulded breath of the ship, carrying uniform load corresponding to a head of water equal to the light draught of the ships.

2. The spacing of transverse strength bulkheads or compound floor girders should be decided on the bases of the strength of floor girders, longitudinal bottom girders and number of longitudinal bottom girders, and further in cases where skeleton floors are fitted, the spacing of solid floors should be taken into account.

3. In cases where bilge bracket is dispensed with in single bottom, great care must be taken with regard to construction of the floor girder as a whole.

A Study of Wave Formation and Water Flow Contiguous to the Bottom Surface of Seaplane Floats

By Tetsuo Miki

Two pairs of seaplane floats were tested in an experiment tank, and plan view of the bow waves photographed. As the actual flow lines were obtained by towing the models while the coat of white paint on the bottom surface of the floats was still wet, the streak traces were shown quite clearly. The water lines during gliding could be ascertained. The hydrodynamic lift was deduced by substracting the computed hydrostatic buoyancy from the total force acting upward.

Water at the bow rises along the bottom surface forward to the head of the float and is then thrown sideways. The bow sheet forms the undesirable dirtiness, which often accounts for damaged propellers. The whole sheet around the floats takes the form of butterfly wings, the roots of which are the crests of the bow wave.

Discontinuity, if any, in the resistance curve appears to be the difference between water resistance and air resistance at the back of the step. As to the symmetry and form of the flow lines at the bottom, little difference was found between the single float and the twin float arrangement.

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The Effect of Temperature on Strength of Wood

By Tuneo Inokuty

Impact bending tests were carried out on specimens of spruce and plywood between the range of temperatures from +60°C. to −60°C. Results show that in both spruce and plywood the mechanical properties change with variation of temperatures. Thus the absorbed energy shows a minimum between 0°C. and −10°C., and the equivalent modulus of rupture increases almost linearly with decrease in temperature. Moreover prolonged cooling produced no difference in the results as compared with those cooled for a short time. It was also observed that test pieces which were first cooled and then restored to normal temperature regained their original properties.

A Design Formula for Ailerons

By Taichiro Ogawa

In the design of control surfaces of an aeroplane there is an element of risk in that the designer has only his own experience and the judgement of test-pilots to rely on. In this paper, the constant initial angular acceleraion is calculated for an aeroplane flying with minimum velocity, and rolling soon after the aileron has been suddenly actuated. The conclusion is that control surfaces should be so designed that the angular acceleration shall be greater than the mean value of the angular acceleration for that class in which the aeroplane belongs.

Precautions against Thunder-Storm Disturbances in Electric Power Transmission Systems

By Kurakichi Takasawa

The Tokyo Electric Light Co. and a number of other companies that supply electricity in the districts of Tokyo and Yokohama decided to take precautions against disturbances caused by lightning in electric power transmission systems, by arranging with the Central Meteorological Observatory to receive due warnings of approaching thunderstorms.

This plan came into operation in 1929. In an area of about 75,000 square kilometres with Tokyo City as centre, 233 stations for observing thunder-storms were selected from line-men's quarters of transmission lines, generating stations, and substations, as Thunder-Storm Stations. Operators in these stations, besides their routine work, were assigned to observe thunder-clouds and thunder-storm in compliance with the thunder-storm code provided by the Central Meteorological Observatory and to report to the Observatory, who would issue warnings of thunder-storms, and their intensity and direction of travel to enable provisions being made for emergencies.

In case of need, the transmission systems were to be divided into as many small units as possible, so that the extent of damage and the range of disturbance caused by lightning strokes could be reduced. In this way, remarkable improvement in electric service was effected by carrying out appropriate emergency measures beforehand.

The paper describes the characteristics of thunder-storms, gives statistics of accidents caused by lightning strokes on the six principal transmission systems of 110 kv. and 154 kv.

The Electrical Companies, by inaugurating this system of thunder-storm forecasting, have not only derived great benefit from it, but have also helped to clarify the gen-

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eral local characteristics of thunderstorm generation and their course of travel.

On the Vapour Pressure of a Mercury Lamp

By Tsunesaburo Asada

Measurements made of the vapour pressure of mercury in a vacuum quartz mercury lamp while it was burning, showed that the vapour pressure was proportional to the terminal voltage, so long as the latter was kept above 60 volts, independently of current density.

A record taken with an oscillograph when the external resistance was suddenly changed, keeping the vapour pressure constant by immersing the lamp in water, showed constancy in terminal voltage, as though some current variation was found.

When, however, the same procedure was repeated with the lamp placed in air, the oscillographic record obtained showed gradual increase in voltage and gradual decrease in current with time, owing to the high temperature and consequent increase in the vapour pressure of the lamp.

On the Calculation of Total Radiation Resistance in a Short-Wave Directive Antenna

By Hikotarō Takeuchi

Total radiation resistance in a directive antenna is found by calculating the Poynting flux radiated from the antenna, while the radiated power due to mutual action of projector and reflector is also obtained by the same method. Using the value of the total radiation resistance thus obtained, the gains of a directive antenna in both front and rear directions are considered, and it is shown by graphs how the gains in each direction vary with the magnitudes of, and the phase between, the currents in the projector and reflector.

Experimental Study of Rock Drills

By Tomiji Suzuki

Upon comparing hand drilling with machine drilling, the writer found by the results obtained at the Hidachi Mine that the former method is superior to the latter, only in the case of soft rock. Judging from the general nature of rocks, he advances the opinion that drilling speed can be ascertained by the "rigidity test" and the amount of explosive required by the "Crater test", as devised by the writer, is made as follows :— a small hole 8 mm. diameter and 30 mm. deep is cut through vertically at the centre of a specimen of the rock into which a steel bar is inserted. A weight is then dropped on this bar. The height necessary for the falling weight to form a crater in the bottom of the specimen is measured. According to his experiment, the result of this test has a definite relation to the amount of explosive that will be required in actual practice.

The writer has examined the character and structure of 67 kinds of rock drills made both in Japan and abroad and estimated their comparative merits.

After laborious tests with various rock drills, he obtained the following results—The "feed clearance," i. e., the distance between the head of the piston of the Paynter's rock drill tester and the end of the bit is closely related to the length of the shank ; it is also intimately connected with the stroke of the piston hammer and general drilling efficiency. The writer also found that although some of the drills display full efficiency when the feed stroke is zero, most of them require a cer-

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tain feed clearance, i. e., a feed clearance of 4-18 mm. for a heavy drifter and one of 2-10 mm. for a light drifter ; and that whatever the working pressure, the bit must be of the same weight as that of the hammer of the drill. The depth of the uneven surface of the bottom of the bore hole was also measured and the length of feed clearance required for it dtermined.

Experiments were made with drilling speeds to find the relation between the shape of the bit, the number of revolutions of the bit, the number of blows and drilling speed, rotation torque, etc. The author studied also the question of the oil in connection with the Paynter rock drill tester and offers suggestions as to its proper use.

Lastly he measured the strengths of the blows, the number of blows, output horse-power, drilling speed, the number of revolutions, air consumption, air indicated horse-power, compressor horse-power, efficiency by tester, distance drilled per air indicated horse-power, air used per 10 cm. of rock drilled, thermal efficiency, distance drilled per compressor horse-power, etc., in connection with 23 kinds of heavy drifters, 34 kinds of light drifters, and 10 kinds of stopers and summarized the results.

As to the relation between air pressure and strength of blow, number of blows, indicated horse-power, drilling speed, and air consumption, he finds them to agree on the whole with Seamon's conclusions.

In conclusion he suggests certain necessary conditions that should be fulfilled by a good drill from the maker's point of view.

On the Auxiliary Diesel Electric Propulsion of a Large Fishing Boat

By Ritsuichi Kokubo

The Government of Formosa has completed at Mitsubishi Dock Yard, a large fishing boat, equipped with two direct-reversible four-cycle Diesel engines, each developing 340 b.h.p. at 275 r.p.m. for main propulsion.

She is acommodated with many up-to-date fishing and propelling appliances, among which the most remarkable is the auxiliary Diesel electric propulsion. In case of tunny fishing with the line-hauler, it is most desirable to propel the boat at a very slow speed, nearly that of the winding of the line-hauler. Such a small number of propeller revolutions of as 11 r. p. m. is easily obtained by Diesel propulsion.

Another great advantage or convenience is that the captain himself can manœuvre the engine by remote control from the bridge, while he is at the same time inspecting the condition of the line, whether slack or tight, the most important part of his special fishing practice.

The electric propulsion is the Leonard system, in which the electric power is supplied from the auxiliary Diesel generator of variable voltage type to the variable speed 75 B.H.P. d. c. motor, which is connected to the shaft through reduction gears and a clutch. Two clutches are provided for one propeller shaft, one of which is engaged to the main engine and the other to the auxiliary propelling motor through reduction gearing. To avoid mishandling, when one of the clutches is engaged, another is disengaged by the same operating handle.

Model Experiments with the Special Sectional Form of a Submarine Hull under External Pressure

By Ariki Katayama

The results of model experiments

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with a special sectional form of submarine hull under external pressure, as well as with the ordinary circular form are described.

The conclusions are: (1) The deflection of the special form is greater than that of the circular. (2) The buckling pressure of the shell plate of the special form is somewhat lowered by the excess compressive stress due to bending. (3) The position where the excess compressive stress occurs may be found by means of strength calculations. (4) If the special sectional form is to be adopted, it is recommended that the length of that special sectional part shall be kept as short as possible and, if practicable, the main bulkheads should be placed in such a position as will stiffen that part.

Fluctuations in the Light and Temperature of Vacuum Lamp Filaments due to Voltage Fluctuation

By Shigeo Suzuki

The author first deals with fluctuations in the light and in the temperature of a vacuum incandescent lamp when a periodic voltage is applied to the filament of the lamp in both stable and transient states. Secondly he discusses the temperature fluctuation of the same when the wave of the square of the applied voltage is in audible frequencies, giving an example of the application of this fluctuation to photophony. Lastly he describes the relation between the filament constants, as well as the amplitudes of the fluctuations of both temperature and light.

In an Appendix, the author describes also some examples of the wave form of temperature fluctuation of the filament in its stable state.

A Method for Automatic Telephone Exchange

By Takao Sajima

In the Strowger system, now in use, both the line finder and the selector must be provided with several relays, proper to each switch, in order to accomplish their functions, most of these relays being idle while the talking circuit is engaged. The author has devised a system of reducing a large number of relays and other devices, such as spark preventers, in the whole system by using a group of relays that are associated in a common control device instead of in many idle relays as in the Strowger system. Most of the parts of the mechanical system of the line finder and the selector are similar to those of the Strowger type switch, but a cam spring which is actuated as soon as the wiper shaft of the switch changes its motion from vertical steps to rotary, is provided for each switch to be ready for making the releasing circuit of each switch when the talking circuit is opened. Another feature of the system is that, for simplifying cabling between line finder and selector, the positive and negative lines are utilized for controlling the hunting motion of the line finder.

A New Mechanism for a Japanese Printing Telegraph Transmitter

By Kanji Shiraki

The author has devised a new mechanism in which the double current system is applied to the transmitter. Pushing a key-button turns the transmission distributor, selecting the corresponding mark, and directly dispatching six unit codes through the line. In this new device, in place of the old contact lever, are spacing contacts above the ton-

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gue and marking contacts under it. The tongue is attached to the operating lever. Although its right part can move upwards, its left part is interrupted in its upward movement by a pin affixed to the operating lever. When the operating lever is pressed by the locking lever, the tongue touches the spacing contact by means of a spring on the right part of it, but when it is released, the tongue touches the marking contact. The transmission distributor, which consists of eight segments and a common ring, is installed on the main axis on which the contact cam was installed in the older type. When the printing is done, the brush comes upon a segment of the stop of the transmission distributor. By means of a projection attached to the main axis, the last-named stops its sliding motion after all the tongues on the spacing contact.

Measurement of the Height of the Kennelly-Heaviside Layer in Japan

By Tsutomu Minohara and Yoji Ito

It is well known that the height of the Kennelly-Heaviside layer varies according to time and place, in consequence of which, data obtained in Europe or in America might be of slight value in estimating the height in Japan. With this in view, the authors undertook to measure the height of the K-H layer. The method employed was that of Appleton, i.e., the frequency-change method, which was the one most adapted for our laboratory.

Upon measuring the height of the Kennelly-Heaviside layer by the frequency-change method for the Tokyo-to-Hiratuka transmission (distance 49 km.), the apparent height of the layer was found to range from 80 to 200 km.; being nearly 95 km. in the day-time and about 190 km. at night. But these results were obtained when the condition of the layer was comparatively steady. In the case of unstable conditions, there was abrupt change of height. But even with this considerable fluctuation, the height still remains within the range from about 80 km. to 200 km. It was observed both in the day-time and at night that a space-wave that has travelled more than two paths can reach the receiving station, as is clearly inferred from the existence of higher harmonics. The calculated values of the apparent height of the layer from the higher harmonics recorded in oscillograms are nearly all 150 km. in the day-time; and about 400 km. at night, when the condition of the layer is stable. It is difficult, however, to discuss from this experiment alone, whether this phenomenon is due to multi-reflection or to multi-refraction of the wave, or some other cause.

Infra-Red Communication by Means of Radiation Thermocouple

By Saburo Numakura and Hachiro Kojima

The light waves from a 50 watt automobile headlight lamp were transformed into parallel rays by lenses, and means of a Wratten filter No. 87, only those rays whose wave lengths were greater than 75 mu were transmitted. In the authors' experiments, the power consumption of the lamp was lowered to 3 watts, the infra-red rays falling on a tellurium-bismuth vacuum radiation thermocouple placed 5 metres away from the lamp.

The rays were interrupted either by a shutter or by hand, and after amplifying the intermittent thermo-

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electromotive force induced in the thermocouple by means of a three stage vacuum tube direct current amplifier, the circuit of a 1000 cycle oscillator was made and broken by a specially designed electromagnetic relay, placed in the anode circuit of the last stage, the signals being detected with a telephone connected to the oscillator in series.

The relay consisted of a permanent magnet moving coil type pointer galvanometer and an auxiliary pointer moving freely on another axis. Each free end of these pointers has a contact point which is connected to the 1000 cycle oscillator in series, while, on another side of the auxiliary free pointer, is fixed a damping vane to make its motion dead beat.

Since the free pointer is surrounded by a small loop fixed to the free end of the galvanometer pointer, the distance between these contacts is always kept so small that the make and break is made instantaneously.

The difference in the anode currents of the last stage when the ray fell and when they were cut off was about 2 mA, while the displacement of the pointer was about 3 cm. A change of about 50μA in the anode currents was sufficient to operate the relay, so that several signals could be transmitted in one second.

On the Electrodes Used in Measuring Breakdown Voltages of Impregnated Papers

By Hideo Numakura and Shōzo Yoshida

The authors devised a process for preventing the brush discharges that occur at the edges of the electrodes when measuring the breakdown voltages of impregnating papers in layers.

As upper and bottom electrodes, solid cylinders of brass 40 mm. in diameter by 40 mm. high, were used, the edges of which were rounded with a radious of curvature of 10 mm.

Bakelite varnish was applied to and baked repeatedly on the rounded edges, by which means the field strength of the edges is greatly relaxed.

By using these electrodes an almost linear relation between the breakdown voltage and the number of layers is obtained, whilst in the case of electrodes without any bakelite varnish, the breakdown voltage per layer becomes lower as the number of layers is increased.

In both cases, the breakdown test was carried out in the same compound as that used for paper impregnation.

Many experimental curves are shown.

On the Result of a Propeller-Fan Test

By Noboru Inomata

In August, 1931, a propeller fan was erected on the surface of coal mine for the Navy, near Fukuoka.

The new fan was fitted with some discarded navy air-craft propellers, arranged tandem to the fan shaft.

The results of the tests may be summarized as follows:

(1) A constant relation exists between the diameter of the fan and the mine resistance in obtaining maximum mechanical efficiency; the best results being obtained when the ratio is about 2 : 1.

(2) Within a certain range, the number of revolutions has little influenced on the mechanical efficiency, although when it is too small, say 1 or 2 propellers, we find a drop in mechanical efficiency especially at low revolution.

(3) Volumetric efficiency increase

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proportionally with equivalent orifice increase. The maximum mechanical efficiency is obtained, however, when it reaches 73%.

As for the air flow through the fan and evasee, four in efficient currents were observed, which could be greatly reduced with the aid of guide vanes and suitable contrivances.

With respect to these currents, the most interesting phenomenon is the air vortex induced by propeller rotation just before entering the first propeller, since it is closely connected with the equivalent orifice of the air passage.

This air vortex will be eliminated when the best ratio of the fan diameter to the equivalent orifice is attained.

Radio Research

On the Characteristics of Interference Surfaces of Electromagnetic

By Hideyuki Kikuchi

(1) A Group of Interference Surfaces of Electromagnetic Waves caused by the Presence of a Prolate Spheroid.

Let us assume prolate spheroid situated on the z-axis of an electromagnetic wave field that is propagating in the x direction, and polarized on the z-axis. The waves reradiated by this prolate spheroid are a train of confocal elliptic waves, polarized on the z-axis. Then the interference wave fields of maximum intensity by these two train of waves, one the reradiated elliptic waves and the other the coming plane waves, are a group of interference parabolic surfaces which deviate from ordinary parabolas.

(2) A Group of Interference Surfaces of Electromagnetic Waves caused by the Presence of a Kikuchi Electric Wave Lens.

A group of interference surfaces of electromagnetic waves caused by the presence of a Kikuchi electric wave lens is a group of enveloped surfaces consisting of many groups of interference surfaces caused by the presence of each prolate spheroidal element.

A New "Returning Type" Rotating Radio-Beacon

By Minoru Okada

(Electrotechnical Laboratory, Ministry of Communications Tokyo)

This paper describes experiments with a new type of rotating radio-beacon, having certain advantageous features that may be regarded as improvements on the one that is being used in England since many years past.

In our new system, the so-called figure-of-eight field pattern is made to rotate cyclically, turning back after each half revolution, thus enabling the bearing to be determined by observing the times of disappearance of the signal twice in one cycle. Moreover, instead of sending the signal wave continuously, we transmit 90 dots during the time that the direction of the minimum field intensity rotates 180°, i.e., 1 dot per 2°, so that instead of measuring the time, we can find the correct bearing at once by counting the number of dots from the "North-" or the "South-Signal" to the instant of disappearance of the signal.

Tests made with an experimental installation of our new system of beacons, constructed and set up at the Hiraiso Branch of the Electro-

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technical Laboratory, Ministry of Communications, which works on 315 kc. modulated at 1,000 cycles, gave very satisfactory results as will presently be shown.

Some Studies on Thunderstorms

By Hisashi Noto

(Military Scientific Research Institute, Tokyo)

In Part I of the present paper, in which the change in the electric field during the passage of thunderstorms was investigated, it was shown that the changes in the steady field were so complex that no determination of the polarity could clearly be made. In Part II, in which the relation between the direction of travel of a thunderstorm and that of wind at various heights in the atmosphere was investigated, it was found that a thunderstorm is generally dragged down by winds existing at heights of 2,000 metres and higher above the ground. In Part III, the structure of thunderclouds is investigated. The inner structure of clouds is very complex, of irregular forms, consisting of many masses of clouds separated from one another by thin clouds. From observations of lightning flashes it was concluded that the conductivity of a dense cloud is greater than that of dry air in the laboratory. From laboratory results it is estimated that about 3,000 m. above the ground the effect of barometric pressure on lightning discharges decreases 30%. The space charge density and the voltage of a cloud element due to the charge on it were calculated by assuming a certain intensity for the field directly under thunderclouds, as the volume charge is believed to be intimately related to the propagation of lightning flashes. In Part IV, the amounts of various impurities contained in rainwater and in snow are investigated, the conclusion from which is that the amount of charge separated when a large drop breaks to pieces must diminish by 50%, in which case the "breaking drop" theory may be affected to some extent. Statistics of impurities contained in rainwater from 4 places in Japan for a period of six years are included in this paper.

Ionospheric Measurements at Losap Island During the Solar Eclipse of February 14, 1934

By Kenichi Maeda

(Electrotechnical Laboratory, Ministry of Communications, Tokyo)

The author describes and discusses the results of the measurements of apparent heights of the ionosphere by the pulse method carried out at Losap Island, one of the East Calorine Islands, during the solar eclipse of Feb. 14, 1934. It is found that the ultra-violet radiation from the sun is the prominent agent of the atmospheric ionization, and the effect of the neutral corpuscle from the sun is slightly observed and ends earlier on the F-layer than on the E-layer.

The results of the measurements of electron densities in the ionosphere and the noise level in the vicinity of Losap Island are also described briefly.

As an appendix the principal results of the ionospheric measurements in North America and Europe during the solar eclipse of Aug. 31, 1932, are tabulated and compared with the results of our experiments.

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Ionosphere Heights Measured in the South Sea Islands and Radio Observations Made During the Solar Eclipse of February 14, 1934

By Tsutomu Minohara and Yōji Itō

(Naval Technical Research-Department, Tokyo)

Radio observations of the heights of the layers of the ionosphere were made by means of the pulse method at Losap Island in the South Seas during the period from February 1 to 17, 1934, especially on the day of the solar eclipse, February 14. On several days critical frequency measurements were also made.

We found considerable differences in the mode of wave propagation in the South Seas as compared with that in the Tokyo district and, as might be expected, the heights of the E-layer were somewhat lower in the South Seas than in Tokyo. The results obtained from critical frequency measurements enabled us to determine the existence of the echo region and the absorption region in the range of the middle and the short wave. In the course of our measurements, we came upon a special absorption phenomenon, which we have called the "noon phenomenon." The value of the ion density of the E-layer underwent marked changes with the progress of the eclipse. The states of the F-layer also changed and there was also anomalous rise in the layer heights. The effect of the neutral corpuscles on the ionosphere could not be observed as the frequencies employed were not quite suitable for observing the state of the E-layer at the calculated time of the corpuscular eclipse. Observationally, it did not affect the F-layer, the frequency having been merely for the observation of the F-layer.

A New System of Simultaneous Grid and Plate Modulation

By Tatuo Hayasi

(Department of Physics, Faculty of Science, Osaka Imperial University, Osaka)

In the conventional constant voltage modulation the grid of the amplifier tube is maintained at a negative potential by means of a bias battery or by a high resistance leak. The present method, however, makes use of the plate-cathode voltage drop of the modulator tube as the grid bias of the amplifier tube, resulting in grid modulation in addition to the normal plate modulation. This alternative circuit can easily be obtained by merely connecting the amplifier grid directly to the modulator cathode. After detailed explanations of the principle of this system, the results of practical experiments that were carried out on 7,100 kc. are described. So far as the degree of modulation is concerned this system gives very promising results. As there is almost no phase difference between grid modulation and plate modulation, distortion is not serious. The frequency characteristic moreover is better than in the Heising modulation system. Generally speaking, this new simultaneous modulation system seems to surpass both the conventional constant current and the constant voltage modulation systems.

On a New System of Receiving Set for Carrier Telegraphy

By Yasusi Watanabe, Zen-ichi Kamayachi and Kinshichi Kikuchi

(Tohoku Imperial University, Sendai).

This paper describes a new system of receiving set for carrier tele-

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graphy. It consists of filters, selective amplifiers, and detectors. A new circuit of an ampli-filter of resonance current type is proposed here instead of the voltage type, while for amplifier a newly devised stabilized selective amplifier is used, the good points of which are constancy of amplification value as well as a high degree of selectivity.

For experimental verification of the foregoing, experiments were made with three channels of carrier frequency within audio-frequency range, such as 3,000, 3,300 and 3,360 cycles per second.

Television Transmitting Apparatus (100-Line Television)

By Kenjiro Takayanagi, Takashi Horii, Akira Yamashita and Kiyoshi Yamaguchi (Hamamatsu Higher Technical School, Shizuoka)

An experimental television transmitter is described. This equipment, which was installed at the Hamamatsu Technical College, was used in making practical tests of the system.

A Nipkow disc, with 100 holes arranged in a spiral, is directly coupled to the three-phase-induction-synchronous motor rotating at 20 revolutions per second. The picture, therefore, is transmitted at the rate of 20 per second, and has 1-to-1 ratio of vertical to horizontal dimensions. A light-spot system of scanning was used. The flash of reflected light is arranged to fall on the spherical photocells of caesium-oxide, vacuum type ; three tubes forming a pick-up unit.

The photo-electric signals derived from the cells have to be amplified approximately 10^5 times through an eight-stage capacity-coupled-resistance amplifier. The transmission requirements are that a frequency band extending from 20 cycles to 10^5 cycles shall be equally amplified. To compensate for the loss of higher frequencies, which may arise not only through stray capacities but also through scanning itself, the amplifier has a sufficiently low output resistance, while in some stages inductances are inserted in series with the low output resistances of the amplifier. The frequency characteristic is shown in the figure, the valves used being listed in the following table.

Stage	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Modulator
Valves	Photocells	'57	'24	'24	'24	'24	'24	'2A5	'47 Parallel	203A×3

The picture transmitter utilizes a quartz crystal oscillator, driving power amplifier through frequency doublers and buffers. A carrier frequency of 7,200 kc. was used, the output of the power amplifier when measured being about 80-watts at normal operating conditions.

Modulation was made in the push-pull stage using a screen-grid valves (UV-814) preceding the power amplifier. By introducing a modulating signal in both screen-grid and plate circuit, the modulation characteristic was made practically linear. Owing to the requirement that the transmitter shall be capable of being modulated uniformly by frequencies from 20 cycles to 10^5 cycles, resistance was inserted in the plate circuit instead of modulation reactors. The circuit diagram is shown in the figure.

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A Portable B-type Ultra-Short-Wave Telephone Set

Shōemon Ohtaka, Tarō Hasegawa, Kurō Matsuda and Kunio Maita (Yonezawa Higher Technical School)

This B-type circuit is a high frequency circuit devised by S. Ohtaka, one of the writers, in which the grid-side is not connected to the biasing source as usual, but is connected directly to the plate-side through a high resistance.

The writers arranged trial sets, using two UX 12A valves in push-pull. The high frequency circuit is never changed while working as transmitter or as receiver; its plate d.c. voltage alone being changed. It oscillates when raised and detects when lowered.

Using a 5.28 m. wave and about 0.3 watt antenna power, the writers were able to communicate over a distance of nearly 30 km. on land and 20 km. on sea.

The best results were obtained with horizontal antenna for land and with vertical antenna for sea.

On an Ultra-Short-Wave Wavemeter

Hikosaburō Ataka (Meidi College of Technology, Tobata)

In the practical construction of an ultra-short-wave wavemeter for wavelengths less than three metres, there arises the following difficulty: Owing to the deleterious inductance of the lead wires that connect the condenser in the shielded case with the outer coil, the dimension of the coil become too small to measure the shorter wavelengths.

The writer has developed a wavemeter with an auxiliary coil. The principal coil of the tuning circuit of the wavemeter is connected close to the terminals of the condenser in the shielded case, while an auxiliary coil of relatively large dimensions is placed outside the case. These two systems are connected with lead wires. A resonance indicator of high impedance is inserted between the terminals of the condenser. The auxiliary coil and the lead wires therefore serve merely to introduce the induced e.m.f. into the tuning circuit, which can be constructed to resonate for wavelength less than one metre.

On the Equipments for International Radio Telephone Communication in Japan

By Toyokiti Nakagami (International Wireless Telephone Co. of Japan, Tokyo)

The conditions for selecting the sites of the sending and receiving stations are enumerated, after consideration of which it was finally decided that the sending and receiving stations be situated at Nazaki, Ibaraki profecture, about 80 km. northeast of Tokyo and at Komuro, Saitama prefecture, about 40 km. north of Tokyo.

Five crystal controlled valve transmitters are installed together with the beam antennas for telephone communications with America, Europe, South Sea Islands, Manchoukuo, and Formosa.

The design, construction and performance of the transmitters and antennas are described in detail.

Five superheterodyne receivers are installed at the Komuro receiving station, whose design, installation, and performance are also described in detail.

The antenna system installed at the receiving stations is also described, together with the performance characteristices.

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These stations are connected by cable with the Tokyo Central Telephone Office, where the Vodas equipment is installed for the purpose of connecting four wires to two wires of any subscriber.

The construction and performance of the cable are described.

The result of the field intensity measurements of the stations with which we communicate is also given.

Physics

Crack and Life

By Torahiko Terada

In the domain of physical phenomena there are a number of different classes of morphological changes which may be compared with crack formation in solid body when regarded from the point of view based on the consideration of surface energy distribution, i.e., phenomena connected with colloids, crystallization, etc. From the same point of view, some elementary biological phenomena such as mitosis and cell division may also be regarded as a kind of crack formation and the growth and differentiation of organism seems to be connected with the multiplication of the seats of surface energy. On the other hand, some discontinuous phenomena similar to crack formation seem to be of important significance in different stages of embryonic development. For example, the irregular colour patches on the skin of some domestic animals suggest that their formation may be related with a kind of crack formation in some period of the embryonic growth. This suggestion is supported in some degree by the fact that in an example of cat the coloured area when cut out and put together in juxtaposition, forms a more or less simple, say pear-shaped closed surface and, moreover, that the boundary lines of these patches thus put together show characteristic forms proper to the cracks produced on a spherical shell exploded by pressure.

Experimental Studies on Colloid Nature of Chinese Black Ink

By Torahiko Terada, Ryuzō Yamamoto and Teru Watanabe

Chinese ink in popular use in Japan from ancient time is obtained by rubbing a piece of dry water-colour called sumi, which is made by a mixture of lampblack with glue, upon the surface of a stone vessel called suzuri, filled with water. Preliminary studies of different colloidal properties of the ink are made. The average diameter of the colloid particles are estimated. Thickness of the film formed by spreading the ink upon water surface is estimated under some assumption and found to be of monomolecular size. Solidification of this liquid film by the action of electrolytes is detected and investigated by the change in form of the perforation produced by touching the film with a needle point tarnished with greasy matter. Solidification is also observed when the film is longitudinally compressed above a critical degree which is also affected by the electrolytes. The change is reversible and the solidified film is again liquefied when it is expanded to its original area. Various forms of perforation may be obtained by touching the film with a wooden tip in which the film producing materials are irregularly distributed.

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Piano Touch and Tone Measured through the Application of Recorded Sounds in Talky Film

By Ryūzaburō Taguti and Seiiti Watanabé,

(The Institute of Physical and Chemical Research)

For the past several years, we have been making accurate studies or measurements of various accoustics and phonetics through applied talky films, and publishing the results of these researches in Japanese in Tokyo since 1933. Recently we made studies on the sounds of piano and found out that there are two kinds of wave: they are transient and continuous waves.

The former, in case of piano, is a sound wave produced at the very moment the cord is touched with a hammer as well as the consonant of human sound which does not absolutely contain the vowel sounds, and does not raise any accoustic sense by itself.

We have discovered that, when the continuous wave follows up to this transient wave within 0.3 seconds, the sound of continuous waves makes an altered sound. For instance, of the waves "k" and "a" are arranged according to this law, the sound "ka" can be heard. In this way, we are able to pick up two waves, arrange the sounds artificially, and also rotate the films conversely.

Accordingly, we made a talky film of a famous Japanese ode which was sung into conversely, this was so cleverly and clearly done that no one can notice the film being rotated in a converse way.

It is very interesting to hear the musical film of piano or Japanese samisen when being rotated in opposite way.

Again, if the wave "y" is painted off from the wave "dya" recorded in sound track, the voice "da" is clearly heard. These techniques are valuable for analyzing all kinds of sound, and we have succeeded in determining the nature of the transient wave to a considerable extent.

In case of piano we have made another experiment aside from the one already cited. In order to record the time of the touch, we stained a line close to sound track by means of a glow lamp. Through the length of this line, a time to 1/1,000 second can be easily measured.

It has been discovered through the help of this line that the sound of piano begins to be produced 1/60 second after the finger touches the key. In the beginning, the transient wave is produced. When a long trailing note follows this transient wave, wthout the use of the damper, we can identify the piano by the note, or can even point out the name of the makers. In other words, the transient waves have a specific property to enable us to know the materials of which the piano is made. Such specific property manifests itself more clearly when the trailing note of the continuous waves are longer.

In the event of sounds such as cited above, pianists, no matter what a magic power his fingers may have, he cannot produce sounds other than those sounds which the makers of that piano intended to produce.

Again, the hammer of piano, at the moment it strikes the cord, keeps up contact with the cord just for the period the cord makes one cycle with its natural period. At the side to the right of C key in the centre, it keeps up the contact for more than one cycle. For that reason, points on each cord to be struck by a hammer must, of necessity, be placed near the end of the cord according as the pitch

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of the sound becomes higher. If the physical meaning of this striking point is taken as a collision between the two, it will apply to matters having a high rate of elastic property. The speed with which the hammer returns from the cord is considerably high. It has become clear that the formula of motion of the hammer is nearly the same as a parabollic equation.

The most important problem for piano is the problem of staccato. When a pianist takes off his fingers after the hammer makes the performance of striking the cord abovementioned, the damper comes out and stops the motion by holding down the cord. But since the soundwave of the piano gradually dies out within about 0.3 second the wave form of the sound is different from the wave form which was produced before the damper was set in. Moreover, these two kinds of sound waves are of different sorts. In case the touch runs from 0.1 to 0.3 second the sound waves of these two kinds reach to ears together with a certain energy, so that the waves are heard flat sound. When the touch runs shorter than 0.1 second the greater part of sound wave heard is that produced after the damper comes to hold the cord, and the sound wave produced before that, due to the fact that the time during which the sound is heard being too short, acts like the consonant of the sound wave produced after the damper catches the cord, and sends rather clear sound to the ear. Most of touches of poor pianists, being mostly longer than 0.1 second, cannot produce clear sound.

For the strong touches with straightened fingers, the speed of the damper at the moment the fingers leave the key being faster than in the case where the weaker touches are made with fingers by bending them, the sound produced by the damper when the latter holds the cord, is irritant to the ears. All of these prove that the tone of the sound produced by the piano is controlled only by one function of length of time. This makes the piano distinctively different from other musical instruments.

When a fine music is played with a piano, the volume of sound is produced with an additional factor of the angular velocity of the hammer. To this tempo is added and a finished music is reproduced.

We also had an occasion to measure this tempo from a play of a famous Japanese pianist, Mr. Motosige Iguti. In spite of his beautiful musical scale the time which each of his fingers took differed to a considerable extent, namely the difference in time when the musical scale was lowered with the right hand was as follows :

1. The time consumed when the third finger was shifted to the second finger 0.06 sec.
2. The time consumed when the second finger was shifted to the first finger 0.08 sec.
3. The time consumed when the fourth finger was shifted to the third finger 0.085 sec.
4. The time consumed when the first finger was shifted to the third finger 0.086 sec.
5. The time consumed when the fifth finger was shifted to the fourth finger 0.09 sec.

When the musical scale was raised,

1. The time consumed when the third finger was shifted to the fourth finger 0.06 sec.
2. The time consumed when the second finger was shifted to the third finger 0.07 sec.
3. The time consumed when the fourth finger was shifted to the fifth finger 0.08 sec.

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4. The time consumed when the third finger was shifted to the first finger 0.09 sec.

5. The time consumed when the first finger was shifted to the second finger 0.093 sec.

6. The time consumed when the fourth finger was shifted to the first finger 0.125 sec

were shown. Probably the music was not played under the best condition of Mr. Iguti. In spite of the variation in time, the music was satisfactory to the keenest of ears, which appeared rather peculiar. From this, it is apparent that if poor pianists play music, which is offensive to the ear, the variation in time would be unspeakably great. As the result of the above measurements, the objection was raised against us by many pianists who consider that the quality of sound depends on the manner of touch. Even much stronger objection was raised by critics of music against the theory that the quality of sound can be determined by scientific measurements. However, the fact is the same as in the instance when Galileo said: "The earth moves, though."

On the Change of Properties of Die Steels due to the Heat Treatments

By Takejiro Murakami and Atsuyoshi Hatta

The change of the transformation points of six commercial die steels, i. e., 1 non-alloying high carbon steel, 1 low chromium-high carbon steel, 3 high chromium high carbon steels, and 1 tungsten-chromium steel, has been studied by means of the magnetic analysis and differential dilatometric measurement. The measurements were made on the hardness and the abrasion loss of these steels after several heat treatments under the room temperature, and the impact hardness and the impact value at the high temperature; the microstructure of these steels has also been examined. With both the high carbon steel and the low chromium-high carbon steel, the change of transformation points due to the cooling rate or the maximum heating temperature is not so marked, while with the high chromium-high carbon steels and the tungsten-chromium steel, the change is conspicuous. The difference of the hardness among these steels in their furnace-cooled condition is slight, but that of the air-cooled state is great, according to the composition of the specimen and the maximum heating temperature. The high chromium-high carbon steels and the tungsten-chromium steel are readily hardened by aircooling from above 900°. The high chromium-high carbon steels are markedly hardened after oil-quenched and the maximum hardness can be obtained by quenching from 1000°. The hardness of the high carbon steel after oil-quenched is less than that of the other steels. With the low chromium-high carbon steel and the tungsten-chromium steel, the hardness markedly decreases as the quenching temperature rises from 900° to 1100°, owing to the increase of the residual austenite. These steels with the low hardness value show marked increase of hardness, i. e., "the secondary hardening" on tempering. The same phenomenon is observable in the high chromium-high carbon steels which are oil-quenched from 1150°. The values of the hardness measured at several high temperatures and those at the room temperature after being cooled from these temperatures, respectively, show a parallelism. The abrasion loss is small with the specimens having the large

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value of hardness. The impact value of these steels tested is generally small, especially with those of the oil-quenched, nevertheless it increases as the testing temperature rises.

On the Adsorption of Water Vapour by Magnesium Oxide

By Fusao Ishikawa and Kokichi Sano

From the results of the present investigation we have found that magnesium oxide first adsorbs aqueous vapour, and that the adsorption equilibrium is attained before the hydration of the oxide, the latter process proceeding quite slowly as compared with the adsorption process. The velocial of the adsorption of the aqueous vapour in air by magnesium oxide has also been investigated. The adsorption isotherm has been studied at 51°, the result of which may be represented by Freundlich's formula. Finally, the relation between adsorbed quantity, pressure and temperature has been studied, and the linearity between $\log P/aT$ and $1/T$ has been established in the temperature range of 9-42°.

Valence-Theoretic Calculation of Energy of Aromatic Compounds

By Hidehiko Tamaki

The combining energy of simple molecular models of ring compounds was calculated with Heitler-Weyl-Rumer's spin valence theory. The coefficient of Austauschintegral, which mainly determines the combining energy, was found for each model and divided by the number of atoms composing the molecule, in order to compare the stability among the considered molecules. Against expectation, hexagonal ring of trivalent CH-radicals (benzene) was found to be a little less stable than pair-shaped one (acethylene). It suggests that the spherical asymmetry of the atoms and their combining force, which is neglected in the spin valence theory, should be taken into account (as is done by the theory of orbital valency).

The X-Ray Examination of Selenium Crystals

By Kenzo Tanaka

Several forms of metallic selenium crystals obtained by the condensation of selenium vapour were examined by means of X-rays. The crystal of metalic selenium grows most prominently in its trigonal axis. This growth process of the selenium crystal is interpreted from the standpoint of the growth of homopolar crystals.

The degree of perfection and size of the grain of selenium crystals were estimated from the fine structure of the spectral lines obtained with convergent X-rays. The intensity distribution along the spectral line was interpreted from the intensity distribution of the primary X-rays at various starting points on the surface of the anticathode.

The transition point from the vitreous to the metallic form was determined both by X-ray examination and by measurement of the net densities.

An Investigation of Various Forms of Carbon by means of Cathode Ray Diffraction

By Mitsuwo Miwa

Improving the method of cathode ray diffraction for powered sub-

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stances, the various forms of carbon were studied. Most of the results obtained were found to be in good agreement with those by X-rays. The so-called amorphous carbon is merely a very fine form of graphite, and the lattice of graphite greatly expands in the direction of the principal axis, as the grain size diminishes, whereas the crystal lattice remains nearly unchanged in the directions perpendicular to the axis. Some characteristic results caused by the nature of cathode rays were obtained.

The magnetic susceptibility of the samples subjected to the cathode ray investigation was measured, and its relation to the grain size was also studied, finding that the magnetic susceptibility is nearly proportional to the grain size in the range of amorphous carbon.

Further Investigation of the Crystalline Structure of Electrolytic White Tin

By Hideki Hirata and Yoshio Tanaka

The arrangements of the microcrystals in electrolytic specimens of white tin, deposited from sulphuric acid solutions were examined with X-rays by the same procedure as in the foregoing investigation, which dealt mainly with those deposited from hydrochloric acid solutions. From the diffraction patterns obtained, it was found that the microcrystals of white tin have a tendency to be electrolytically deposited with the normals to their (111) faces arranged parallel to a definite common direction, as was the case in our previous research. But in some other respects, especially with regard to the direction of the growth of the deposited white tin, a few dissimilarities were observed from the results of the former experiments. The cause of such dissimilarities was supposed probably to be due to the difference in the chemical valencies of the ions in the electrolyte.

Some Experiment on Lichtenberge Discharge

By Tatsumi Terada

(1) The size of discharge-figures alter with the varying positions of a resistance which is inserted in series with the lead to the electrode. This phenomenon seems to be due to the superposition of not only an advancing wave but also of the waves reflected at some junctions in the circuit. From the experimental results, it is found that the time of the impulse wave-front in our case is about 2.3×10^{-8} secs. Some other experiments on the Lichtenberge discharge are also described. (2) The effect of self-induction upon Pedersen's short time-measurement is described and it is shown that by this method (under certain conditions) small inductions from about 0.7 to 40 microhenries can be measured. (3) A method for measuring a short time interval by using a low pressure tube is suggested.

The Change of Magnetic Susceptibility in Metals and Alloys Caused by Internal Stress

By Yosomatsu Shimizu

Notwithstanding many investigations hitherto made, the effect of internal stress or cold-working on the susceptibility of metals and alloys has not yet been completely solved. The present investigation was undertaken to obtain a further knowledge on the same subject, and the following results were obtained :— With an increasing degree

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of internal stress, the paramagnetic susceptibility of metals and alloys decreases, while their diamagnetic susceptibility numerically increase. In the case of an alloy of gold with platinum, its susceptibility is changed by cold-working from paramagnetic to diamagnetic. Further, a theory is proposed, by which the experimental results obtained can be satisfactorily explained in a quantitative way.

Messung der Helligkeit der Korperfarbe

By Masaaki Yazima and Hisakichi Kanazawa

Der Finfluss von Helligkeit über die günstige Belecuchtung der Gemälde ist eine wichtige Frage. Es ist sehr zu erwünschen, die Beziehung zwischen der Helligkeit und der Beleuchtung der bunten Gemälde zu finden. Aber leider man hat bis jetzt keinen diesbezüglicher Versuche wahrscheinlich durch die Schwierigkeiten der Untersuchung. Als die erste Annährung der Lösung dieser wichtigen Frage, wollten wir in vorliegenden Arbeit, nicht die schwierigen Helligkeits-messungen von der bunten Gemälde, sondern die Messung von der Farbpapiere, durchführen. 16 Probepapiere waren untersucht, die mit den üblich von japanischen mineralischen Pigmenten, gleichmässig gestricht wurden. Wir haben drei Methode zur Messung der Helligkeit der Farbpapiere. (i) Die Methode nach der Augenmass. (ii) Vergleichsmethode: Methode mit den Stufenphotometer ohne Filter. (iii) Cstwald'sche Methode.

Die Schlussfolgerungen sind: (i) Diese drei Methoden stimmen beinahe in der Ergebnissen ein, besonders in der ersten und der dritten Methode. (ii) Die Helligkeiten der Pigmente und wahrscheinlich die von der Gemälde, sich nach der Ostwald'schen Methode zahlenmässig darstellen lassen. (iii) Die Anordnung der Pigmente nach dem rein psyologische Farbsinn wie in der ersten Methode trozdem seinen Einfachheit ziemlich glaubwürdig ist.

Medicine

Influence of Air Ion on Living Bodies

Ishidate and Sanshi Abe

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Introduction

There has been many changes of theory on the idea of the qualities of air. At present, it is generally understood that the qualities of air depend principally upon the effective temperature or cooling power which are obtained from the various combinations of physical factors of air, such as temperature, humidity and wind velocity.

In recent years, however, aside from these physical factors, ionization of air was suggested and the effect of air ion upon the human bodies was recognized. Since we devised and made an equipment of measurement in 1932, we examined the ionic content of room and outdoor air. We also ionized the air by an ion-producing apparatus artificially, and have made various physiological experiments. A summary report follows:

Atmospheric Ion

In the previous report, we reported that changes in ionic condition of the air have the most close relation with the direction of winds among various

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meteorological factors. To be exact, the ratio of the number of negative and positive ions N+/N− (We call this the ion ratio for convenience) varies according to the changes of the direction of winds. According to the results obtained in various places in Hokkaido, the number of positive ions is always larger than that of negative ions when the wind blows to the south-east or to the east, so that the expression would be $N+/N>1$. On the contrary, when the wind blows to the west, or to the north-west, the number of negative ions was greater than that of positive ions, which is to be expressed by $N+/N<1$. In Tohoku and Hokkaido districts, the east and east-south winds are called "Yamasekaze", and there is a well known fact that when these winds blow some people feel discomfort, or headache, while others feel that their rheumatism painful. From these facts, it is suggested that aside from various meteorological factors, such as temperature, humidity, wind velocity, quantities of rainfall and sunshine, the atmospheric ion, especially the ion ratio N+/N− has a very intimate relation with our comfort degree. Then we examined about four men to see the relationship between the ionic condition of air and blood pressure, pulsation, respiration, body temperature, feelings, etc. for full one year. From this, we recognized the fact that the ionic conditions of air have relations to these physiological actions.

Physiological Experiments

In order to study the effect of atmospheric ion on the living body, we devised an equipment, in which either only positive or negative ion may be collected at one pole, or the mixture of both ions may be produced at convenience. Ordinary air contains about 10^3—8×10^4 unit of light or heavy ion in its one c.c. In our experiment, we ionized the room air to the concentration of 5—9×10^5 per 1 c.c. and experiments such as mentioned below were performed:

(1) Experiment on the Human Body

According to the experiments made on 108 people, both healthy and feeble-bodied, the positive ion acts themselves on the whole, and though there are some exceptions, it causes sleeplessness, headache, or other disagreeable feelings. On the contrary, the negative ion acts like a sedative, and when they are bathed in the negatively ionized air, there appears a stimulating action in the beginning of bathing, but soon the sedative action appears following,—sleepiness, quieting down of coughing, restoring effect of pain, curing of itchiness, prevention of sweating, improvements in appetite, lowering of blood pressure, diuresis, etc. These phenomena did not appear so markedly in healthy people, but they were very clearly produced in the feeble-bodied. In order to find out how these phenomena were produced, or to determine the functional action which produces such phenomena, following experiments were carried:

(2) Action on Blood

In general, when a liquid like salt water or solution of serum is placed in the ionized air positively or negatively, a change would be produced in the hydrogen ion concentration of the liquid, and it was recognized that there is a tendency to make either acidic or alkaline. Then we examined a rabbit exposing in the ionized air. We recognized the fact that when the animal was exposed in the ionized air positively charged, the blood showed a tendency to be acidosis,

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while in the case of negative ion, the blood showed a tendency to be alkalosis. And, it is well known that if there occurs any changes in the hydrogen ion concentration of the blood, it causes various changes in the many functions of the whole body.

(3) Action on Growth

A group of young guineapigs were exposed in the ionized air every day, and its growth were carefully observed. Generally, the animals which were exposed in the negatively ionized air lost their weight markedly in the first few days of experiment, but soon recovered its growth and well developed. On the other hand, when the animals were exposed in the positively ionized air, the loss of weight was not so obvious in the beginning of experiment, but thereafter the increases of body weight were comparatively small. Differences in the growth of animals under two conditions appeared to be clearly noticeable.

(4) Action on Blood Vessels

It appears that, why the change is produced in the blood pressure by the air ion is not yet well understood. At present, it is a well known fact that as regards the blood pressure, a great importance is placed on the contraction and expansion of the minute arteries in the whole body, aside from the effect produced by the function of the heart. We, therefore, made an experiment on the blood vessel of a membrance of the web-foot of a frog. According to this experiment, the negative ion appears to have effects in expanding capillaries, while the positive ion contracts them. Therefore, the effect upon the blood pressure due to the ion of air appears to be on the expansion and contraction of the minute arteries and capillaries, apart from the action produced by the function of the heart.

(5) Experiment on Specimen of Nervous Sinew

A specimen of sinew of a frog was prepared, and a curve of regular fatigue was drawn. When the height of contraction of sinew became small, and the air of that part was ionized into the negative ion, then the sinew contraction, though small in degree, became larger again according to the concentration of the ion, which indicated in some instances the phenomena of recovery from fatigue. But when the air was ionized into the positive ion, the phenomenon was not so clearly noticeable. In the experiments which were performed on specimen of nervous sinew, the action of the ion was more clearly produced, which showed that the ion acts more keenly on the nerve than on the sinew.

(6) Application to Fatigue of Operatives in Mills

Negatively ionized bathing was tried to scores of operatives who were suffering from sleeplessness, headache, fatigue, etc. which appeared to have been caused by overworks. Though there were some exceptions in which the curing effects could not be clearly noticeable, these symptoms either disappeared completely or showed great improvements in majority of cases.

Conclusion

From our experiments on the relations between the air ion and living bodies, we have learned that the air ion is one of important factors which has much effect on living bodies in the air, apart from the several physical factors such as temperature, humidity, wind velocity, and sunshine, which have been thought in the past as important. We believe that further research will have to be done for the various branches of hygiene.

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CHAPTER XXXIV

PRESS AND PUBLICATIONS

Press

Early History

Yomiuri Even in Old Japan some form of public announcement was issued from time to time, like the Acta Diurna of the era of the Roman Empire, but perhaps the present subject may appropriately be begun with the Yomiuri, the oldest semblance of the newspaper, which name can be literally translated "reading aloud and selling." The Yomiuri sheets were so named because the venders read aloud the contents of the newspaper on the street while soliciting buyers. The Yomiuri sheets were essentially the Flugblatt of the Middle Ages of Europe. They consisted of single printed sheets, or pamphlets of several pages, recording the latest events of the period. Even in those days the progress of wood-block prints permitted the appearance of illustrations in the sheets. In many cases the illustrations were the outstanding feature, and the descriptive matter was of secondary importance. In this respect the Yomiuri differed from the Flugblatt of Europe.

Its Publishers Old records are lacking to identify the publishers of the Yomiuri, but it appears that the publishers of newspapers, or rather equivalents to newspapers, in the earlier part of the Tokugawa period (about 250 years before the Restoration of Meiji, 1868) were men of little fame and honour. Even at the end of the Tokugawa period it appears that the publishers of the Yomiuri were men of so lowly positions that they were not permitted to enter the society of even wood-block printers. It is, however, considered likely that this early form of the newspaper failed to make any progress owing to government pressure. The Yomiuri carried contents that were often inflammatory and distasteful to the government. Suspension of publication was ordered so frequently that no decent publishers dared to take it up as an enterprise. Only men of low repute engaged in the business often against the law.

Printing of the Yomiuri sheets was done by wood-block prints. The contents of the Yomiuri sheets can generally be divided into two, prose and poetry. This distinction, it appears, existed from the early part of the Tokugawa period. In the era of Genroku (1688-1703) the hawkers sold their sheets on the street either calling the attention of prospective buyers by singing, with or without the accompaniment of the samisen, or merely reading aloud the contents. At the end of the Tokugawa period sheets were sold with the sellers singing popular ballads.

Its Contents A perusal of those Yomiuri sheets still extant shows that at the outset of the development the chief interest of the sheets lay in the illustrations. What are believed to be the oldest Yomiuri have illustrations of the Battle of the Osaka Natsu-no-jin in May in the first year of the era of Genna (1615), accompanied by descriptive matter. Judging from the frequent

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issuance of suppression or suspension orders, Yomiuri sheets appear to have been published and sold in abundance during the eras of Empo (1673-80), Teikyo (1684-87) and Genroku (1688-1703). In Western Japan, with Osaka as the centre, there is evidence of the popularity of erotic contents in Yomiuri sheets, featuring such stuff as stories of double suicides. Since the vendetta of the famous Forty-seven Ronin vendetta stories formed the chief subject of interest and after the era of Genroku subjects of natural calamities were featured. In the eras of Bunkwa (1804-17) and Bunsei (1818-29) the enforcement of justice and morality undertaken by the Shogunate government, stressing the protection of right and chastisement of wrong, was reflected in the stories featured in the Yomiuri sheets of those days, even in the accounts of natural calamities and those of sex relations. Because the stories were written by men of low repute, the contents of the Yomiuri sheets in many cases were repellent in tone. Immediately before and after the Restoration of Meiji accounts of the civil disturbances were written, but by this time the number of Yomiuri sheets had considerably decreased owing to the appearance of newspapers in the more correct sense of the term.

Fusetsugaki Another equivalent of the modern newspaper, in addition to the Yomiuri, was a periodical named "Fusetsugaki" or Book of Reports, which carried foreign intelligence. These books were of two kinds, one with Dutch and one with Chinese reports. After the third Tokugawa Shogun adopted the policy of seclusion, it was only China and the Netherlands which had intercourse with Japan. Captain "Yanyos" (Jan Josten) of Holland, after Japan's adoption of the seclusion policy, presented annually a book descriptive of foreign affairs to the Shogunate government. It was the Oranda Fusetsugaki, or Book of Dutch Reports. The Chinese government in those days presented to the Shogunate government of Japan Chinese intelligence after the manner of the Dutchmen. Information obtained thus was placed in the hands of the Prime Minister and kept confidential, but after the American "black ships" came to knock at the door of Japan, permission was granted to make copies of those books for public circulation. The presentation of Dutch documents continued until the era of Ansei (1854-59), but as the country was opened to foreign intercourse this custom was discontinued at the request of the Dutch government, which instead of the customary annual volume presented Dutch newspapers to the Japanese government. It is considered certain that the newspapers thus presented to Japan were copies of the Javasche Courant, organ of the Government of Batavia.

Precursor of Modern Paper When the provincial clans requested that the Dutch Book of Reports be made public, the Shogunate government's Yosho Shirabesho, or Bureau for the Study of Western Learning, agreed and planned to publish it. This plan did not materialize, as the Dutch government then replaced the book with newspapers, but instead, the bureau translated the newspapers into Japanese and published them for general circulation. This was the precursor of the modern newspaper in Japan. Not content with this Dutch newspaper, the Shogunate government continued to translate and publish other newspapers from Holland and imported Chinese-language newspapers published by white Christian evangelists in Hong-Kong, Shanghai and other places, and had

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them not only translated and annotated but printed and bound into books and entrusted Hyoshiro Yorodzuya, a book purveyor to the Shogunate government, with the public sale of these books. In general printing wooden types were used. For printing these Chinese newspapers imposition was adopted and for this purpose the Shogunate government had to establish a special department for type foundry. This enterprise was a reflection of the out-and-out principle the Shogunate government adopted for opening the country to foreign intercourse. Those books were chiefly published during the era of Bunkyu (1861-63). Hence they were popularly called Bunkyu Shimbun (newspaper).

Papers in Yokohama In the meantime, anti-foreign sentiment was gaining force in this country and after the era of Bunkyu this interfered with the translation and publication of foreign newspapers. Foreign residents of Yokohama, however, translated and published foreign-language newspapers in Japanese and they were patronized by those who favoured opening the country to foreign intercourse. Men on the staff of the Bureau for the Study of Foreign Learning had an eye on foreign affairs and established a new institution for the purpose of translating into Japanese articles dealing with Japan which were printed in the English-language newspapers in Yokohama, such as the Japan Commercial News and Japan Times. Those translations were not printed but written by scribes and circulated among interested persons. The years during which this was done extended from 1863 to 1865. Foreign residents of Yokohama also published three Japanese-language newspapers, Kaigai Shimbun (Foreign Newspaper), Bankoku Shimbun (International Newspaper) and Rondon Shimbun (London Newspaper). Of these three, the Bankoku Shimbun had in its contents not only foreign intelligence but news of Yokohama and comment on the English-language newspapers of Yokohama; it introduced ideas of British civilization and carried many advertisements. This journal was edited ably in a characteristic style and published monthly. From this time general progress in newspaper-making was noticeable.

Foreign Language Papers The first foreign-language newspaper published in Japan was the Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser issued for the first time in the year 1861 by a resident Britisher, Mr. Hanseard. It was a weekly. The publisher soon moved to Yokohama, where he continued his publication under the name of The Japan Herald, the first issue of which was brought out in December of the same year. He employed Mr. Black, another Britisher, then a resident of the port city, as editor-in-chief. The example set by the Japan Herald was soon followed by the appearance of the Japan Commercial News in 1863, a weekly published by a Portuguese. In October of the same year the Japan Herald, in addition to the weekly, started a daily newspaper which featured advertisements. In the year 1865 the Commercial News was discontinued and Mr. Rickerby, a banker, bought the newspaper equipment and started the Japan Times in September of the year. In 1867 Mr. Black had a dispute with the new owner of the Japan Herald, and, leaving the paper, he issued the Japan Gazette, an evening paper. The popularity of the Japan Gazette overwhelmed the Japan Times and the latter lost much patronage and finally had to discontinue publication. The disappearance of the Japan

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Times, however, was followed by the launching of the Japan Mail. In addition to these newspapers, there was another English-language newspaper, having the name of the Japan Express, published by an American, whose first issue appeared in 1866. The copies of this newspaper were hand-written, carved in wood blocks, and printed. While the name of the publisher and the period of publication are unknown, it is recorded in a diplomatic document in the possession of the French government that this journal represented the American interests. In addition to these papers, there were also a French newspaper, L'Echo du Japon, in the era of Keio (1865-7), an English magazine of caricature, the Japan Punch, which was published continuously for 20 years from the era of Bunkyu (1861-3), and a French magazine of caricature entitled Tobayé. These publications stimulated directly or indirectly the birth of the Japanese modern newspapers.

The Restoration Demand for foreign intelligence was the principal factor in the birth of newspapers in the East as in the West. In Japan, too, newspapers of the earlier periods carried much foreign news, but when there were big developments like civil disturbances they played up internal affairs. The Restoration of Meiji in 1868 afforded the press of Japan much scope for development. Newspaper editors in Yedo, the present Tokyo, were excellent scholars and their papers were much superior to those edited in the provinces. One of the papers in Yedo already advocated parliamentary politics as early as this period. Newspapers published by those holding the "Emperor-centric" policy were filled with articles which merely reflected on the intelligence of the editors themselves. They only advocated the "Emperor-centric" policy and did not propose any advanced ideas about reforms. Newspapers affiliated with the Shogunate government enjoyed much larger circulation than their competitors and it is stated that one of them had a circulation of 3,000.

The Press Law

The press law in Japan was enforced by the Government for the first time in February, 1869. This was the signal for several new newspapers to spring up. The Government, however, interfered so much with the press that sales of newspapers were much hindered and the healthy progress of the press was checked. While the business side of the press was dull, editing itself attained notable progress. Political news had become unusually constructive and efforts were made to establish a new civilization and propagate new and advanced ideas among the people.

Modern Papers

The Yokohama Mainichi The first true Japanese daily newspaper appeared in December, 1870, with the publication of the Yokohama Mainichi Shimbun. Not only was this newspaper a daily but it consisted of a single foreign-style paper sheet with printing done with lead types. In outside appearance it had the semblance of the modern newspaper. Although its contents were much inferior to those of the newspapers that were founded later in Tokyo, it resembled English-language newspapers in that it carried many advertisements.

More Papers Born The year 1872 saw several more dailies born, newspapers which were more perfect in appearance and reading matter than their predecessors. Those newspapers included the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun, and

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the Nisshin Shinjishi, the last being edited under the supervision of Mr. Black, formerly editor of the Japan Herald. The Nichi Nichi and Hochi remain to this day but the Shinjishi had to change hands in 1875 when the Government, in an effort to bring pressure to bear upon democratic newspapers, controlled the activities of foreigners in newspapers. The change of ownership brought decadence to the journal and the paper was discontinued shortly afterward.

Government and Press

Era of Terrorism An era of terrorism dawned upon Japan's journalism in 1875 when the government, dissatisfied with the way in which the press in general stirred up the discontented elements of the people, revised the press law with the avowed purpose of curbing the influence of the newspapers. Severe punishment was provided for violation of the press law. Journalists writing articles censuring the government were fined or imprisoned. Indeed, this was the first time journalists in Japan were exposed to punishment. Not content with this cruel legislation, the government in July, 1877, invested the Home Minister with power to suppress newspapers or delay their publication, and he was thus free to bring pressure to bear upon them as he saw fit. This objectionable law worked havoc with the press, whose progress was much hampered thereby.

The era in which newspapers served as political party organs began in 1881. Two years before that time the movement in favour of instituting the Diet was launched by the late Taisuké Itagaki and others.

Revised Press Law The government's desperate policy of oppression toward the liberals of the period, which resulted in the prohibition of the formation of political associations and the oppression of newspapers and magazines, came to a definite halt on December 26, 1887, with the enforcement of a new government decree. Two days later a revised press law was issued, considerably modifying the strict control of the press, which had had the effect of almost exterminating all the free political organs of the country. The new press law was drafted on the basis of the principle of "freedom of the press," recognized in the Japanese Constitution which was to be promulgated shortly. The new press law was received by journalistic circles with much satisfaction. Indeed, the modified press law marks a turning point in the history of the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Whereas under the old law a prospective publisher had to apply for a permit to start a newspaper, by the new regulations he had only to notify the authorities of his intention to issue a journal. The prefectural governor was robbed of his power to suppress newspapers or confiscate the newspaper plants and only the Home Minister was given such power. Unreserved criticism for public good was admitted, and compared with the despotic rule that had prevailed before, newspaper management under the new law became markedly free.

Emergence of Independent Dailies

The approaching promulgation of the Constitution, coupled with the removal of the ban on the formation of political associations and the growing political enthusiasm among the people, revived political newspapers. In the meantime, the Diet was instituted and the majority of the best-known editors of influential newspapers were elected to the legis-

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lature. As a natural consequence, the newspapers of these editors became their political tools and alienated public sympathy. Their popularity showed a decided tendency to wane.

The Kokumin and Yorozu While the political organs were thus losing influence, a strictly politically-independent newspaper which refused to cater for the popular taste of the people but which assumed an attitude to instruct the public was founded and caught the fancy of the intellectuals of the day. Its editing, however, was on the old lines and this newspaper never became popular. In the year 1890 Mr. Iichiro Tokutomi founded the Kokumin Shimbun, a popular newspaper. This journal enjoyed the support of the masses and soon other papers more or less imitated the style of editing inaugurated by the Kokumin. In 1892 the late Mr. Shuroku Kuroiwa founded the Yorozu Choho, which added to the Kokumin's style of editing a strong spice of sensationalism, devoting much of its space to the publication of detective and love stories. The Yorozu invaded the fields of the Miyako Shimbun, Yamato Shimbun and other newspapers then having the largest circulation. Thus, the promulgation of the Constitution served to bring about marked progress in the development of the modern newspaper in this country.

Chinese War and the Press The Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) caused severe competition in news reporting. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun, by introducing new features in covering war news, greatly increased the number of its subscribers. In Tokyo the Chuo Shimbun, closely affiliated with the military, was conspicuous for its activities in the issuance of extras and consequently gained an enlarged circulation. Other papers also sent war correspondents and featured news from the front. The Yorodzu then was the most popular newspaper, having a circulation of 50,000. In point of circulation the newspapers of that time were in the following order: The Yorodzu Choho, Kokumin Shimbun, Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Miyako Shimbun, Nihon Shimbun, Chuo Shimbun, Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, Jiji Shimpo, Mainichi Shimbun, Yubin Hochi Shimbun and Yamato Shimbun. The war was also responsible for the appearance of influential provincial newspapers, including the Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun in Kyushu, the Shin Aichi in Nagoya, the Kahoku Shimpo in Sendai and the Hokkai Times in Hokkaido.

After the Russian War

Catering to the Public Following the Sino-Japanese War the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo adopted an impartial attitude toward politics and concentrated their efforts in popularizing their pages. To advance their sales they resorted to means which often savoured of vulgarism and received public criticism. The city of Osaka witnessed a duel between the Asahi and the Mainichi not only in business but in news gathering. In the meantime, the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5) occurred to start keen competition in war coverage. The Asahi both in Tokyo and Osaka, the Osaka Mainichi and the Jiji Shimpo competed severely in the matter of extras and increased their circulation. At the end of the war the peace treaty was signed at Portsmouth, but the peace terms were found unsatisfactory and stoutly opposed by all the newspapers of Tokyo and Osaka, with the exception of the Kokumin and the Chuo, both of Tokyo, the political organs of the then Government. Anti-peace mass meetings

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were held both in Tokyo and Osaka, and in Tokyo the participants in the mass meeting, incited by inflammatory articles in one or two newspapers, turned into a mob and attacked the building of the Kokumin Shimbun. To suppress the mob the government had to proclaim martial law. The government simultaneously issued an urgent Imperial Ordinance and suspended the publication for certain periods of the newspapers which incited the public to violence. During one month shortly after the enforcement of the Imperial Ordinance the Yorodzu, the Niroku, the Miyako, the Nihon, the Jimmin, the Asahi of Tokyo and Osaka, and other papers were suspended. Of these papers, the Niroku and the Osaka Asahi suffered suspension twice in a month.

Equilibrium of Influence The panic in the newspaper world thus brought about upset the equilibrium of influence. The Kokumin was robbed of much circulation; so was the Chuo. The Yorodzu, with a special appeal to the youth of Japan, increased its circulation markedly. In Osaka the Mainichi took advantage of the suspension of publication which the Asahi suffered and invaded its unfortunate yet heretofore superior competitor's field, with the result that finally their influence in business and other respects became about even.

Motion Picture Utilized Several changes for the better were effected following the Russo-Japanese War, and it is noteworthy that the changes effected all concerned the newspaper enterprises. The Kokumin, which had suffered a dwindling popularity since the paper became the object of public censure by supporting the government that signed a "humiliating peace treaty," issued provincial editions, an example which was soon followed by other newspapers. Shortly afterward the Hochi attained success by issuing an evening edition. This ambitious enterprise was also followed by several other competitors. As regards the contents of newspapers, the Yorodzu reported all sorts of sports and amusements; the Asahi brightened its pages with articles from the pen of famous men of letters like the late Soseki Natsumé, and the Hochi established a precedent by carrying a novel in serial form that suited home reading. On the business side, the Hochi took the initiative in establishing provincial branches. The Yamato promoted an exhibition and began a motion picture demonstration show throughout the country.

That these enterprises attained favourable results soon showed in the increased number of circulation. According to reports considered reliable, the Osaka Asahi topped the list with 350,000. The Osaka Mainichi came next with 300,000, and the other papers came in the following order: the Hochi, 200,000; the Yorodzu, the Kokumin and the Yamato each 150,000; the Tokyo Asahi, 80,000, and the others 30,000 or 40,000 each.

In the Taisho Era

Expansion of the Business One notable advance made by the press of Japan during the Taisho era was the remarkable expansion of newspaper business. All first-class journals erected imposing structures for their offices and installed expensive high-speed presses. By the end of the era all the leading newspapers in Tokyo and Osaka had become public corporations with their capitalizations above the ¥1,000,000 mark. The earthquake and fire of 1923 reduced to ashes the majority of the newspapers in Tokyo, except the Hochi, Nichi Nichi and Miyako.

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Of the unfortunate sufferers, those financially well off got to a good start and soon recovered their former positions, but those less financially favoured failed to raise their heads again and had to be content with insignificant showings. At present the Osaka Asahi and Osaka Mainichi possess more than 1,000,000 subscribers each, and big papers in Tokyo have subscribers approaching the above figure. It is not an exaggeration to say that the achievements made by the press of Japan after the dawn of the era of Showa (1926-) are a high-water mark of Japan's modern culture.

Present-Day Newspapers

The newspaper business in Japan as a whole in recent years has developed to such an extent that in its scale, system and construction as a modern industry, as well as in the rapidity and accuracy of news dispatching and reporting, it can be favourably compared with that in any other country of the world. The attainment of Japanese newspaper business is owing first to the cultural development of Japan and also to the strenuous efforts of men interested in the enterprise.

Number of Newspapers

The number of daily newspapers in Japan proper at the end of 1933 was 1,179, showing a gain of 55 over the end of 1932, according to government statistics. In addition, there were on the same day 461 newspapers issued 4 times or more a month and 5,038 newspapers issued 3 times or less a month. All these make an aggregate of 6,678. The newspapers classified according to prefectures follow :

Prefecture	Daily papers	Issued 4 times or more a month	Others and Total
Tokyo	208	102	1,510
Kyoto	39	14	300
Osaka	90	47	634
Kanagawa	18	4	83
Hyogo	41	25	245
Nagasaki	17	6	68
Niigata	22	21	120
Saitama	11	3	69
Gumma	16	4	74
Chiba	14	3	89
Ibaraki	8	—	121
Tochigi	14	5	61
Nara	7	4	78
Mié	22	11	110
Aichi	81	17	465
Shizuoka	39	4	116
Yamanashi	8	—	31
Shiga	23	1	61
Gifu	13	3	79
Nagano	37	13	223
Miyagi	19	1	49
Fukushima	24	3	70
Iwaté	12	4	39
Aomori	12	7	52
Yamagata	14	4	50
Akita	6	13	44
Fukui	12	9	63
Ishikawa	8	7	38
Toyama	7	8	72
Tottori	5	3	33
Shimané	3	1	31
Okayama	11	4	99
Hiroshima	22	8	168
Yamaguchi	34	12	119
Wakayama	19	8	75
Tokushima	4	—	23
Kagawa	3	1	59
Ehimé	18	7	120
Kochi	3	2	36
Fukuoka	64	32	262
Oita	33	2	79
Saga	10	3	41
Kumamoto	8	7	60
Miyazaki	11	2	32
Kagoshima	5	1	37
Okinawa	3	4	13
Hokkaido	81	21	350
Total	1,175	461	6,678

Mainly in Tokyo and Osaka As may be seen from the above table, the majority of newspapers are published in Tokyo and Osaka. This is because Tokyo is the capital of the Empire and Osaka is the centre of social and economic life in West Japan. The combined number of

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daily newspapers in the two largest cities is 25 per cent. of all and their combined circulation covers almost all parts of this country. Large daily papers have their own provincial editions of more than 20 kinds. The spheres of provincial editions are divided between the large papers of Tokyo and Osaka. Tokyo papers publish provincial editions for Eastern Japan, Hokkaido and Saghalien, while Osaka papers issue those for Western Japan, Shikoku, Kyushu, Korea and Formosa. These provincial editions eat into the business spheres of country papers. Recently, Tokyo and Osaka papers have been issuing Manchurian editions. Next to these cities in the number of their papers come Aichi (Nagoya), Hokkaido, Kyoto, Hyogo (Kobé), Fukuoka and Nagano prefectures, reflecting the extent of cultural development of those localities. Okinawa prefecture (Loochoos) issues only 16, the smallest number of all, and 19 are issued in Tokushima prefecture in Shikoku.

Increase or Decrease The following table gives the number of newspapers which increased or decreased each year, from 1922 to 1933 :

		With Guarantee Money				Without Guarantee Money			
	Sum total	Total	Daily	4 times or more monthly	3 times or less monthly	Total	Daily	4 times or more monthly	3 times or less monthly
1922	4,562	3,403	690	263	2,450	1,159	175	103	881
1923	4,592	3,608	762	264	2,577	989	131	81	777
1924	5,854	4,184	793	310	3,081	1,670	155	103	1,412
1925	6,899	4,739	826	313	3,600	2,160	186	142	1,832
1926	7,600	5,089	861	344	3,884	2,511	174	165	2,172
1927	8,350	5,438	916	380	4,142	2,912	177	170	2,565
1928	8,445	5,482	966	399	4,117	2,963	184	178	2,601
1929	9,191	5,917	1,020	417	4,480	3,274	201	193	2,880
1930	10,130	5,995	1,031	428	4,536	4,135	184	221	3,730
1931	10,666	6,290	1,083	476	4,731	4,376	197	247	3,932
1932	11,118	6,301	1,124	463	4,714	4,817	206	241	4,370
1933	11,860	6,678	1,179	461	5,038	5,182	210	261	4,711

Circulation

Circulation Unpublished The circulation of daily newspapers in Japan ranges from about 4,000 to about 1,500,000. Japanese newspapers never make public their exact circulation. For this reason, it is impossible to get the exact figures of circulation of each or any. What is believed to be comparatively correct of the daily circulation of more than 1,100 newspapers is an estimate of about 19,000,000. The number of households in Japan is over 17,500,000. Newspapers are far more widely read in cities than in provinces and they are read more in commercial and industrial districts than in agricultural districts. Tokyo has the largest number of daily newspapers, and the more powerful ones are a well-defined force in society. Among them are the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, the Yomiuri Shimbun, the Hochi Shimbun, the Jiji Shimpo, the Miyako Shimbun, the Kokumin Shimbun and the Chugai Shogyo Shimpo. The first-mentioned two papers are predominant, having an overwhelming influence in newspaper circles. As organizations for news reporting these two giant papers rank among the world's largest newspapers.

Osaka City has a relatively small number of daily papers, 86 in all, but, as regards circulation, the Osaka Asahi Shimbun, which is the head office of the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun,

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and the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun, which controls the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun, predominate all, and their circulation is said to be nearly the same. The two papers have practically the whole of Western Japan under their control, and their influence is felt stronger in Kyushu districts by the publication of the "Kyushu Asahi" and the "Western Mainichi" commenced in February, 1935.

Estimated Circulation Estimated circulation of leading dailies in Japan at the end of 1933 was as follows:

Tokyo	
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	1,100,000
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	1,000,000
Jiji Shimpo	300,000
Yomiuri Shimbun	650,000
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	150,000
Kokumin Shimbun	150,000
Hochi Shimbun	400,000
Osaka	
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	1,300,000
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	1,200,000
Leading Provincial Papers	
Shin-aichi, Nagoya	200,000
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi, Fukuoka	180,000
Hokkai Times, Sapporo	100,000
Kahoku Shimpo, Sendai	100,000

Subscriptions Subscription fees of Japanese daily papers in large cities range from 80 to 90 sen. Airplanes are used for transportation between Osaka and Fukuoka, but in most cases it is done by trains and electric cars.

English-Language Papers English-language daily papers in Japan proper and colonies are as follows: The Japan Advertiser (American), The Japan Times (Japanese owned), both in Tokyo, the Osaka Mainichi English Edition (controlled by the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun), the Japan Chronicle (British), the Kobé Herald and Osaka Gazette (British), both in Kobé, the Seoul Press (Japanese), in Keijo, and the Manchuria Daily News (Japanese), Dairen.

System of Newspapers

The Asahi Shimbun Here the two representative Japanese dailies, the Tokyo (Osaka) Asahi Shimbun and the Tokyo Nichi Nichi (Osaka Mainichi Shimbun), are selected as examples for explaining the business system of Japanese newspapers. The Osaka Asahi Shimbun was founded in January, 1879. A retrospect of the past fifty years of the Asahi will "convince the public that the ideal set forth in the beginning that the paper should grow to be a great power like the 'rising sun', Asahi, and its opinion be as fair and impartial as the sun, has been fulfilled, for it now occupies one of the foremost positions among the daily papers not only of Japan, but of the world, and its views on current topics are very weighty in forming the public opinion of the country." The success of the Asahi is due to the able management of the late Ryuhei Murayama, whose career is identified with the history of the paper. It was in 1881 that he started the paper. With the financial support of the late Riichi Uyéno he pushed on the business.

The Mezamashi Purchased At that time Japanese journalism was in a backward position, and the daily papers were divided into two classes, one consisting of large papers whose main principle it was to discuss political problems, and the other of small papers printing novels and daily social events. The Asahi belonged to the latter category at first, but Murayama made his organ fall in line with the prevailing tendency, to become a paper possessing the characteristics of the two classes. He made it accessible to and readable for all classes of society. Inventions were utilized by him. For example, he made full use of the telegraph, which was not

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commercialized then. In this way, the Asahi, which at first was in straitened circumstances, began to pay, and in a few years it grew to be one of the leading papers of Japan. He purchased a Tokyo daily named the Mezamashi in 1888 and renamed it the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun. Other large rival papers started a united front against the Tokyo Asahi, but it tided over the crisis. Murayama was the first newspaper manager to publish sister papers in the two largest cities of Japan, and this method was copied by the Jiji Shimpo, which started the Osaka Jiji Shimpo in 1905, although the two Jijis have now severed their connections altogether. The Asahi was the first of all Japanese papers to instal the rotary presses in 1890. After the Russo-Japanese War the Asahi by general consent became the largest paper in Japan. By this time, the Osaka Mainichi had begun to be the most influential rival paper of the Asahi. When the Russo-Japanese War broke out in 1904, the Asahi with its superior correspondence ramifications fulfilled its mission as reporting organization of the war. The following statistics give an outline of the status of the Asahi Shimbun.

Its Capitalization The Asahi Shimbun Publishing Company is a joint-stock concern with a capitalization of ¥6,000,000. The number of personnel, excluding despatch boys, was 2,212 for the Osaka Asahi and 1,583 for the Tokyo Asahi, a total of 3,795, at the end of 1933. The Asahi is equipped with 36 super-speed presses, one German Iris colour press, 2 German gravure presses, 19 airplanes, 500 carrier-pigeons, 2 sets of telephoto equipment and private telephones between Tokyo and Osaka. Besides its two dailies, the Asahi publishes the following periodicals all in vernacular: the Weekly Asahi, the Asahigraph (weekly), the Asahi Sports (bi-monthly), the Asahi Camera, the Screen and Stage, the Woman, Children's Asahi and the Library Editions of the Osaka and Tokyo Asahi (monthly). "Japan in Pictures," Asahigraph overseas edition (monthly) and "Present-day Japan" (annual), both in English, are published by the Asahi. It has its own special correspondents in London, New York, Paris, Berlin, Shanghai, Peiping, Nanking, Moscow, Los Angeles and Harbin and possesses both Junker and Puss Moth planes.

Its System The system of Osaka and Tokyo Asahi offices is:

- General Affairs Bureau
  - President
  - Vice-President
  - Managing Director
  - Directors
  - Auditors
  - Secretariat
- Printing Bureau:
  - Printing Section
  - Technical Section
- Business Bureau:
  - Sales Section
  - Advertising Section
  - Accounts Section
- Editorial Bureau:
  - Editing Section
  - News Dispatching and News Receiving Section
  - Politics Section
  - Social News Section
  - Photograph Section
  - Foreign News Section
  - Reference Section
  - Sports Section
  - Proof-reading Section
  - Asahigraph Section
  - Science and Arts Section
- Enterprise Section
- Aviation Section
- Section of Correction of Errors

Each bureau and section has its own chief. The editorial bureau has besides the sections, editorial managers, advisers and editorial writers, who are controlled by the chief of the editorial bureau.

Aerial Mail Service The Asahi Shimbun inaugurated regular mail

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aviation between Tokyo and Osaka and between Tokyo and Sendai in 1923. With the establishment of the Japan Air Transport Company, the Asahi transferred gratis these services to the company. Since August, 1929, the Asahi has been operating the Tokyo-Niigata regular mail aviation.

The Osaka Mainichi and Tokyo Nichi Nichi The Osaka Mainichi originated in the Osaka Nippo, then the largest daily in Osaka, first published in 1876. The present name was adopted in 1888. Already in those days, the Osaka Mainichi was one of the most influential papers in the country. In 1889 the late Osamu Watanabé reorganized the paper into a partnership enterprise, with the support of the late Hikoichi Motoyama. The late Takashi Hara, afterwards Premier, once assumed presidency of the paper, but he let it in 1900 and was succeeded by the late Eitaro Komatsubara, once Education Minister. It was in 1903 that Motoyama became the president. Through his efforts the paper gained prominence. Its capitalization is ¥10,000,000, the principal shareholders being businessmen of Tokyo and Osaka. This is in contrast to the shareholders of the Asahi, who are mostly men connected more or less closely with the paper. In Tokyo, the Osaka Mainichi inaugurated the Mainichi Dempo and absorbed the Tokyo Nichi Nichi in February, 1911. The Tokyo Nichi Nichi, which thus came under control of the Osaka Mainichi, has the oldest history in Japanese journalism; it was published in 1872 by a group of the most advanced men of the day, including the late Genichiro Fukuchi, one of Japan's famous writers. Count Miyoji Ito once controlled this paper as a Government organ. In 1904, the paper was transferred to the Iwasaki family, the nucleus of the Mitsubishi interests. The Osaka Mainichi has a large staff, its members numbering 2,124 and the Tokyo Nichi Nichi 3,454. Motoyama died in 1932 and was succeeded by Mr. Motosuké Kido, whose position was chairman of the directorate following reorganization of the system. But, he soon resigned the post and was succeeded by Dr. Minoru Oka. The paper, in addition to its regular editorial staff, has many editorial advisers, including Mr. Iichiro (Soho) Tokutomi as contributing editor, Mr. Yosaburo (Sansa) Takekoshi, men of literary fame, and several others.

Its Departments The editorial department of the Osaka Mainichi and Tokyo Nichi Nichi consists of the editorial bureau which attends to the general make-up of the paper and to which are attached a political section, reference section ("morgue"), and camera squad; the domestic news bureau; the foreign news bureau (exclusive of the Eastern Asia news bureau, specially devoting its efforts to covering news in China, Manchuria and Siberian Russia) the central transmission bureau, which is in charge of receiving news from all parts of the country and also exchanging news with the Tokyo Nichi Nichi and vice versa; the literary bureau which attends to the editing of daily feature page, the Sunday Mainichi, a popular weekly magazine, the Mainichi year book, and other special publications; the editorial section which is composed of the editorial writers; and the proofreading bureau. All of these bureaux come under the direct control of the executive editor who is assisted by the editorial manager; the editorial director, meanwhile, controls the editorial writers of the Osaka Mainichi and the Tokyo Nichi Nichi. The business department consists of the sales (circulation)

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bureau, the advertisement bureau, the accounts bureau, and the printing bureau, all of which come under control of the head of the business department. Like the Asahi Shimbun, the Osaka Mainichi Publishing Company maintains branch offices and stations and resident staff correspondents in all the principal cities of this country and abroad.

The Equipment It also has its exclusive long-distance telephone system between the Osaka Mainichi and Tokyo Nichi Nichi. A squad of specially trained stenographers at both ends send and receive news at the rate of 1,000 words per three minutes. The latest N.E. type telephoto apparatus, invented by Dr. Niwa, is used in sending not only photographs but facsimiles of official documents and important manuscripts between Tokyo and Osaka. The Osaka Mainichi typographical department has 11 Nippon Ultra-Lightning Presses, each one of which is capable of printing 150,000 4-page sections per hour; in addition, there are 12 high speed units, each one of which prints from 72,000 to 90,000 4-page sections an hour. The Nippon Ultra-Lightning Presses were built by R. Hoe & Company of America specially for the Mainichi. The Osaka Mainichi has a Lockhead Altaire plane, made by the Detroit Aircraft Corporation. The Osaka Mainichi plane develops a maximum speed of 227 miles an hour with a cruising range of 3,500 kilometres. The Tokyo Nichi Nichi has a Breda 33 High Speed Touring Airplane of Italian make.

Tickers and Accessory Business Two tickers are installed at the Osaka Mainichi. These instruments record the pulse of financial circles from time to time from the Osaka Stock Exchange. Each one of three units of the Albert rotogravure press (German made) can print 24,000 4-page sections per hour. These three combined can print a 48-page gravure magazine of half the standard newspaper size in one process. They are also capable of doing multi-colour printing. One of the features of the Osaka Mainichi is that since 1922 it has been publishing the Braille Osaka Mainichi, a weekly paper. This is the only periodical for the blind issued in Japan. The Osaka Mainichi also publishes a large number of periodicals, including Japan, Today and Tomorrow, an annual magazine printed in English, the Mainichi Directory, an annual publication in Japanese, the Sunday Mainichi, the Economist, a bi-monthly economic magazine in Japanese and many others. The Osaka Mainichi Charity Corps, organized in 1911, deal with circuit hospital-work, relief of the poor, poverty prevention, support of various social welfare enterprises and emergency relief of sufferers.

News Agencies

The Shimbun Rengo Tsushin Sha (Associated News Agency) is one of the two largest news agencies in Japan, the other being Nippon Dempo Tsushin Sha. The former used to be known as the Kokusai Tsushin Sha, which was founded by the late J. Russell Kennedy. He transferred his interest in the business to the present management. Shimbun Rengo consists of a large number of Japanese daily newspapers as members and its directorate is organized by representatives of six Tokyo dailies, two Osaka dailies and six large provincial papers. It maintains close relations with the Associated Press in America and with Reuter's, as well as the Tass News Agency in the Soviet Union in news dispatching to and from Japan. In domestic news service the institution plays the most important part. Mr. Yukichi Iwa-

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naga is managing-director. Nippon Dempo was founded by Mr. Hoshio Mitsunaga, the present president. It is more outstanding in domestic news service than foreign cable distribution, which is maintained in co-operation with the United Press. Whenever important international events are held, these two news agencies make great competitive activity, sending their staff correspondents abroad.

Leading Newspapers and their Presidents

Tokyo	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun	¥10,000,000	Minoru Oka
Tokyo Asahi Shimbun	6,000,000	Seiichi Uyeno
Hochi Shimbun	1,100,000	Seiji Noma
Yomiuri Shimbun	Private	Matsutaro Shoriki
Chugai Shogyo Shimpo	2,000,000	Tokichi Tanaka
Jiji Shimpo	5,200,000	Shozo Yamamoto
Miyako Shimbun	3,000,000	Eisuké Fukuda
Yamato Shimbun	Private	Fumio Iwata
Kokumin Shimbun	3,000,000	Moriji Shiki
Chuo Shimbun	400,000	Katsuzo Horikawa
Niroku Shimpo	Private	Kaida Kazuma
Yorodzu Choho	,,	Zenji Hasegawa
Tokyo Maiyu Shimbun	320,000	Masajiro Kimura
Tokyo Yukan Shimpo	Private	Tetruya Nakajima
Japan Advertiser	150,000	B. W. Fleisher
Japan Times	500,000	Hitoshi Ashida
Osaka		
Osaka Asahi Shimbun	6,000,000	Seiichi Uyeno
Osaka Mainichi Shimbun	10,000,000	Minoru Oka
Osaka Jiji Shimpo	500,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Other Prefectures		
Fukushima Minyu Shimbun (Fukushima)	330,000	Kiyoshi Ujiié
Kahoku Shimpo (Miyagi)	Private	Jiro Ichiriki
Iwaté Nippo (Iwaté)	200,000	Kotaro Ota
Akita Sakigaké Shimpo (Akita)	300,000	Wafu Ando
Niigata Shimbun (Niigata)	200,000	Sukesaku Yamada
Shinano Mainichi Shimbun (Nagano)	300,000	Takeo Kosaka
Shinaichi (Aichi)	1,500,000	Ukichi Oshima
Nagoya Shimbun (Aichi)	1,050,000	Shoji Koyama
Shizuoka Minyu Shimbun (Shizuoka)	200,000	Zemzaburo Nagata
Gifu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Gifu)	Private	Katsumi Takahashi
Isé Shimbun (Mié)	300,000	Yoshiharu Matsumoto
Hokkoku Shimbun (Ishikawa)	150,000	Masataké Hayashi
Goshu Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Shiga)	200,000	Shichiemon Nakamura
Kyoto Hinodé Shimbun (Kyoto)	500,000	Bunzo Gokawa
Kyoto Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Kyoto)	500,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Kobé Shimbun (Hyogo)	500,000	Nobuyoshi Shindo
Kobé Yushin Nippo (Hyogo)	500,000	Ryo Noma
Japan Chronicle (Hyogo)	Private	Douglas George Young
Chugoku Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Hyogo)	200,000	Yoshio Uchida
Tokushima Nichi Nichi Shimpo (Tokushima)	150,000	Yen Matsushima
Sanin Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Tottori)	250,000	Eijiro Miyoshi
Chugoku Minpo (Okayama)	300,000	Seiichiro Kakihara
Chugoku Shimbun (Hiroshima)	300,000	Saburo Yamamoto
Kwammon Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Yamaguchi)	Private	Tetsunosuké Suemitsu
Fukuoka Nichi Nichi Shimbun (Fukuoka)	1,000,000	Shingo Nakaé
Kyushu Nippo (Fukuoka)	600,000	Jiro Kono

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	Capitalization	Presidents or Representatives
Nagasaki Shimbun (Nagasaki)	100,000	Tatsujiro Hashimoto
Kyushu Shimbun (Kumamoto)	300,000	Daishiro Takagi
Kagoshima Shimbun (Kagoshima)	Private	Saneyoshi Kodama
Hokkai Times (Sapporo, Hokkaido)	800,000	Takeshi Azuma
Otaru Shimpo (Otaru, Hokkaido)	460,000	Toshihisa Ueda
Hakodaté Mainichi Shimbun (Hakodaté, Hokkaido)	300,000	Tsuguo Okuda
Karafuto Jiji Shimbun (Maoka, Karafuto)	150,000	Juntaro Nagai
Taiwan Nichi Nichi Shimpo (Formosa)	1,000,000	Toru Kawamura
Keijo Nippo (Korea)	500,000	Tatsuo Nakao
Manshu Nippo (Dairen)	750,000	Chujiro Matsuyama
Manchuria Daily News (Dairen)	Private	Yasutaro Takayanagi
Hoten Mainichi Shimbun (Mukden)	200,000	Kinshi Matsumiya
Shengking Jihpao (Mukden)	350,000	Yasuzo Soméya

Advertisements

Naturally advertisements form one of the largest sources of income of the newspaper business, along with the subscription fees. About ten large papers in Japan carry the majority of advertisements in the country; while other papers are doing a poor business in this field. For example, the Tokyo Nichi Nichi Shimbun secured altogether 527,000 lines of advertisements for April, 1932, and the Tokyo Asahi Shimbun acquired 422,000 lines of advertisements in addition to the "Want Ads." for the same month; but, in reality, their income from advertisements has been yearly decreasing, in spite of the fact that strenuous efforts are being made by leading papers for selling space. Eight large advertising service agents in Tokyo are supplying advertisements to daily newspapers on commission. These agents are the Nippon Dempo, Hakuhodo, Toyokuni Tsushin, Shojikisha, Kokokusha, Kohodo, Keikasha and Mannensha. "Want Ad." rates of the Tokyo Nichi Nichi and Tokyo Asahi are as follows:

	3 Line Ad.			5 Line Ad.			10 Line Ad.	
	Nichi Nichi	Asahi		Nichi Nichi	Asahi		Nichi Nichi	Asahi
Once	¥2.50	2.00	Once	4.20	4.00	Once	8.00	7.80
3 times	2.30	1.80	3 times	4.00	3.80	3 times	7.50	7.30
10 times	2.00	1.60	10 times	3.80	3.20	10 times	7.00	6.80
15 times	1.70	1.40	15 times	3.40	2.80	15 times	6.60	6.50
20 times	1.50	1.30	20 times	2.80	2.60	20 times	6.30	6.00

Newspaper Organizations

The Japan Newspaper Association (Nippon Shimbun Kyokai) This consists of daily newspapers, news agencies and advertising agencies under Japanese management; it was founded in 1913. His Imperial Highness Prince Naruhiko Higashikuni has been honorary president of this association since 1926. Count Keigo Kiyoura, former Premier, is president and Mr. Hoshio Mitsunaga, president of Nippon Dempo, is director-in-chief. It has among its honorary members noted persons such as Mr. Iichiro Tokutomi, Mr. Yukio Ozaki, Mr. Seiichi Uyéno, Dr. Jujiro Miyaké, Dr. Minoru Oka, Mr. Ukichi Oshima and Mr. Takeshi Azuma. The association membership includes almost all the Japanese daily newspapers. The Shunjukai is a social club of

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newspaper editors, magazine writers and correspondents. It was organized in 1908 and has among its members leading newspapermen and magazine writers of Tokyo. The Nijuichinichikai is composed of high editorial staff members of daily newspapers. It was established in 1926. Its members are editorial directors, managers, news editors and other men of important positions in the editorial service of influential papers. The Shimbunkisha Club (Newspapermen's Association) consists of newspapermen and news agency reporters mostly connected with the business of the Imperial Diet. The Federation of Newspapermen and News Agency Reporters was organized in 1931. It consists of 46 newspapermen and news agency reporters' clubs which are connected with various governmental institutions and economic and financial bodies. Leading newspaper and news agency reporters' clubs are as follows:

Nagata Club	Connected with the Cabinet
Kasumi Club	Foreign Office
Yamashita Club	Seiyukai
Sakurada Club	Minseito
Kunai Kisha Kai	Imperial Household Department
Kokuchokai	Navy Ministry
Rikugunsho Kisha Club	Army Ministry
Naimu Kisha Club	Home Office
Takebashi Club	Ministry of Education
Zaisei Club	Ministry of Finance
Kinyu Club	Bank of Japan
Nosei Club	Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Unemé Club	Ministry of Commerce and Industry
Kabuto Club	Stock Exchange
Tetsudo Kisha Club	State Railways
Shiho Kisha Club	Ministry of Justice
Tokyo Undo Kisha Club	Modern Sports

Newspaper Courses in Universities The Meiji University and Jochi University, Tokyo, opened their newspaper courses in April, 1932. The Newspaper School (Shimbun Gakuin), founded by Mr. Shinjiro Yamané, of the Kokumin Shimbun, sent out its first graduates numbering 40 in December, 1932. The Tokyo Imperial University Journalism Course, established as a section of the Department of Literature was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Hideo Ono is in charge of the course. Lecturers include noted newspapermen and magazine proprietors having many years' journalistic experience. The Newspaper Course of the Jochi University was opened in April, 1932. Mr. Ono is in charge of this course also.

Students' Newspapers At the end of 1932 there were 51 so-called students' newspapers in Japan. These papers are published by universities and schools once a week or once or twice a month. The Teikoku Daigaku Shimbun, issued by the Tokyo Imperial University, is one of the largest of its kind and is issued every Monday. It is an eight-page paper, which was founded in 1920. The Kyoto Imperial University also issues a newspaper of the kind. The Mita Shimbun is issued by the Keio University and is one of the oldest and most influential of those published by private universities. It was founded in 1917.

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Publications

A Historical Summary

The number of books published in Japan prior to 1881 is not accurately known. But judged from the records and catalogues of books now existing, they may be roughly taken as follows:

About 1,800 between the time of founding the country and one year before the time when the Shogunate Government was established at Kamakura.

About 5,000 since the establishment of the Shogunate Government at Kamakura until one year before the time when the Tokugawa Shogunate was established.

About 60,000 between the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the Meiji Restoration.

About 130,000 between the 1st and the 10th year of Meiji, 33,819 between the 10th and the 13th year of Meiji, and 679,368 between 1881 and 1924. Statistics for latest years follow:

1925	18,028
1926	20,212
1927	19,967
1928	19,880
1929	21,111
1930	22,476
1931	23,110
1932	22,104
1933	24,025
1934	26,331

Publications in 1934

General The publication of the country in 1934 was remarkable in that it showed a tremendous increase in the number of books put out. Viewed from the standpoint of contents of these books those on religion were so overwhelmingly large in number that in the latter part of the year books written on other subjects were overpowered by them. Aside from religious subjects, the book like "Japan-American Baseball Game" sold somewhere around 150,000 copies. But this was only an exception. In examining books written on subjects other than religion, it is found that it followed the footsteps of the preceding year. Publications on radicalism and fascism which were once so popular decidedly lessened in number and there were not more than ten of this description published. The contents of some of these books, did not go beyond expounding theories in an abstract manner. On the other hand, in view of the so-called crisis of 1935-6 and of the social conditions of the country, the mobilization of the moral forces of the people was considered necessary, and this was directly reflected on the publication of books.

Number of Publications The number of books published in 1934 was 26,331 (excluding publications by the Government), and was the largest ever seen. The tendency is that the number of publications is on the increase since 1932. This is especially marked in 1934, in which the increase over the previous year was 2,306. The figures for 1933 and 1934 as classified according to the kinds are as follows:

Kind of books	1933	1934
Ordinary books	16,472	16,921
Pamphlets and leaflets	5,468	7,117
Hand-bills	422	701
Photographs, maps, musical notes, drawings	1,663	1,592
Total	24,025	26,331

The comparative figures of publications in 1933 and 1934 show that a great increase in publications was shown in 1934 in three categories of

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books, pamphlets and leaflets, and hand-bills. The examination of the subjects of publications amply shows the tendency prevailing in this country in 1934. The fact that the issue of hand-bills increased in a great proportion as compared with the previous year was due to the fact that labour disputes occurred in many places, the most important of which being that occurred in Tokyo between the Electric Department of Tokyo municipality and its employees.

Classification by Subjects Publications may be classified according to their contents into 31 kinds. Brief comments may be given on a few of them :

(A) Politics There were 704 books written on politics in 1934. As compared with 581 published in 1933, the increase was 123. The reason of the increase is that due to the change of the Cabinet, pamphlets with comments on the old and new Cabinets appeared in great numbers. Books which contained mere adaptations of the Western ideas disappeared, and their place was taken by publications which treated the subjects from the viewpoint or with reference to the Japanese spirit. This tendency was visible in 1933, but it was far more accentuated in 1934.

(B) Law There were published in 1934 635 books on law, which, as compared with 699 of the year before, showed a decrease of 64. Publication of books on law does not generally vary in number to any great extent every year. The reason that an unusual increase was witnessed in 1933 was that laws such as Draft and Cheque Law, Prevention of Cruelty to the Children Law, Regulations of Automobiles, and Pension Law were either enacted or revised, so that many books giving interpretations of new laws were published.

(C) Economics In 1934, 1,005 books on economics were published, which, as compared with 1,128 of 1933, showed a decrease of 123. The reason was that in 1933 translation of many books on economic conditions in the world, especially those in Great Britain and the United States of America, were published.

(D) Sociology In 1934, 832 books on sociology were published, which, compared with 990 of 1933, showed a decrease of 158. This was the tendency in the past several years, which is significant as reflecting the social conditions of the country. As explained before, publications on radicalism and fascism, or those which deal with the subjects on thought had been decreasing for some time and it is not too much to say that publications of that nature ceased to come out in 1934. These publications were being rapidly replaced by books which purported to arouse the Japanese spirit. The table below shows statistics of publications on sociology in the past four years :—

Year	1931	1932	1933	1934
Number	1,279	1,321	990	832

The great increase in 1932 was due to the fact that books on fascism was very popular. This, however, did not last long, and showed a great decrease in 1933, making a further decrease since then.

(E) Religion In 1934, 1,339 books on religion were published, which, compared with 1,045 of 1933, showed a great increase of 294. Books on religion, to which much attention had not been paid till a few years ago, became extremely popular in 1934. The lectures on the sacred books by the broadcasting, evidently set the vogue and swept the publication circle. But the question remains

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if this tendency is destined to live long, for popularity of books seems to have no firm basis to stand on or the present popularity of religious books can not be regarded as a sign of religious revival.

(F) Military Affairs It deserves an attention that books on military affairs have increased a great deal in recent years. In 1934, the number published was 407, which, compared with 156 of 1933, show that it made a tremendous increase by 2.6 times. It explains how the people were aroused on the subject. Those published in October and November, were mostly those which treated the London Naval Disarmament Talks.

1933 and 1934 Compared The number of books published in 1933 and 1934 classified according to contents, and their comparative figures follow:

Books on	1933	1934	Increase or decrease in 14
Politics	581	704	123
Law	699	635	− 64
Economics	1,128	1,005	−123
Sociology	990	832	−158
Military affairs	156	407	251
Statistics	104	130	26
Shintoism	226	217	− 9
Religion	1,045	1,336	294
Philosophy	564	985	421
Education	2,727	2,798	71
Text-books	1,948	1,809	−139
Literature	2,652	2,431	−221
Languages	862	1,114	252
History	455	470	15
Biography	302	532	230
Geography	708	986	278
Travel	47	77	30
Mathematics	87	202	115
Physics	458	448	− 10
Engineering	387	724	337
Medicine	771	809	38
Industry	435	1,166	731
Transportation	73	151	78
Fine arts	844	907	63
Music	915	888	− 27
Amusement	451	552	101
Household	1,020	1,163	43
Handicrafts	94	67	− 27
Dictionaries	151	134	− 17
Series	18	234	216
Miscellaneous	3,027	2,415	−612

Of the total number of publications during the year 1934, 16,611 or 63 per cent. were published in Tokyo.

Merger of Two Printing Companies The question of merger of four largest printing companies in Tokyo, viz. Kyodo, Toppan, Nisshin and Shuei Sha arose sometime in the summer of 1932. If the merger materialized, it was thought that all the large orders of printing of books or magazines would be monopolized by the new company, and the other small printing firms would then be compelled to do only miscelleneous works, and its outcome was watched with very keen interest. Nothing was heard about the merger since then. In the meantime a new proposition for a merger was made through Mr. Giichi Masuda, member of the House of Representatives, who is director of both the Nisshin and the Shuei Sha. Two companies held a temporary shareholders' meeting on the 2nd of May, 1934, and passed officially the resolution for the merger. The new company has a capital of ¥6,000,000, of which ¥4,250,000 is paid up. The capital of the new company is the mathematical sum of ¥2,000,000 (of which ¥1,250,000 was paid up) of the Nisshin and ¥4,000,000 (of which ¥3,000,000 was paid up) of the Shuei Sha. Each of the two former companies has equal claims to the new company.

Imports and Exports During the Meiji and Taisho eras the imports of publications far exceeded the exports. The balance, however, gradually decreased because of a steady increase in exports. In 1934 the total value of imports amounted to ¥2,266,436 against ¥1,921,996 of exports. The destinations of the exports were mainly the countries where the Japanese are residing in great numbers, such as the Kwantung Province, Manchoukuo, the U.

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S. A., the Hawaii Islands and China. The countries from which books are exported to this country are, in the order of importance, England, Germany, the U. S. A. and France. Details follow:

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF BOOKS AND PERIODICALS

(in Yen)

	Exports		Imports	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Manchoukuo	263,628	412,755	9,488	9,456
Kwantung Province	341,573	577,903	3,908	6,378
China	159,227	210,559	6,964	21,807
Hong-Kong	3,350	8,968	250	—
British India	1,898	3,316	162	961
Straits Settlements	40,572	48,538	465	649
British Borneo	1,103	1,500	—	—
Dutch East Indies	2,245	8,243	481	383
French Indo-China	272	66	7	—
Asiatic Russia	1,138	806	136	40
Philippine Islands	28,285	26,277	5	—
Siam	342	170	2	185
Great Britain	12,094	15,550	547,950	818,827
France	3,807	10,901	101,347	139,540
Germany	11,547	44,643	563,203	790,828
Belgium	3,220	214	1,272	1,954
U.S.A.	270,250	293,112	266,274	446,789
Canada	20,772	23,811	6,511	3,470
Peru	4,778	2,968	—	—
Brazil	24,163	40,969	826	—
Australia	703	5,887	—	—
Hawaii	179,179	173,616	—	—
Others and Total	1,383,137	1,921,996	1,531,506	2,266,436

Public Libraries Public libraries both official and private are to be found in all parts of Japan. During 1933 there were 4,686 public libraries throughout Japan.

The largest public library in Japan is the Imperial Library situated in Uyéno Park, Tokyo. Here large reading rooms allow visitors by the thousand to be seated comfortably. There are a countless number of old and new books stored for public perusal. A feature of this library is the large number of books from foreign countries which the institution possesses for its visitors. Books may also be taken outside, but this privilege is enjoyed only by yearly subscribers. The Tokyo Imperial University Library, rebuilt following the earthquake and fire of 1923, is another large library in Japan.

The following table gives detailed figures regarding the number of public libraries, both official and private, and the number of visitors, and the number of books collected:

Table Showing No. of Libraries, Visitors and Collection of Books

Year	No. of libraries	No. of collection of books	No. of visitors
1929	4,490	8,592,000	22,847,000
1930	4,553	9,276,000	22,835,000
1931	4,609	9,636,000	23,355,000
1932	4,609	10,138,000	24,980,000
1933	4,686	10,563,000	24,766,000

Magazines

Historical One of the oldest magazines in Japan was the "Meirokuzasshi" which was published in 1873. But this magazine was full of heavy material only suitable for scholars.

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It was four years later that a number of magazines to cater to popular interest came into existence. The magazine named "Marumaru-chimbun", for instance, was one of these and was full of sarcastic verses, popular lyrics and also of many laughter-provoking cartoons. Short stories were also favourable reading matters in it. For novels principally appeared the "Hodan-zasshi". For pleasure-reading the "Robunchimpo." There also appeared a magazine named "Tokyo-shinshi" written chiefly in Chinese, but decidedly erotical. There were also such ones as the "Homei-shinshi," "Moon and Snapping Turtle" and "Kwagetsu-shinshi," and "Shimbunshi."

The "Homei-shinshi" was a more or less imitation of the "Tokyo-shinshi." The "Tsuki-to-Suppon" (Moon and Snapping Turtle) was largely a cartoon paper. The "Kwagetsu-shinshi" (Flower and Moon Magazine) was a pure literary paper under the editorship of Ryuho Narishima and lasted about five years from 1879. The "Shimbunshi" (New Proses and Verses) was under the editorship of Shunto Mori. Political magazines also were not slow to arise. The "Ohmei-shinshi" was a private organ of democratic politicians such as Saburo Shimada, Ikuzo Ohoka and Ryo Koyezuka and was full of fervent articles of democratic principles. The "Fuso-shinshi" was also another of this type of magazines, and there were many others of this sort of papers. No one, however, lasted long, because they all evoked official ban soon. Among these political magazines there was one "Dekinei-sodan" which is remembered by the imprisonment of Eitaro Komatsubara, later Education Minister, on account of his anti-Government articles. It was not, however, Mr. Komatsubara alone who was sent to jail on account of one's political view outspoken in letters. Many were imprisoned on account of similar offences. Ryuhoku Narishima of the "Kwagetsu-shinshi" was once forced to spend months in jail. As the day of the first opening of Parliament drew nearer, the number of political magazines increased. In 1886 the "Chuo Koron" (Central Review) was first published. The year 1887 was an epoch-making in the history of magazines in Japan as it was in February of that year that Mr. Iichiro (Soho) Tokutomi started a publishing society named "Minyusha" with the "Kokumin-no-tomo" as its organ which surpassed all other periodicals of the day in the amount of circulation. A few months later the Kokumin Shimbun, a daily paper, was published by the same society headed by Soho Tokutomi. In June the Hakubun-kwan was brought into existence which soon published the "Nippon Taika Ronshu" (Essays by Great Scholars). This resulted in a big success. The "Jogaku-zasshi" (Ladies' Magazine) of Zenji Iwamoto, the "Kyoiku-hochi" (Educational News) of Sannosuké Kusakabé and the "Tetsugaku-kwai Zasshi" (Philosophical association magazine) of Yenryo Inouyé, were publshed almost simultaneously. The circulation of the aforesaid "Nippon Taika Ronshu" was indeed an epoch-making in the sales of all published matters in those days. In 1889 the Hakubunkwan published the "Nippon no Shonen" (Children of Japan) which surpassed the "Nippon Taika Ronshu" in the amount of circulation. Even that, however, counted only ten thousand, a fact quite uncomparable to the modern colossal number of successful publishing matters. The business condition of the Hakubunkwan went on successfully and in January, 1895, they published the

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"Taiyo" (Sun) which soon secured 50,000 readers. In 1904 another hit was made by the issue of the "Nichi-Ro Senso Shashin Gaho" (graphic news of the Russo-Japanese War) which was published alongside the "Nichi Ro Senso Jikki" (true stories of the Russo-Japanese War), with 150,000 copies published. Some months later such magazines as the "Jitsugyo no Nippon" (Japan of Business), "Fujin-sekai" (World of Women), "Nipon Shonen" (Youths of Japan) etc. were published by Mr. Giichi Masuda which caused a great sensation among the magazine people. Another noted publisher of those days was a certain Mr. Shimada who published a number of periodicals for youths and children and also for arts to an equally big surprise to other publishers. It is of interest to note that both Mr. Masuda and Mr. Shimada as well as Mr. O-hashi of the Hakubun-kwan were men from Niigata prefecture. In 1919 the "Kaizo" was published and became a good rival of the "Chuo Koron" which had attained leading position in the magazine world of Japan by this time. Years later came another big magazine man and he was Mr. Seiji Noma, now president of the Dai Nippon Yuben-kai (Eloquency Society of Great Nippon) and also president of the Hochi, one of the leading dailies in Tokyo. His first periodical enterprise was the "Yuben" (Eloquency) which was followed by the "Kodan" (Heroic Story) "Club" "King", "Fujin (Women) Club" and "Gendai" (Present Day). It is a matter of surprise, indeed, that the circulation of the "King" numbers one million copies monthly. In the meantime, the "Taiyo" of the Hakubun-kwan which lasted 36 years disappeared from the magazine world. Soon a rival of the "King" in the bigness of circulation appeared and that was the "Shufu-no Tomo" (Friend of Household Wives) by Mr. Takeyoshi Ishikawa.

Present State At present these two, the "King" and the "Shufu no Tomo", are the two rival million scale periodicals in Japan, and following them are the "Hino-dé" (Sun-rising) of the Shincho-sha, "Kaizo" (Reconstruction) of the Kaizo-sha, "Chuo-koron" (Central Review) of the Chuo-koron-sha, Bungei-shunjyu" (Literary Review) of the Bungei-shunjyu-sha, etc. all of which are for popular interest or for women.

Hardly a month passes without seeing seven or eight new magazines. Of course, this increase is counteracted by those which are discontinued. After all, however, whilst there is continuously a great number of magazines that disappear, there are constant recruits.

Serious Periodicals Those patronized by intelligentsia are the "Chuo Koron", the "Kaizo", the "Gaiko Jiho", and others. The last mentioned one is specialized in foreign affairs, but the first mentioned two have a wide sphere of current topics treated in them. Politics, social affairs, economic depression, education, religion and other matters are substantially printed. These magazines have readers of many years' standing. The "Bungei Shunju" prints mostly literary articles in its regular issues and fictions and novels in its special issues. The Nihon Gaiji Kyokai, otherwise known as the Foreign Affairs' Association of Japan, which was founded in 1931, publishes a monthly titled the "Kokusai Hyoron" (International Review), which characterizes in printing articles regarding events of international and domestic affairs of a serious nature. The association also issues an English-language

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quarterly, "Contemporary Japan", which is the only English-language magazine in Japan treating politics, foreign affairs, economy, finance and social problems of this country. These Gaiji Kyokai periodicals are read by people of enlightened class and rank among magazines of the most advanced status in this country.

Economic and Woman's Journals Students of economy and finance in Japan and close observers of industrial situation of Japan take interest in reading the "Diamond", the "Economist" and the "Toyo Keizai", all claiming a high reputation for many years as economic periodicals. The first-mentioned especially is read by investors in securities. Magazines standing for nationalism are read widely along with a general tendency, of which nationalism is gaining momentum, while those of communist taint are neglected. However, magazines for State socialism are not at all to be despised by reading public. As women's magazines, the "Fujin Koron", the "Fujin Club", the "Shufu-no Tomo", etc., are read widely among young women.

LIST OF PRINCIPAL PERIODICALS

Politics, Law and Social Magazines:
- Chuo Koron (Central Review)
- Kaizo (Reconstruction)
- Kokusai Hyoron (International Review)
- Sekai Chishiki (World Knowledge)
- Shakaiseisaku Jiho (Social Policy Review)
- Kokusai Chishiki (International Knowledge)
- Gaiko Jiho (Diplomatic Review)
- Bungei Shunju (Literary Review)
- Hogaku Shimpo (Science of Law)

Finance and Economic Magazines:
- Toyo Keizai Shimpo (Oriental Economic Review)
- Economist
- Diamond
- Keizai Orai (Economic Review)
- Keizai Chishiki (Economic Knowledge)
- Keizai (Economy)

Popular Magazines:
- King
- Hinodé (Rising Sun)
- Kodan Kurabu (Kodan Story Magazine)
- Gendai (Present Generation)
- All Yomimono (all Stories)
- Hanashi (Story)
- Shinseinen (New Young Generation)

Literary Magazines:
- Bungei (Literary arts)
- Bungaku (Literature)
- Bungaku Hyoron (Literary Review)
- Shincho (New tide)
- Araragi, a waka magazine
- Hototogisu, a haiku magazine
- Butai (Stage)

Woman's Magazines:
- Fujin Koron (Woman's Review)
- Fujin Kurabu (Woman's Club)
- Shufu-no Tomo (Friend of Ladies)
- Fujin-no Tomo (Woman's Friend)

NUMBER AND KINDS OF MONTHLY MAGAZINES

Kind of magazines	Number of magazines
For children	62
,, boys and girls in elementary schools	12
,, ladies and families	21
On amusements and cartoons	21
On moving pictures	16
,, dramas	6
,, literature	35
,, poetry	5
,, songs	15
,, haiku verse (seventeen syllable epigram)	18
,, fine arts and calligraphy	15
,, photographs	7
,, music	11
,, popular science and radio	10
,, athletics and physical culture	14

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Kind of magazines	Number of magazines
For youths, and on culture and military affairs	9
On languages	81
,, mathematics, and for undergoing entrance examinations to various schools	19
,, education	80
,, laws	17
,, politics, sociology and reviews	73
,, economics, finance and commerce	71
,, industry and engineering	41
,, farming and agricultural science	25
,, religion	22
,, sciences	58
,, medicine and hygiene	83
,, taste	13
,, travel and mountaineering	11
Miscellaneous	7
Total	782

Statistics of Newspapers and Magazines

The statistics of the publication of newspapers and magazines since 1875 is appended for convenience. The figures are those of newspapers and magazines published in accordance with the newspaper law. The statistics prior to 1875 is not available.

Year	Total	(No. of Newspapers)
1875	53	—
1885	821	—
1895	753	—
1905	1,775	—
1915	2,851	—
1925	6,899	—
1926	7,600	(5,089)
1927	8,350	(5,438)
1928	8,445	(5,482)
1929	9,191	(5,917)
1930	10,180	(5,995)
1931	10,666	(6,290)
1932	10,960	(6,301)
1933	11,880	(6,678)
1934	12,056	—

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CHAPTER XXXV

LITERATURE, ARTS AND MUSIC

Literature

History

Yamato Period The history of Japanese literature may be divided, in accordance with the political development of the country, into 6 periods: the Yamato, Heian, Kamakura, Muromachi, Yedo and Tokyo periods. The Yamato period comprises the Kodai (archaic period) and the Nara age that followed. The term, Yamato, is derived from the district of Yamato wherein was the seat of the Imperial capital throughout that age. This nascent age of Japanese literature ended in 781 A. D., with the removal of the Imperial capital to Kyoto, then called Heian, by the Emperor Kammu. It may seem improper to include so long a period under one section, but this early stage of Japanese literary growth can thus conveniently be considered as one concrete age, and be studied as such.

(1) Literary works. The literary works which reveal the mind of the Yamato period and which are still extant, are: the Kojiki, Nihonshoki, Fudoki, Norito, Senmyo, Mannyoshu, Kaifuso, and Nihonraiki. The principal writers are: Ohno-Yasumaro, Toneri-shinno, Yamabéno-Akahito, Kakinomotono-Hitomaro, Yamanoeno-Okura, Otomono-Yakamochi, Ohmino-Mifuné, besides certain sages of the prehistoric age. The last mentioned, Ohmino-Mifuné, was proficient in Chinese classics and poetry.

(2) Development and classification. Narrative prose and lyric verse assumed concrete form in this period. From a literary point of view the writings of the period can be divided into two sections: works in descriptive style, of which the Kojiki is the main representative; and poetry that followed, with the Mannyoshu[1] anthology as the typical poetic composition.

Individual self-consciousness realized meagre general development; instead, a collective sense controlled society. But ample evidence of a pure national spirit is seen. In the latter part of this period alien ideas were introduced from China and India, but could not find their way deeply into the minds of the people. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the literary achievements

1 Mannyoshu (or Manyoshu) The anthology is considered to be one of the greatest poetical attainments of the nation not only in this period, but all through the Japanese history of literature. Its compiler is unknown. The period, in which the poets of the book lived, covers 450 years from 313 to 764 A.D., and the range of the social standard of the poets extends to all classes from the Emperor down to the farmer or the hermit. The book contains 4,496 poems, which consist of 262 long poems, 4,172 waka and 62 others. Their themes are taken from human relations, love, lamentation, the four seasons, and natural scenery. They are written in the Yamato dialect with Chinese characters. The eminent anthologists in it are Kakinomotono-Hitomaro of the epic long poems; Yamanouéno-okura of the long lyrics who took his themes from social and economic problems of his day; Yamabeno-aka-hito, the only poet on nature among the group; Ohtomono-yakamochi who is believed to be the compiler of the book himself by many critics, and Nukatano-ohogimi and Sakanoé-iratsumé, who distinctly tower above many poetesses who left beautiful love songs with the anthology to their posterity.

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of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Heian Period The Heian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Heian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Heian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Heian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. The period may further be subdivided into the following four sections:

Early Heian period (781-884)
Middle Heian period (885-980)
Mature Heian period (981-1064)
Last Heian period (1065-1182)

(1) Early Heian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among poetical works are the Ryounshu, Bunkashureishu, Keikokushu, while among authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Oyeno-Otondo, Sugawarano-Koreyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukeyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-lettres was taken by Japanese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the Rokkasen, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Onono-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisen-hoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the Taketori-monogatari and the Isé-monogatari.

(2) Middle Heian period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like tidal waves. In poetry works like the Kokin-wakashu and Gosen-wakashu are prominent, while in fiction such works as the Utsubo and Ochikubo and Tosa-nikki, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Heian period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Heian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazome-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanekata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared woman novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Seisho-nagon, the former being

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the authoress of the Genji-monogatari,[1] while the latter composed the Makurano-soshi, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colouring blossomed all at one time.

(4) Last Heian period. A general survey of the period gives the impression of its being politically transitional from Imperial rule to Shogunate administration. Along with the decline of the Fujiwara family in power, literature also hastened towards decline. And in consequence, towards the early part of the period the literary cult turned from novels to historical works, producing the Eiga-monogatari and Okagami. In the realm of poetry also a new tendency was apparent, which gave birth to such noted poets as Toshinari Fujiwara and Saigyohoshi ; and at the same time a scientific criticism of poetry was initiated and prevailed under students like Mototoshi Fujiwara, Toshiyori Minamoto, and Kiyosuké Fujiwara.

(5) General development. The most characteristic feature of the period lies in the movement from impromptu and lyrical poetry to stories and narration which require plots and objectification of things. The instinctive or primitive sentiment of the Mannyoshu precedes the more intellectual Kokinshu ; and the Shikashu that followed is pervaded by more meditative and philosophical reflections. With reference to prose, the myths and legends appearing in the Mannyoshu and Kiki (short for Kojiki and Nihonshoki) underwent mutation and took the form of narrative tales in the Taketori-monogatari and the Isé-monogatari. This realistic tendency was further augmented by the Utsubo-monogatari, and later produced the famous Genji-monogatari, turning its direction thenceforward toward historical compositions, such as the Eiga-monogatari and the Okagami. To enhance this realistic tendency of the time legends and fairy tales mingling with current realism regained their former influence, producing the Konjaku-monogatari, a fairy tale dealing with supernatural and supersensuous things. Furthermore, amid this abundance of literary composition there are others with characteristic features common to meditative, lyrical literature, namely the Tosa-nikki, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Makurano-soshi, Izumi-shikibu-nikki, Tombo-nikki, Tonominé-shosho-monogatari and Sarashina-nikki.

Kamakura Period The period of about 150 years, beginning with the Minamotono-Yoritomo Shogunate government at Kamakura in 1182 and ending in the Kemmu era of 1334, is called the Kamakura period, in the history of our literature. For the first 50 years literature was under the influence of the preceding Heian period ; but the one hundred years that followed saw two literary currents sweeping against each other, one at Kyoto, the cultural centre,

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Genji-monogatari means the Tale of Genji, mainly a love story between the hero Genji and several heroines. It is also a most vivid picture of a civilization, nine hundred years ago, probably as refined, though in the central city only, and certainly as colourful, as the world has ever known. The most striking thing about the book is how modern, how universal is its feeling. It reflects the Oriental characteristics in every line and still shows human nature very much the same as the Occidental.

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and the other at Kamakura, the pivot of political authority. Although, during the period, there was no literary movement worthy of special mention, yet it created its own literary atmosphere which resulted in the production of numerous so-called war-tales and religious literature.

(1) Kamakura literature. The fact that the emotional and sentimental tendency of earlier ages gradually turned to philosophical meditation during this period explains why the works of the time are generally void of individual touch while being true to type. Buddhist pessimism then dominated social thought. The popularization of the Buddhist religion in this period was the result of the natural growth of that religion on the one hand, and of the reaction of public sentiment against the ceaseless civil wars, on the other.

(2) Representative works. War literature, like the Hogen-monogatari, Heiji-monogatari, Heiké-monogatari and the Gempei-seisuiki, is the most outstanding production of the age. Just as in the preceding period, when literary material was gathered from historical facts, so in the Kamakura period subjects were sought for from the social conditions obtaining when bloodshed, side by side with the simple, artless life of the samurai, completely saddened and subdued public sentiment. With reference to waka, inspired by the advent of well-known poetical works like the Shin-chokusenshu, were born the Zoku-gojuishu and Kinkaishu. The Shin-kokinshu, another anthology of poetry, shows the highest point that Japanese poetry had so far reached. The Kinkaishu suggests a return to the Mannyoshu, while the Shin-chokusenshu gives an impression of having reached the acme of poetical refinement, retracing its way back to the beauty of simplicity. It is a pity, however, that rival influences between groups of literary men and critics in study of literary theory left the healthy development of literature very much handicapped. Ranking as principal poets of the period were Gotoba-joko, Tsuchimikado-joko, Juntoku-joko, Yoshitsuné, Sadaié, Iyetaka, Jakuran and Sanetomo.

Muromachi Period The Muromachi period is the term applied to the 270 years sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa periods, beginning in 1335 when Takauji Ashikaga rebelled against the Emperor Godaigo and terminating in 1603 when Iyeyasu Tokugawa removed the Shogunate government to Yedo.

(1) Muromachi literature. In consequence of civil disturbance in the preceding age, the literary movement of the period was rather stagnant: the Court nobles were deprived of their positions, while the militarists, taking advantage of the disorderly administration of the central government, exercised an unfavourable influence on the natural development of literary talent generally. Nevertheless, even in such helpless social conditions, the period had the literature peculiar to such an age. Despite the troublesome yoke of historical events, there emerged a certain free and simple literary style; hence, instead of the waka, tales, and diaries, that flourished down to the close of the last period, such descriptions of war and historical tales as the Masukagami, Jinnoshotoki, Taiheiki, Yoshitsuneki and Soga-monogatari were born, besides rambling notes like the Tsurezuregusa, with their own characteristic attractions.

(2) New Forms of Literature. It is worthy of special mention that in this chaotic period originated such new literary forms as the renka,

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yokyoku (utai), kyogen and otogi-soshi, which saw full development in the following period. Tanka (or waka) verse developed and gave birth to a more diminutive mode, the haikai (or haiku); kyogen evolved into joruri and drama; while otogi-soshi reappeared in the form of novels and plays, all in the period that followed. Herein we notice the beginnings of modern thought, the product of classicism evolving into modernism, and aristocracy into plebeianism. The Muromachi period thus occupies an important position in our literary history, functioning as a bridge that connects the preceding periods with the more illustrious Yedo literature. Another thing worthy of note in this connection is the creation at this time of the Kanazawa Bunko, the Ashikaga-gakko and the Gozan-bungaku, the first two being seats of learning and the last a branch of literature.

Yedo Period The Yedo period begins in 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate took up the task of civil government in Yedo, and ends, after 265 years, in 1868, when the Meiji Restoration was accomplished. This forms the most important section in the history of Japanese literature. The Yedo literature succeeded the decadent Muromachi literature and handed on its wealth of achievement to the Meiji period. The remarkable fecundity of this era is to be attributed to various factors, but to none more fundamental than the good government of Iyeyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line. Realizing the importance of the diffusion of learning for good government, he engaged Confucian scholars, published books, started schools and collected rare literary works. The example thus set by the first Shogun was emulated by succeeding Shoguns, each striving to open up the way for easier access to knowledge and culture both in town and country, until in the Genroku era under the rule of the fourth Shogun, Tsunayoshi, national culture reached its highest stage of development. The Yedo period may be divided into the following four sections:

Centered around Osaka and Kyoto,

1. Period of enlightenment (1603-1680)
2. Period of development (1681-1741)

Yedo as the centre,

3. The period of eastward advance of literature (1741-1791)
4. Period of maturity (1791-1868)

(1) Period of Enlightenment. True to its name, this period, following the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate in Yedo, saw the collection and publication of ancient books, and annotations thereof, as well as translations of Chinese literature. It is but natural that during this period nothing worthy of note was produced save as foundation work in preparation for what was to come. From another viewpoint this is the age when our traditionally mystic view of art, and our undue belief in tradition, greatly wanes in influence.

(2) Period of Development. A bird's-eye view of the period gives the impression of a rapid development in popular literature, with Osaka and Kyoto as the centre and the Genroku era as its climax. The origin of this literary movement is traceable to the Mitogaku, which later led to a renaissance of the classics; we see a revival of haikai verse under Basho, the poet; and then the appearance of Chikamatsu's joruri. Each made unfettered development within its own sphere of influence. Towards the close of the period, however, these branches of literature lost popularity, until eventually they could scarcely enjoy public recollection.

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of this awakening period are instinct with the noble national spirit of loyalty and ancestor-worship, permeated with the national traits of optimism, frankness, and genuine simplicity.

Heian Period The Heian period starts from the year in which the Emperor Kammu removed the Imperial palace to Kyoto, then called Heian, and ends in 1186 when the Shogunate government was established by Yoritomo Minamoto at Kamakura. This second literary period, covering nearly 400 years, following the period of dawn, saw Japanese prose and poetry reach full bloom.

Generally speaking, the literature of the period emerged from a style of clear-cut simplicity to one of elegance and delicacy, all literary productions assuming a mood of refined sentiment. In presentment likewise there appeared the graceful kana syllabary, in keeping with current ideas. This harmonization of content and form in the literature of the Heian period set an example to succeeding generations. The Heian period is thus the golden age of Japanese literary achievement. The period may further be subdivided into the following four sections:

Early Heian period (781-884)
Middle Heian period (885-980)
Mature Heian period (981-1064)
Last Heian period (1065-1182)

(1) Early Heian Period. During this period, imported Chinese culture exercised no small influence on the literary circles of the country, resulting in the popularity of Chinese classics and poetry. Among poetical works are the Ryounshu, Bunkashureishu, Keikokushu, while among authors were the Emperor Saga, Kukai, Onono-Takamura, Miyakono-Yoshika, Oyeno-Otondo, Sugawarano-Koreyoshi, Tachibanano-Hirosuké, Sugawarano-Michizané, Fujiwarano-Sukeyo and Miyoshi-Kiyoyuki. With the overwhelming influence wielded by these imitators in the domain of newly imported Chinese literature, the Japanese waka (31-syllabled poem) was threatened at one time with relegation to obscurity. But the situation was saved through realization of a proposal from Sugawarano-Michizané to discontinue the customary visits of Government envoys to China. In consequence, Chinese literature gradually lost its former influence, and the eminent position once occupied by this alien form of belles-lettres was taken by Japanese poetry. The forerunner of the revived waka verse was the Rokkasen, a collaboration of six representative poets, namely, Ariwarano-Narihira, Onono-Komachi, Bunyano-Yasuhidé, Kisen-hoshi and Otomono-Kuronushi. A further literary achievement of the period is the appearance of works in the Japanese kana syllabary, such as the Taketori-monogatari and the Isé-monogatari.

(2) Middle Heian period. This is the age of national consciousness when the waka poetry triumphed over Chinese forms, pushing itself forward like tidal waves. In poetry works like the Kokin-wakashu and Gosen-wakashu are prominent, while in fiction such works as the Utsubo and Ochikubo and Tosa-nikki, in Japanese kana syllabary, are representative products.

(3) Mature Heian period. This is the period in which the literary development of the Heian era attained the highest perfection, creating a golden age of prose. In the field of waka we have such poets as Izumi-shikibu, Akazome-Emon, Fujiwarano-Kinto, Fujiwara-Sanekata and Noin-hoshi, while in the realm of prose there appeared woman novelists, like Murasaki-shikibu and Seisho-nagon, the former being

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the authoress of the Genji-monogatari,[1] while the latter composed the Makurano-soshi, opening up a literary régime of women, as if flowers of innumerable variety and colouring blossomed all at one time.

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(3) Eastward Advance of Literature. This is the period when the so-called Kamigata literature of Kyoto and Osaka, began its movement eastward to establish a new literary movement in the city of Yedo, the seat of the Shogun's government. By this time the popular literature founded by Chikamatsu and Saikaku had declined. Buson became the representative haikai poet of the time. Besides haikai, there came into vogue in Yedo various kinds of short poetry, namely, senryu, witty epigrammatic verse; kyoka, comic verse; and kyobun, nonsense notes. Also in this period the so-called literature for men of the world cropped up, following the publication of the kibyoshi and sharébon.

(4) Period of Maturity. It was in this period that the construction of the main body of Yedo literature was completed. As a result of the encouragement of learning by the Shogun's highest official, Sadanobu Matsudaira, both art and learning made a remarkable advance, producing a number of artists, and authorities on Japanese and Chinese classics. Parallel with this phenomenal development of classics, popular literature resumed its firm grip on the public. Inasmuch, however, as during the latter half of the period the country was completely upset by troubles both from within and without, most of the literary progress was confined to the early part of the period. Nevertheless, this is known as the period when Yedo literature was crowned with full maturity.

What most characterize Yedo literature are its fecundity in kinds, volume of production and sphere of influence. Not only was it prolific but, all branches of art and learning, from the aristocratic classics down to kyoka, senryu, haikai, joruri (gidayu) and popular novels, showed systematic advancement. The social structure in those days could not but react on the taste and sentiment of the people, as is evidenced by the two different literary currents that prevailed throughout the period. Whereas the so-called aristocratic literature, which dominated those days, stood on a foundation of Bushido and Confucianism, the popular literature strove to create the epicurian's world. Each of these tendencies went on cultivating its own field of influence in its own respective class, yet what most aptly represents the characteristic features of Yedo literature is the stronger public appeal of popular literary works. These intellectual diversions of the common people, unlike the traditional, conservative and retrogressive taste of classical literature, are optimistic, and charged with the spirit of uplift and mirth. But the negative policy of the Tokugawa government proved an impeding factor in the healthful growth of popular literature, resulting in a gradual loss of individuality. In this way authorship gradually kept aloof from essential requirements of progressive art; the most glaring example of this deplorable tendency is clearly noticeable in Bakin's works.

Tokyo Period The Tokyo period of Japanese literature begins with the Meiji Restoration of 1868 and still happily continues in our present Showa era. In this short period of sixty-five years the volume of national literature surpasses any other period in Japanese history. The same can be said of its quality.

(1) A general survey of the literary movements of this period reveals the enormous influence exercised by Western literature; all works have thus been enriched in quality and enabled to rank among the most advanced literatures of the

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West. The present period can conveniently be subdivided into four sections in the following way, chronological figures being given for form's sake:

1. Period of transition (1868-1886)
2. Period of new literary movement (1887-1901)
3. Period of naturalism (1902-1910)
4. Period of neo-romanticism (1911-)

(1) Period of Transition. During this time the new and old forms and types of literature maintained coexistence, beginning with the earliest years of the Meiji era and terminating about the 12th year, when the Shosetsu-shinzui by Shoyo Tsubouchi was published. In the early part of the period, still under the influence of the reserve energy of the preceding Yedo period, the novels of Kanagaki-Robun, the plays of Kawataké-Mokuami, the Sosho style haiku all made their influence felt; but the tendency to inertia could not cope with the destructive invasion of European thought and principles; namely, the utilitarianism of Britain and America, the universal love and altruism of Christianity, French liberalism and German nationalism. To be more concrete, in the realm of fiction there appeared, through the influence of such English writers as Lytton and Scott, the Keikoku-bidan by Ryukei Yano, the Kajinno-kigu by Shiba-Tokaisanshi, Setchubai by Tetcho Suehiro, Ryokusuidan by Suto Nansui, and Bunmei-tozenshi by Meikaku Fujita, which were brought out one after another. All these are political novels. Following these came the Shosetsu-shinzui and Tosei-shoseikatagi, written by Shoyo Tsubouchi, sign-posts pointing to the new-born movement in national literature. Coincident to the rise of the new literary movement appeared a new form of poetry with the publication of the Shintaishisho. Mingled with these new renaissance phenomena the cultural and literary aesthetics of France and Britain were being introduced through translations.

(2) New Literary Movement. The most outstanding characteristic of the literature of this period is that it completely relinquished Yedo influence and established its own assimilation of the romantic thought then sweeping over Europe and America. Realism, especially psychological delineation, came to be demonstrated by novelists like Shoyo Tsubouchi and Futabatei Hasegawa. They were soon followed by Koyo Osaki, Rohan Koda, Bizan Kawakami, Kyoka Izumi, Ryuro Hirotsu, Chugai Goto, and Ichiyo Higuchi, a woman novelist. These fiction writers dealt with either idealistic, pungent or psychological materials. Especially noteworthy for phenomenal activity in poetry were Toson Shimasaki and Bansui Tsuchii, composers of long poems; and Tekkan Yosano, Saishu Onoé and Kun-en Kaneko in the sphere of tanka verse. Furthermore, there was the Negishi school initiated by Shiki Masaoka, and the Araragi school by Sachio Ito. As to haiku verse, under Shiki Masaoka were composers affiliated with the Nihon school; under Koyo Osaki was founded the Shiginsha school, and with the combined efforts of Seisetsu Sassa, Shiei Fujii and Shachiku O-ono was formulated the Tsukubakai. To criticize briefly the works of the period it may be said that though not altogether lacking in a touch of realism, the general impression indicates an ever-growing trend towards romanticism, and in some cases to mere literary "isms."

(3) Period of Naturalism. The

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trend of literary movement during the last quarter of the Meiji era was toward the domination of naturalism. This literary current emerged in all forms of literature, and, founding itself on the actual reality of things, tried to grasp the truth of humanity. In this sudden rise of naturalism, much influence was exercised by the works of French, German and Russian novelists. Representative Japanese novels indicative of this new movement include works by Doppo Kunikida, Toson Shimasaki, Katai Tayama, Hakucho Masamuné, Shusei Tokuda, Seika Mayama, Homei Iwano, Seiko Nakamura and Shuko Chikamatsu. Against this realistic trend there appeared in the literary arena Soseki Natsumé, Kyoshi Takahama and Ogai Mori, upholding the transcendent school, commonly called the Kotoha. In the realm of literary criticism Hogetsu Shimamura, Tenkei Hasegawa, Tengen Katakami and Gyofu Soma wielded their pens under the banner of art for life's sake. In the domain of drama, plays depicting social thought came into existence under Ibsen's influence. A similar trend was apparent in general poetry and short verse, represented by Yumei Kamowara's and Kyukin Susukida's symbolic poems, Gyofu Soma's poems in colloquial style, Rofu Miki's free verse and Hakushu Kitahara's prose-poems. In the sphere of short poems, came Bokusui Wakayama, Aika Doki, Takuboku Ishikawa and Yuguré Maeda, exploiting new fields, just as Hekigodo Kato and Seisensui Ogiwara did in the realm of haiku. Literature created in the atmosphere of naturalism is generally too much involved in representation of the ugly side of human life, failing thereby to see the whole of life. It is not unnatural, therefore, that the naturalistic trend of the period did not long enjoy public support and was obliged to effect a change towards the close of the Meiji era.

(4) Period of Neo-romanticism. We may be doing injustice to modern literary movements by crowding all their complex currents under the one category of neo-romanticism. Yet, it is a fact that after the predominant sway of naturalism, every new branch of literary activity obviously based itself on the reactions of the naturalism of the preceding period. Contrary to the negative, sceptical and pessimistic view of life as evinced by naturalism, neo-romanticism attempts to draw from life with the eye upon reality and humanity, in a positive attitude and a spirit of optimism. At the back of this new movement were the pragmatism of William James, Bergsonian philosophy, Tagore's mysticism, Tolstoy's humanism, and the ideas of several other influential Occidental writers. Neo-romanticism was, in its early days, supported by Rinsen Nakazawa, Yohei Ishizaka, Jiro Abé, Saneatsu Mushakoji and other youthful thinkers. It was at that time that the European War broke out. This greatly stimulated the literary movement, pushing it further into the actual life of the people; eventually it built up such intimate human relations that a drastic renovation was considered unavoidable. This welcomed the rise of many new novelists and playwriters; among whom were Saneatsu Mushakoji, Takeo Arishima, Yoshio Nagayo, all holding fast to their principles; Toyohiko Kagawa and Koyata Ebara initiated the vogue of religious fiction and literature; Naoya Shiga, Ton Satomi, Ryunosuké Akutagawa, Yoshio Toyoshima, Masao Kumé, Haruo Sato and Kan Kikuchi cultivated their own field, in a characteristic style of description. In addition to these fiction writers there

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arrived on the scene, Seikichi Fujimori, Mimei Ogawa, Kan Eguchi and Hiroichiro Maedako, as representative socialistic writers; and no small number of novelists producing popular literature. Similarly, in the circle of drama quite a number of new playwriters appeared: of these, Kichizo Nakamura, Yuzo Yamamoto and Jun-ichiro Tanizaki were the most noted. Shoyo Tsubouchi, aforementioned, opened up a new field in pageant and juvenile plays. Another novel phenomenon worthy of note is the powerful growth of scenario writing. With reference to poetry, the long form gradually developed into prose, while folk-songs came to the fore, in Yaso Saijo, Shogo Shiratori, Sakutaro Hagiwara and Ujo Noguchi. The overwhelming vitality of the ever-growing literary movement also lent stimulation to the composition of short poems which, following the revival of Mannyoshu study, tried to assimilate nature while giving birth to new verse composed in colloquial style. As to haiku, there is nothing which requires special mention, save the tendency to re-establish itself in couplet form. Summing up all these facts, we arrive at the conclusion that Japanese literature has made wonderful strides and built up a nation-wide sphere of influence that qualifies it to rank with world literary attainment, without forgetting to maintain its own traditions and thereby to create a new and distinct literature of its own.

Contemporary Tendencies

Some of the more prominent movements in modern Japanese literature passed through so many critical phases after the middle of the Taisho (circa 1916), that they began to suffer decline at the close of the period; and then new movements began to appear.

The First Stage First there is the movement towards proletarian literature, Ohmi Komaki, Yobun Kaneko, Hirabayashi, Aono and Maedako made the first systematic attempt to create literary movement for the proletarian classes, and it was in this circle that such promising writers as Hayama, Kuroshima, and Taiko Hirabayashi were brought up.

The Second Stage Launched by a few younger writers who gathered around Kan Kikuchi, eminent novelist and dramatist, this group promoted new ideas of sensual beauty by abandoning the old conventions and aesthetic notions. Riichi Yokomitsu, disclosed a new realm of style in fiction, being much influenced by the French novelist, Paul Morand.

This literary circle loves fantasy and imagination, thinking much of form and style. Their idea is to stress the outside rather than the inside, the material more than the spiritual. Their refinement of style displays a rapid tempo, and new sensations, which contributed to its popularity among the later generation.

The Third Stage The third stage in our present-day literature is marked by a powerful appeal from the "Literature for Majority." Kan Kikuchi, changed over to this new movement in fiction. In the tenth year of Taisho (1920), "Madam Pearl" was brought out, and this incited the emulation of many other writers.

There are two aspects indicated in the "Literature for Majority." One of these tends mostly to depict modern life struggles in an attractive way; Kikuchi, Kumé, and Kato are included in this circle. Shirai, Maki, Naoki, and Osaragi are mostly concerned in producing historical and biographical fiction, full of fantastical descriptions.

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To the Proletarian groups already mentioned can be added another group of novelists like Nakano, Murayama, Kobayashi, Hayashi, Tokunaga, Fujimori, Ineko Kubokawa; and critics like Kurahara and Miyamoto. On the other hand, a type-setter, Choku Tokunaga, produced a clever work, "The Street without the Sun," which was translated into German. The labourmen, Sui and Kanechika, are also beginning to produce able and promising works.

The prominent phenomenon of the literary world in 1933 was the decline of proletarian literature. The decline is due partly to a thorough suppression of the radicalists by the authorities and partly to the general feeling of the people against communism as a disturber of national order in the critical moment of the country, brought about by the Manchurian Incident. The leading periodicals began to keep the young communistic writers at a respectful distance from the January number of the year and the old writers who had their days in the Meiji era were reinstated in their place. The tendency of the year was decidedly reactionary in literature, especially in novels.

A few works of the proletarian writers such as Tokunaga, Fusao Hayashi, and Fujimori attracted the attention of society. But the death of promising young writers Takiji Kobayashi and Toshiro Sasaki gave a blow to the progress of proletarian literature.

On the other hand, the old distinguished men of letters made valuable contributions. Among them the following names may be recorded: Toson Shimazaki, Junichiro Tanizaki, Haruo Sato, Ton Satomi, Saneatsu Mushakoji, Kan Kikuchi and Masao Kumé.

In the world of drama almost no original work was published, except some translations of Western dramas.

There is hardly any room for a poet to live upon his profession and the present-day Japanese poets live without exception on some other profession and form groups for publishing the Dojin Zasshi or magazine for comrades.

The appearance of the "Bungei" a magazine for "pure" literature in 1933 threw a light for the future progress of literature.

In 1934 religious literature began to flourish on the waves of the so-called Renaissance of religion in Japan while magazines of poetry witnessed a greater circulation.

Introduction of French literature represented by Valéry and André Gide and a fresh study of Russian literature, which once was most influential in literary circle of Japan, has given a mode of thought to young writers.

Fine Arts

History

Pre-Asuka Period This period, corresponding to what is called the dark age of art, has nothing specially to describe, although it is perhaps the longest period, extending, as it does, from the age of myths down to about the 7th century, A. D.

According to archaeology the ancient Japanese worked in stone, artifacts such as stone images being used in ancestor worship. These are rough hewn sculptures, representing persons clad in armour, wearing a sword, or other arms, all having been used in burial as guardians of the tomb. It was customary, too,

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in ancient times to have a similar primitive engraving, in the form of a ladder or a wheel, made on the coffin; the plain, artless impression thus conveyed is expressive of the simple mode of living in that remote age.

The dwellings were also in very simple style, constructed of barked but unhewn timber. Even in this simplest type of building there were two styles, known as the Izumo and the Isé; which implies that the ancient culture of Japan was dual, derived either from Izumo or Isé. The former style of structure is represented by the Izumo Shrine, Izumo province; and the latter by the great Shrine of Isé, although these now give no more than a vague idea of what must have been the prehistoric architecture of the country.

In addition to the above, there are earthen figures called haniwa which arrest the attention not only of archaeologists but also of artists. According to historical records, the Emperor Suinin, who abdicated in 2 B. C., abhorred the cruel old custom of burying people alive, around the grave of a high personage, certain individuals being selected from among those persons who were under patronage of the deceased in life. At the instance of a retainer, Nomi-no-Sukuné, he caused earthen figures to be interred in place of living persons, when the Empress Hihasu-himé died; and this was the origin of haniwa. It is believable, however, that the haniwa existed before Suinin's time. The haniwa is, from an artistic point of view, by no means of high value. It is, nevertheless, the only art product of Japan before the importation of Buddhism. Moreover, its value rests on the fact that it is a work produced solely by the Japanese before they had been influenced by Chinese art. Besides, it is invaluable in that it gives some idea of the life of the people of its day. The variety of haniwa may be roughly classified into human figures, birds and animals, architectural structures, household articles and arms.

Asuka Period As has been stated in the preceding section, for sometime after the foundation of the Empire by the Emperor Jimmu, there was nothing worthy of mention in the realm of art. The Asuka period covers the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-629), when the Imperial palace was in the province of Yamato. Already, as early as the time of the Emperor Yuryaku, in the middle of the 5th century, a painter named Isura came over from Chosen, with which country Japan then had frequent intercourse, and through which Chinese civilization had been introduced. Later, during the reign of the Emperor Sushun, towards the end of the 6th century, another painter called Hakka came with carpenters to build temples. But it was not until Shibatatto came over from China, in the reign of the Emperor Keitai (507-533), that Buddhism was introduced into Japan, despite the fact that communication had long before continued with Chosen, then called Kudara.

Shibatatto must have been expert in the art of sculpture, for he was the grandfather of Kuratsu-kurinotori who cast the large image of Buddha now in the Horyuji temple, in the Empress Suiko's time. Nevertheless, it is evident that the country which contributed most toward founding Japan's fine art technique was Kudara.

The development of art in the Suiko régime was really wonderful. Prince Shotoku, a man of wide learning and an enthusiastic devotee of Buddha, spurred on the ever increasing devotion to art. The leading

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structures of the period were the Horyuji and Tennoji temples; but those parts of them that have best withstood the wear and tear of time are the two-storied kondo, gate, the five-storied pagoda of the Horyuji temple and the three-storied pagodas of the Horyuji and Horinji temples. No doubt the creative design of the Prince must have been woven into them, but it is nevertheless true that they were modelled after Kudara architecture. It is only from these structures that one can form any idea of what Chinese architecture in those days might have been. The Tamamushi-no-zushi, (a miniature temple) in the Horyuji temple, is valuable not only as a model of ancient architecture but as an example of the structural art and craft of the Suiko régime. The honeysuckle design on the metal fittings of the miniature temple bears close resemblance to similar art motives of Greece. The sculptures of the Suiko period are not all from one source, some coming from China or Chosen, while others are home creations, either from the hands of Chinese sculptors, or the combined efforts of Japanese and naturalized aliens.

The fine art of the Suiko period has thus great depth and width, and at the same time affords invaluable reference for study.

Hakuho Period In the history of Japanese fine art, following the Suiko era comes the Hakuho period which starts in the reign of the Emperor Jomei, terminating in that of the Emperor Mombu (629-697). In the 15th year of the reign of the Empress Suiko the custom of sending a government envoy to China, then called Sui, was established, followed by increased intercourse between the two countries. Later, in the 2nd year of the Emperor Jomei's administration, the first envoy was dispatched to Tang, as China was then called. By the establishment of this custom artistic products of China came direct to Japan instead of through the Korean Peninsula, as they had done up to that time. Moreover, the Taika Reformation, by which the political system of China came to be closely followed from the time of the Emperor Kotoku, contributed much toward developing Hakuho art.

(1) Painting. One of the most outstanding facts in the art of this period is that paintings were imported from the Continent, and Buddhist pictures were painted by priests from China and India. The mural paintings of the kondo of the Horyuji temple testify to this; the fresco work of the temple is further advanced in technique than that of India, and is prized as the leading example of mural painting in any extant wooden building. This and other examples of imported pictorial art technique during the period eloquently speaks of the inflow from Indian sources into Oriental countries.

(2) Bronze. The most representative work of the period is the big bronze images of Buddha and two disciples at the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Upon their pedestals are engraved a hoshokumon design in lieu of honeysuckle which by that time had ceased to command preference. The hoshokumon design is the art of inlaying or setting jewels in necklaces, armlets, pedestals, and halos around the heads of images. To return to the Yakushiji temple's three images, it is interesting to notice that, side by side with the hoshokumon, there is an engraving of arabesque design in grapes. This grape pattern has also its origin to the west of India, through which it came to China when that country was called Han, and prospered in the age of Tang.

(3) Architecture. The only mod-

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el of architecture constructed in this period and still extant is the three-storied pagoda of the Yakushiji temple at Nara. Another example of the best architectural technique of the period is to be seen at the Nara Imperial Museum where models of five-storied pagodas of the times are preserved.

Tempyo Period The Nara period (707-780) is called the Tempyo Era in the history of Japanese fine art. Through the zealous efforts of the Emperor Shomu and Empress Komyo, who were unrivalled in piety, Buddhist doctrine was thoroughly demonstrated in the capital of Nara, with a consequent development of Buddhist fine art. It was veritably the golden age of fine art in religion. The casting of the Daibutsu (great image of Buddha) at the Todaiji temple and the construction of the temple itself may be pointed out as the greatest examples of art within the period. The Daibutsu has several times suffered from fire, which made imperative the repair of the image; and, in consequence, only the petals of the lotus blossom upon which the image sits retain traces of contemporary art motives. On the surface of these petals are engraved scenes from the sacred world of Buddha, which, from the view point of technique in painting are decidedly excellent. In front of the building occupied by the colossal statue of Buddha there is a bronze-lantern which minutely exemplifies characteristics of the Tempyo period. The remains representing the sculptures of the period include several images in the same temple.

(1) Shoso-in Museum.[1] After the demise of the Emperor Shomu all the objects of art and craft he possessed were donated to the Todaiji temple

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1 The Shoso-in is located in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple at Nara. The building is a typical wooden storehouse of old Japanese Aze-Kura style. No metal nails are used and no walls of earth. The whole building consists of three separate sections which have no windows but one entrance door for each. In the interior each section is two storied with an attic. The dimensions of the building are approximately 108 feet to 30 feet, the height from the ground to the roof top being 39 feet.

Formerly the treasures were kept free from light, untouched for a long period of years. Since 1872 the doors are open annually for airing for two weeks, from November 1st to 14th. All the precious objects are kept in glass cases. In the northern section there are kept treasures of the Imperial House before and at the time of the Emperor Shōmu, mirrors, desks, musical instruments, screens, medicine, etc. The middle section contains arms and armour, cases, glass and lacquer wares. The southern section largely contains religious antiques of the Tōdaiji temple.

The Shoso-in apparently existed in the precinct of the Tōdaiji temple before 756 A.D. when the Empress Komyo, widow of the Emperor Shomu dedicated to the Variocana Buddha or Daibutsu the Imperial treasures as a memorial of the deceased. Weather has beaten it of course. Battles went on around the sacred ground and the Shoso-in itself was once stricken by a thunderbolt. But the wooden storehouse has been mysteriously preserved through 1,179 years, with partial repairs. Most of its contents listed in the "Tōdaiji Kemmotsu Cho" (catalogue of donation), dated June 21, 8th year of Tempyōshōhō (756 A.D.), have been kept unhurt solely due to the loyalty of the officials and people to the Imperial House to whom the Shoso-in belongs.

The most important treasures are the "Kemmotsu Cho" (catalogue of donation), letters of the Emperor Shōmu, essays written by the Empress Kōmyō, slung sword of the Emperor Shōmu, Kin-gin Hyomon Kin (gold and silver ornamented Oriental harp), Shitan Genkwan (a stringed instrument), Gogen Biwa (a five stringed lute), Mokuga Shitan Kikyoku (a sandalwood checker board ornamented with wooden mosaic), Toriké Tachionna Byobu (a screen with a female figure who wears feathered garments), Urushi Ko Hei (a lacquered carafe), Yōraku or diadems and fragments of the crowns of the Emperor Shōmu and Empress Kōmyō, Gingaku Men (masks used in an old performance "gigaku"), bronze mirrors, swords and other arms and armor; Imperial edict engraved on a bronze plate, glass cup, lacquered chest painted with gold and silver dust, gold and silver ornamented leather box, hangings with figures of Buddhas, Mitta Ebon (a painted tray), silver bottle, and cencor with a handle.

Priceless documents of Tempyō period are stored in Shoso-in, 779 in all. They include census registers, maps, official documents, I.O.U. and books, and present indispensable materials for the study of official and civil life 11 centuries ago.

For protection, inspection of the treasures of the Shoso-in is not permitted to the general public, but the pictures of all treasures are published in book form named "Tōyei Zuko," and all the documents may be found in the "Dai Nippon Ko Mon Jo" (Japan's old documents).

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by the Empress Komyo. Nearly all were treasured in the Shoso-in Art Museum of Nara, and have safely been handed down to the present. Perfect preservation of art products from so remote an age could be expected only in such a country as Japan. The national treasures of the Shoso-in not only abound in rare paintings but also in many objects of industrial art, such as textiles, lacquer-ware as well as gold and silver ware, porcelain and writing utensils. Especially noteworthy are the Tang masterpieces from the Imperial household of China. In addition to those of Japanese and Chinese production, examples from the East Roman Empire, Persia, India and countries west of China are found in the museum. Thus the Shoso-in Art Museum is representative of the art products covering both East and West from even before the 7th century.

(2) Ganjinwajo. A priest known as Ganjinwajo in Japan with a number of disciples, visited Nara, then capital of the country, not long after the completion of the Daibutsu. He and his followers had drifted ashore in the southern part of Kyushu. These foreigners left an indelible impression on the history of Japanese art, because they belonged to a group of leading artists of the Tang period of China. Their skill in art was woven into the art of the Tempyo period, not only in the fields of painting and sculpture, but also in architecture. That art products from their hands must have been as great in number as in variety is evidenced by the art treasures of the Toshodaiji temple in Yamato province. The image of Buddha enshrined in that temple exhaustively represent the characteristics of the art of the Tang dynasty. Besides these there are several wood-engravings in which, it is surmised, the sculptures of the succeeding period had its origin. Among the foreigners were persons of other than Chinese nationality. Gumporiki, as he was called in Japan, was an expert sculptor, from the country of Kunlunkuo the exact location of which is still a question. Judging by the fact that the Ganjinwajo party included people from the west of China, it is but a matter of course that the engravings at the Toshodaiji temple resemble the fresco art of countries west of China. From what remains, there is sufficient reason to believe that some of the descendants of the Persians driven out of the country by the Mohammedans, arrived in Japan with the party.

All kinds of cultural forms and products were imported during this period. These the Japanese could digest and work with a skill not inferior to that of the foreigners. A general impression of the Tempyo period, however, is that there was too much copying of Chinese art and so, too little originality. This one-sided trend of evolution gave rise to a movement for a revival of art genuinely Japanese in origin.

Konin Period The Konin period (782-888) begins about the time that the Emperor Kammu transferred the capital from Nara to Kyoto, lasting till the reign of the Emperor Konin. The outstanding characteristic of the Konin period lies in the phenomenal rise of native art at the hands of noted priests. Kobodaishi and Chisho-daishi were priest sages of refined artistic endowment. Quite a number of pictures and sculptures of the period are from their hands. The Toji, Koyasan and Miidera temples treasure works of theirs. As one of the prominent painters of the time we may name Kudara Kawanari on whom there are a number of books, but none giving reliable historical information

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about him. He must have been among those artists summoned by the Emperor Saga to paint the pictures of landscape and rough seas seen on the walls and paper sliding-screens of the Seiryoden Hall of the palace. The custom of painting landscapes and characters on screens of the Imperial palace was thereafter developed setting a fashion in drawings which please the eye. In those days screens were popular, and this helped to popularize landscape painting.

The typical sculptures of the period are such sacred images as are seen at the Shingoji temple, Kyoto, known as the Shingoji style sculpture, and others at the Murofuji temple in Yamato province, known as the Murofu style. The rise of the art of engraving images of Japanese gods may be mentioned as a memorable event of the age.

As regards architecture the period shows very few examples that now remain, the representative structures being the main hall and five-storied pagoda of the Murofuji temple. The Heian Shrine constructed in Kyoto, closely modelled after the structures of the age under review, offers excellent material for the study of Konin architecture.

Fujiwara Period The Fujiwara period (889-1186) covers the three hundred years between the reign of the Emperor Uda and that of the Emperor Antoku. At the beginning of the period the Emperor Uda, at the suggestion of Michizané Sugawara, discontinued the custom of dispatching envoys to China, thereby cutting off facility of communications with the continent. During the consequent isolation Japanese art was afforded a chance to cultivate its native genius and its own field of influence. The continental art that had been freely absorbed and adopted up to that time commenced to produce national characteristics as is demonstrated by yamatoyé work in the sphere of painting.

(1) Painting. Koseno-Kanaoka was probably the most skilled landscape painter of the period. His reputation was such that the horse he painted on a paper sliding-door was credited with getting out of the screen at night to feed on bush clover in the yard. Koseno-Hirotaka, a well-known painter, was one of his descendants. As skilled painters of that age we may mention also Motomitsu Fujiwara, Mitsunaga Fujiwara, Takayoshi Fujiwara and his son Takachika, besides Toba-sojo and Kakuyu, all of whom specialized in painting yamatoyé or native style, which had developed from a school in the Tang period of China, called Karayé. Japanese paper-doors and folding screens were what they selected to paint on.

Besides yamatoyé many other schools of Japanese style paintings were started, such as the kamiyé, utayé, ashideyé, and okoyé. The last mentioned was a school of comic genius whose premier artist was Toba-sojo, a noted priest of the day. Three albums of comic pictures from his brush are treasured at the Kozanji temple. Another important arrival was the yemakimono (paper-scroll) which later developed until reaching its golden age in the Kamakura period. The aforementioned three artists were the most popular masters of the age. Some of their work still survives.

Consequent upon the ever inculcated Buddhist precepts, Buddhist paintings flourished, so much so that specialists in that art were always in evidence. In this religious sphere of painting also national characterization was effected to no meagre extent. The most outstanding of the Japanized Buddhist schools was named the Eshinfu, started by Eshin-

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sodzu, a priest, first affiliated with the Tendai sect of Buddhism, but later preached the doctrines of the Jodo sect. Probably this school was second to none at that time in Japanization of technique. Tameto, commonly called Great Takuma, who did the fresco work of the Ho-o-do at Uji, belonged to the Takuma family, producing accomplished painters of the time. The most representative Buddhist paintings are treasured at the Hokkeji, Yamashiro Chohoji, Yamato Horinji, Koyasan, the Toji temples and the Imperial Art Museum of Tokyo.

(2) Sculpture. Remarkable advancement in the realm of Buddhist sculpture was revealed in consequence of effective doctrinal propaganda by the Tendai and Shingon sects. Wood-engraving stood unrivalled, but that art, unlike the same mode of the previous age, was mainly in what is called parquetry work. Sculptors collaborated, and in most cases images were constructed in separate parts, each carved by a different artist, under an accomplished specialist. It is interesting to note that even in the carving of hands, feet, head and body there was a division of labour into smaller parts, and each section was put in charge of one sculptor. When completed the several parts were put together, painted with lacquer and guilded.

Guilds of sculptors, like the Shichijo - bussho, Shichijo - omiya - bussho, Rokujo-marikoji-bussho and Sanjo-bussho, established studios one after another. Especially noteworthy in this field was the Shichijo-bussho started by the famous artist Jocho who was practically supreme in the realm of sculpture in the Fujiwara period. The peculiarity of the Jocho school of his creation lies in its soft, mild features with smooth, elegant textile folds or plaits, which characterize the most glorious period of Fujiwara art. The images of Amitabha enshrined at the Ho-o-do, Hokaiji, Saikyoji and Chusonji temples are all representative works of the Fujiwara period.

(3) Architecture. Along with the development of Japanese style painting a new Japanese architecture, as seen in what they call the Shinden-zukuri (main building of a peer's residence), prevailed. This style gradually encroached on the domain of sacred structures, as is well exemplified in the Ho-o-do and Konjikido, above cited.

Within three hundred years after the country's adoption of a seclusion policy, an indigenous style characteristic of the Yamato race made the fullest possible development in all branches of art.

Kamakura Period Between the Emperor Gotoba and Emperor Godaigo the Kamakura Shogunate assumed the reins of government. The Kamakura period (1187-1340) of political history is at the same time that of Japanese art. During those 150 years traditional Japanese sentiments and thought developed vigorously, against the aristocratic culture which had gained influence in the previous period. Such a turn of cultural development could not but react on art ; the anti-traditional spirit of the age began to tell on artistic creation. Not only from within but also from without the country a radical change was introduced, because in those days the Yuan period succeeded the Sung in China ; and its highly favoured cultural attainments came dashing to the Japanese shores. The two movements, of foreign and domestic origin, combined to lay a foundation for modern fine art which started and developed in and after the Muromachi period.

(1) Painting. Continued civil wars, military administration, and

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war literature, all contributed to the volumious production of yemakimono (picture-scrolls) based on themes from battle scenes. Another kind of yemakimono worthy of special mention was painted for the purpose of propagating the doctrines of newly risen sects of Buddhism, such as the Zen and Jodo. This pictorial demonstration of religious doctrines proved quite effective; for, by depicting the life and work of founders, a more direct appeal was made to prospective converts. For the same reason the yemakimono came to serve also as a means to propagate knowledge of the origin and development of a shrine. Quite a number of picture-scrolls of the period still remain in perfect condition, those reckoned among greater works being the History of the Kitano Tenjin Shrine, Murasaki-shikibu-nikki, Sanjurokkasen, Moko-shurai-ekotoba, Honen-shonin-gyojo-edzu. The last mentioned is a yemakimono depicting the personal history of Honen-shonin, the noted priest who founded the Jodo sect of Buddhism. Among scores of yemakimono painters, Nobuzané Fujiwara, Keion Sumiyoshi, En-i, Takakané Takashina and Yoshimitsu Tosa were the most popular. A further noteworthy event of the period was the rise of portrait painting. Generally speaking, until this period there was no other method for reproducing figures except by sculpture. The term for portrait was niseyé. But toward the end of this period a new mode appeared. The technique of portrait painting made rapid advance from the time of Takanobu Fujiwara, Tairano-Shigemori, Minamotono-Yoritomo whose works are treasured at the Shingoji temple, all rare masterpieces.

With reference to Buddhistic painting, the aforementioned Takuma school gradually improved in technique; and with the appearance of Shoga, a descendant of the Takumas, the Takuma school of Buddhist painting was founded, drawing a clear line between the old and new delineations.

(2) Sculpture. The Kamakura period was also a fecund age in the direction of sculpture. Compared with the work of the preceding period it appeals with more virility. The Shichijo-bussho, the most important sculptors' association or guild, which had been making steady progress, produced a group of consummate artists in Koei, Unkei, Jokaku, Kwaikei, Tankei, Jokei, Koben and Kosho, all contemporaries. Among them the most skilled were Unkei, Tankei and Kwaikei, who are recognized as the best sculptors since the time of Jocho. Whereas Unkei and Tankei excelled in producing the expression of passion, as in statues of nio (Deva kings), Kwaikei specialized in gentle, elegant figures, like those from the chisel of Jocho.

(3) Industrial Art. Lacquer-ware technique, too, made a remarkable advance. The art of engraving also progressed, especially with the appearance of the Kamakura-bori (Kamakura style of engraving). Technique in metal work, also saw much development, inheriting the characteristic virtues of the Fujiwara period. Up to that time native ceramic art was in so primitive a stage that only unglazed ware could be manufactured. After Kato Shirozaemon-Kagehisa returned from Sung, marked progress was made in this field, and fine chinaware became a home product.

(4) Architecture. The mansions of nobles had been built in the Shinden-zukuri style, but during the Kamakura period the Buké-zukuri style of architecture started and soon dominated. This is a simple, plain style with an unusual number

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of sliding-doors to let in light. Though this style of structure has gone out long ago, one can get an idea of it through various yemakimono in which this style of architecture is represented. After the advent of the Zen sect of Buddhism under Eisai-zenshi from China, then called Sung, and the establishment of the Kenninji temple at Kyoto, Zen style of architecture came to attract attention. A good example of this style, still intact, is the Enkakuji temple at Kamakura.

Muromachi Period Succeeding the Kamakura age came the Muromachi period (1341-1580), which, after the two centuries and a half of civil strife, ended with the downfall of the Ashikaga Shogunate. In China the civil disturbances of the late Yuan dynasty had been brought under control by the rise of the Mings, resulting in the advent of the golden age of Ming culture, which exercised some influence on Japan.

(1) Painting. As was customary whenever Chinese culture attained its zenith, communication between the two countries, which had been on the wane, revived again, resulting in the gradual decline of yemakimono, portrait and Buddhist painting, handed down from the preceding Kamakura period, domestic art unable to cope with the powerful influence of Sung-Yuan style of painting in China. Early in this period there were not a few yemakimono worthy of note such as the Gosannen-gunki by Korehisa Fujiwara and the Yuzu-nembutsu-engi, joint work of Hiroyuki Tosa, Yukihidé Kasuga, Mitsukuni Fujiwara, Ryuko Awataguchi, Jakusai Rokkaku and Eishun Hogan. The latter still remains in the form of a coloured wood-engraving, perhaps the most widely known as our oldest example of this art.

Typical portrait work of the period is that of the Emperor Godaigo in the Daitokuji temple, Kyoto, and of Yoshimochi Ashikaga, at the Shingoji temple. Far more characteristic of the age, however, are the portraits of Zen priests or so-called "Chinso." The most typical chinso is, perhaps, the portrait of Seiichi-kokushi, painted by Mincho, preserved in the Tofukuji temple. Strictly speaking, chinso has more similarity to the Sung-Yuan style than to the Tosa school of portraits.

Buddhist painting of the Muromachi period may roughly be adjudged stationary. Copying of old works seemed to have been the only task attracting artists, among whom a priest named Myotaku-zenshi was known for skill in painting Acala pieces; the principal works of this priest-painter are treasures of the Imperial Art Museum. The most distinguished pictorial artist throughout the period, however, was Mincho. Among his works handed down to the present are the portrait of Seiichi-kokushi, above-mentioned, Gohyakurakan (five hundred disciples of Buddha) in the Tofukuji temple, and Dainehanzu, known as the largest painting in the country. In his brush work are ample traces of the style of the Sung-Yuan period in China; and he was, moreover, the leading painter of the age by whose art the Continental technique, introduced with the Zen sect in the Kamakura period, was digested, assimilated and consummated.

Special mention should be made of the advent of the Sung-Ming style in yamatoyé work, enhancing the traditional style of that art. This new movement was no doubt made possible by the Ashikaga policy of encouraging trade with China, then called Ming. In consequence, numerous Chinese works of art continued to be imported, greatly

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stimulating the domestic art world. Among various merits and demerits then inherited from the Continent, kakemono (hanging pictures) and a more advanced technique in painting flowers and birds were perhaps the most outstanding. It is also a fact worthy of special mention that the Sung-Yuan style of sumiyé painting (black and white) became popular throughout Japan, under artists like Jasoku Soga, Sotan Oguri, Shinno Nakano, Sesshu and Masanobu Kano. These five sumiyé painters were talented pupils of Shubun who enjoyed the confidence of the Shogun and occupied an important position under the Shogunate government as a painter.

(2) Sculpture. Images of Buddha continued to be supplied by the Shichijo-bussho of which mention has already been made. But these products gradually lost their artistic value. The aforementioned Shubun was also a good sculptor. It is said of his skill that the great wooden statue, 40 feet high, of Amitabha, enshrined in the Unkyoji temple, was originally the work of a Nara sculptor, but was retouched by Shubun's chisel and improved.

(3) Industrial Art. In this epoch the development shown in industrial art was mainly due to the whimsical enthusiasm of the Shogun. Chanoyu (tea ceremony), a ceremonial etiquette genuinely Japanese, gave rapid rise to various branches of industrial art especially in fine porcelain, the climax of which was reached during the latter part of the period. This progress was not only in works of manual art like tea-cups, trays and so on, but in kakemono and tokonoma (alcove) furnishings of the tea-room, and the building itself, all of which are required for the full ceremony of tea-serving. Most of the teacups used for chanoyu in those days were of Chinese make, or imports from the South Seas.

(4) Architecture. The Zen style of architecture greatly improved. This combined with the cult of chanoyu, lent impetus to the construction of simple but tasteful habitations and temples, with gardens and arbours harmonious to the main building, well represented by the Kinkakuji and Ginkakuji temples in Kyoto.

Momoyama Period The thirty years that followed is termed the Momoyama period. During this comparatively short interval civil disturbances stirred up the whole country under the governments of Nobunaga Oda and Hideyoshi Toyotomi, acting as military dictators.

(1) Painting. Eitoku Kano was perhaps the greatest painter of the period. Nearly all the mural pictures in the castles of Azuchi and Osaka and the mansion at Shuraku are attributed to the brush of this famous artist. The peculiarity of the painting of the period lies in its grand scale and gorgeous, bright colouring. This is especially true of Eitoku Kano's work. Another noted landscape and ukiyoyé painter was Sanraku Kano ; in the Sesshu school of sumiyé were Kogan Unkoku and Tohaku Hasegawa ; the Tosa school had Mitsuyoshi who succeeded to the Tosa school which had by that time been reduced to a school only in name.

(2) Sculpture. The most striking feature of the Momoyama sculpture is its clever adaptation to decoration of architecture. Besides Hidari-Jingoro, whose fame as an accomplished sculptor and engraver still enjoys nation-wide popularity, there were skilled artists like Yuzaemon Miyanishi and Matayemon Okabé. As in the Muromachi period, the art of carving "No" masks came into vogue.

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(3) Industrial Art. Metal work experienced remarkable improvement. The sword-guard artists evolved novel designs. Also in the technique of bronze casting no insignificant progress was made by casters like Yashichiro Hagoya, Dojin Nishimura, Yojiro Tsujido, Yayemon Nagoya and Echizen-no-Shojosansho. The current of the age could not but influence the art of raised lacquer, handed down from previous periods; now works on large scale, fit for the decorative purposes of architecture, began to dominate the situation. The Kannon-do of Chikubu-shima and the Kodaiji temple of Kyoto best represent the technique of this period.

Ceramics also were greatly enhanced in technique. Impelled by the nation-wide use of chinaware, due to the popularization of chanoyu, imported articles grew insufficient. As a natural consequence, home industry in this direction was greatly stimulated, resulting in Nagasuké Chojiro's invention of the rakuyaki style and Rokubei Mikazuki's bizenyaki style of ceramic ware. In the realm of textile art, what is to be noted is that in the Tensho era (1573) a new technique in weaving was introduced from Ming, China, and reached Nishijin, Kyoto, where it appeared in the form of Yamatonishiki, ito-nishiki, karaori-nishiki, kinran (gold brocade), donsu (satin damask), rinzu, and so on.

In conclusion it may be said of the art of the Momoyama period that, while developing such gorgeous and imposing structures as the Shurakutei and Momoyama Castle, it popularized the exclusive, austere and polite art of chanoyu. Thus two diametrically opposed arts developed all through the Momoyama period.

Yedo Period The Yedo period (1603-1867) started with the Tokugawa Shogunate in Tokyo, then called Yedo, and terminated with the downfall of that government just before the Meiji Restoration. During the 260 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate Yedo flourished, cultivating its own culture as against that of Kyoto, giving the country two centres of culture, one in the east and one in the west.

In the early Yedo period communication with countries beyond the sea opened and foreign trade was thereby greatly stimulated. Whereas Japan had hitherto had little or no dealing with Europeans, save Spaniards and Portuguese, Hollanders and Britons now began to come to her shores for commercial purposes. Relations with neighbouring countries also increased in intimacy, due to improved communication facilities. Nevertheless, the people were not satisfied with official passivity but extended their trade with Siam, Cochin, Tonking, Luzon. Furthermore, Iyeyasu Tokugawa, the first Shogun of that line, even attempted to trade with Spain and Mexico, sending envoys for that purpose. By this improved intercourse with foreign countries traditional Japanese art was greatly influenced. In the Kan-ei era (1644), Yemosaku Yamada first produced pictures in Western style painting. Fortunately or unfortunately, however, the third Shogun, Iyémitsu, with a view to stamping out Roman Catholicism pursued and imposed an isolation policy by prohibiting the entrance of all foreigners except Hollanders and Chinese. Under this high-handed policy the infiltration of foreign influence was almost completely checked, and domestic genius again came into its own, developing another golden age of fine art.

(1) Painting. The Kanos, who had flourished since the Muromachi period, produced skilled artists like

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Yasunobu, Naonobu, Tsunenobu and Morinobu, all of whom had the honour of serving the Shogunate as official painters. But this special favour proved a cause of decline in the Kano school later. Among the foregoing four principal members of the Kano school, the last mentioned, Morinobu, was the most excellent, known by the pen-name of Tan-yu. Tsunenobu ranks next in artistic skill. The Tosa school, which had been waning in influence, recovered its laurels in the days of Mitsuoki who was promoted to the Emperor's service. In those days the Sumiyoshi school originated from the Tosa, and became firmly established under Jokei, younger brother of Mitsunori. Toward the close of this period an attempt was made for the rivival of yamatoyé, by Totsugon Tanaka, Ikkei Ukita and Tametaka Okada, among whom Tametaka Okada was pre-eminent. The yamatoyé of the Meiji and Taisho eras started from their work. Yosai Kikuchi is another painter of the group.

One of the greatest painters of the age was Korin Ogata whose art may be traced back to that of Sotatsu school which was originally a style of painting for decorative purposes. Under Korin were Kanzan, Shiko Watanabé and Hoichi Sakai. Their work suprised foreign eyes as a revelation of the peculiar excellence of Japanese art. Being used for decoration the work of the Koetsu school had close relations with textile, dying, ceramic and other technical industries of the time.

Ukiyoé, which for originality is one of the salient art products of the Yédo period, developed hand in hand with popular drama and popular literature. It is said that the Ukiyoyé or genré style of picture, was started by Iwasa-Matabéi-shoi; certainly he and Choshun Miyagawa, Shunso Katsukawa, Utamaro Kitagawa, Kiyonaga Torii, and Hokusai Katsushika are known as the most accomplished ukiyoyé painters. Of ukiyoyé there are two kinds, namely, hand-painting and colour-print. The latter form was most characteristic of the age. The black and white prints, started by Moronobu Hishikawa, were forerunners of beniyé, which is a coloured print made on coloured wood blocks, an engraved block for each colour. Before this printing process was adopted for mass production, brushes were used for colouring. At first two colours, red and green, were used for printing from engraved blocks, but Harunobu Suzuki later invented an improved process of printing in five colours, starting the nishikiyé which met with popular favour as time went on. Later, in the hands of masters like Utamaro and Hokusai, the process of colour-printing from wood-engravings saw marked improvement, until the finished pieces far surpassed the original hand-painted work in artistic value. Landscape prints in ukiyoyé style were started by the famous Hiroshigé Ando. Some people may look down upon ukiyoyé as vulgar art; but nevertheless it was art most true to the life of the Yédo period. In later years it was not seldom that European collectors of works of fine art were found ready to pay even several thousand yen for a sheet of mere colour-print. This was not without reason.

Special mention should also be made of the arrival of Ifuchieu, a painter of the Ching dynasty in China; for it was through this artist that the Nan-Sung literary school of painting was first introduced into this country. In the early days of the Nan-Sung style of painting, Nankai Gion, Hyakusen Sakaki, Taiga Ikeno and Buson Yosano were

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its most excellent exponents. Later, with the rise of Chinese classics, the Nan-Sung literary school made great strides and its influence practically dominated the country, producing such noted names as Unsen Kushiro, Daizen Hirosé, Kaiséki Noro, Chikuden Tanomura, Kazan Watanabé, Aigai Takaku, Baikan Sugai, Hanko Okada, Chikudo Nakabayashi and Baiitsu Yamamoto, among whom Chikuden Tanomura was reputed the most excellent. Kazan Watanabé and Baiitsu Yamamoto enjoyed pupular favour next to Chikuden.

Buncho Tani became the most brilliant artist of the age, both in Pei-Sung and Nan-Sung styles of painting; he was a pupil of Kangen Kitayama who learned technique from Fei Hun-yuan and Chu Ko-chin who entered Japan during the Ching dynasty of China. There were some other very important painters, too, namely, Rikyo Yanagisawa, Jakuchu Ito, Sosen Mori and Ganku. Especially popular were the pictures of domestic fowls by Jakuchu, and monkeys by Sosen.

An important event, moreover, was the appearance of the Maruyama school with Okyo Maruyama as its founder. Okyo's style was derived mainly from Ming and Ching paintings, and developed into what resembled sketches. His pupil, Goshun Matsumura, established the Shijo school, which in later years grew to be as popular as the Maruyama school. By these two styles the Kyoto world of pictorial art was dominated.

(2) Architecture. The Momoyama architecture of the preceding period developed into a far more elaborate style, and with more elegance. This elaborate rococo style of Yédo architecture had less value as fine art than as mere decoration. Examples of the architecture of this period are found in the celebrated buildings at Nikko, which, as everybody can recognize, are more worthy to be called an excellent decoration than an excellent example of fine art.

(3) Sculpture. Although there is not much to be said about the sculpture of this period there are yet two outstanding instances that exemplify the use of Chinese carving; there are the Mampukuji temple at Uji, by a Chinese, Ingenzenshi, and the art of Zen-shu-chokoku (Zen architecture), by a Buddhist sculptor, Fan Ton-sheng, from Foochoo, China.

(4) Industrial Art. Both manual and industrial art greatly advanced in technique, and metal, textile, dying, lacquer and ceramic industries flourished like all sorts and varieties of flowers. A Chinese introduced from Ming the process of decorating ceramics with brilliant colours or in gold or silver. And through the efforts of Kakiémon Sakai and others the famous Arita and Imari potteries were founded. In this field of fine art the name of Jinsai Nonomura should be remembered, for he occupied the highest position. Cloisonne ware also experienced a remarkable promotion in technique, along with other branches of industrial art.

The time arrived at last when the people awoke from their age-long sleep, with all doors closed to foreigners. Besides Hollanders, came Russians, Britons, Frenchmen and Americans, in spite of the national agitation to keep the country shut against foreign intercourse. Already from Holland Western learning and art had percolated in through Nagasaki. Oil painting in Western style was attempted by Gennai Hiraga. The new style of painting spread far into the country even to Akita prefecture, and reached consummation under Kokan Shiba later. Thus towards the close of the Yédo period

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the urge of Western art reached Japanese shores in great force.

Meiji Art The modern age in the history of Japanese fine art started over 60 years ago when the Emperor Meiji established Imperial government in Tokyo. The Oriental fine art, which first sprouted in Mesopotamia, made eastward advance blending with Indian and Chinese art until it at last reached the Far East and established its central influence in Japan.

(1) Architecture. With the Meiji Restoration came a turning point in our history; the country was opened to free foreign intercourse, followed by the inflow of European culture like a flood. Western civilization soon began to exercise an overwhelming influence all over the country, and eventually everything foreign met with enthusiastic popular favour. This phenomenal change in the country directly influenced architecture; and European-style of structures sprang up here and there. Even in the Japanese style of building were mixed Western modes of architecture. These radical changes in the architectural world of Japan had no small influence on other branches of our fine art.

(2) Japanese Painting. In the early part of the period Nan-Sung literary painting still prevailed, supported by Kyou Hodachi, Koseki Nakanishi, Shoka Watanabé, Gokaku Hirano, Rozan Yasuda, Soun Tasaki, Yukoku Noguchi, Aizan Taniguchi, Watei Taki, Chokunyu Tanomura, Seiko Okumura, Kampo Araki, Shohin Noguchi and others.

It so happened that in the 11th year of Meiji a certain American professor in the chair of philosophy at the Tokyo Imperial University, being charmed with Japanese paintings such as the ukiyoyé and Kano and Tosa work, proposed to start a movement for the preservation of these schools of art. In conformity with Professor Fenollosa's suggestion, the Government, in the 21st year of Meiji, established the Tokyo Fine Art Academy. As a result of the movement, the old schools of Japanese style of painting revived and a number of painters regained influence, of whom the more distinguished were Hogai Kano and Gaho Hashimoto of the Kano school; Kangyo Morizumi, Kangi Yamana, Mitaté Kawabé, Fuko Matsumoto of the Tosa school; Zeshin Shibata, Kansai Mori, Bairei Yukino, Gyokusho Kawabata, Keinen Imao of the Maruyama school; Chikudo of the Kishi school; Honen Tsukioka and Gekko Ogata of the ukiyoyé school.

In the 40th year of Meiji the first art exhibition was opened by the Education Office; and since that time it has been held once every year, greatly stimulating the resurrection of traditional Japanese art. The Tokyo circle of Japanese style painters was represented by Taikan Yokoyama, Kanzan Shimomura, Kogyo Terasaki, Gyokudo Kawai, Tomoné Kobori, Jippo Araki, Suiun Komuro, Somei Yuki, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Reika Yoshikawa, Eikyu Matsuoka, Hyakusui Hirafuku and Keigetsu Matsubayashi; while in the Kyoto circle were well-known painters like Kokyo Taniguchi, Hobun Kikuchi, Seiho Takeuchi, Shunkyo Yamamoto, Kako Toji, Keigetsu Kikuchi and Suisho Nishiyama. All of these east-and-west leaders displayed great activity in nurturing the Japanese style of painting as we see it today.

(3) Western Painting. Towards the end of the Yedo era the foundation of the Occidental style in painting had already been laid by Kokan Shiba and Dezen Aodo; and now came Togai Kawakami, Yuichi Takahashi, Horyu Goseda, Hosui Yamamoto, Shinkuro Kunisawa, Chu Asai,

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Shotaro Oyama, Kiyowo Kawamura and Naojiro Harada, for whom the former foundation work became the basis for a new start. In the early Meiji days, English and Italian painters came to give lessons at the fine art department of the Tokyo Imperial University. Later, in the 21st year of Meiji, the Meiji Bijutsukai was founded for the purpose of enhancing the Western style of painting. It was, however, not until Kiyoteru Kuroda returned from France and opened a department for Western style painting in the Tokyo Fine Art School, that the Occidental mode really became established. Important artists in the new style in those days were Saburosuké Okada, Eisaku Wada, Takeji Fujishima, Kotaro Nagahara, Mankichi Kobayashi, Fusetsu Nakamura, Kunishiro Mitsutani, Sanzo Wada and Kunzo Minami. The models set by these great painters still prevail to-day, but will in future be more subjected to the influence of the Japanese style before reaching consummation, just as the Japanese style will assimilate Western motives and technique as it keeps on its forward march.

(4) Industrial Art. The ceramic industry made rapid advancement after the arrival of Wagner from Germany with a new technique; and with the help of Kozan Miyagawa, Yohei Kiyokazé, Dohachi Takahashi, Rokubei Shimizu and Sobei Kinkozan. In recent years Hazan Itaya, Rokubei Shimizu and Ichiga Numata have won distinction in this sphere of art. During the Meiji era, fine cloisonne was manufactured and exported in abundance. Metal work also developed to a remarkable extent, producing a number of skilled artists. In the domain of lacquer and dying industries no less improvement brought Japanese industrial art to the verge of its golden age.

The tendency of Western countries to vie with one another in holding Japanese art exhibitions amply endorses the international value of Japanese art.

(5) Sculpture. Upon opening the Tokyo Fine Art Academy, Kyuichi Takeuchi and Koun Takamura gave lessons in traditional Japanese wood sculpture. Western style sculpture was also taught, by an Italian instructor in the academy, side by side with lessons from Shukei Naganuma who had returned from Italy, followed by Fumio Asakura, Taimu Tatehata, Seibo Kitamura. From Koun Takamura and Kyuichi Takeuchi we come down to Choun Yamasaki, Unkai Yonehara, Denchu Hirakushi, Shin Naito. In the Meiji era the rise of ivory carving was also conspicuous, producing engravers like Gyokuzan Asahi and Komyo Ishikawa.

What helped the phenomenal ascendency of all branches of art were the Bunten (Education Office's art exhibition) which later came to be called Teiten (Teikoku Bijutsuin art exhibition), and the Inten (Nihon Bijutsuin art exhibition). Besides, there were and are exhibitions held by many other smaller groups of painters. From the viewpoint of art, it is not too much to say that Japan is to the Orient what France is to Europe.

Present Day Art

The period since the close of the Meiji era has been no less remarkable in the art history of Japan than the previous period, evincing brilliant activity in every direction. Since 1919, when the Imperial Art Academy was established, a systematic movement in the art world of Japan has been promoted. During the Taisho and Showa eras many

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institutions and organizations have been created, and new schools successively introduced from Western countries, especially from France, Germany, and Italy. Western-style painting, coming first under the sway of French impressionism, and later passing through many stages of European influence, has produced vigorous and progressive artists who are thinking hard and exploring the furthest reaches of European pictorial thought. They have already reached the level of their Occidental benefactors, in technique. At a time when all the visual arts, if not all others as well, seem to be aspiring towards Occidental ideals of art, it must yet be noticed that our native art traditions are still retained, and characterize all works of purely Japanese fine art, with its classical rhythm and beauty.

Japanese-style Painting There are now in this country various exhibitions of Japanese-style paintings held by many institutes, wherein members are always seeking to achieve a more perfect expression of their ideals through traditional form and long-fostered technique. In the earliest stages of modern Japanese art, Kakuzo Okakura and other leaders, entertained this ideal, along with a number of artists and art societies, as well as such pioneers in our art-world as Hogai Kano or Gyokusho Kawabata ; and they joined efforts in the development of this school. Recently the art produced by their efforts has, in other hands, begun to degenerate into merely lifeless, mechanical work ; and Western realism, instead of the old traditional method, is gaining gradual influence among painters. But in spite of the struggle between Orientalism and Occidentalism in technique, the art workers in Japanese style are still vigorous.

The "Teiten" or Imperial Fine Art Academy Exhibition, which includes various Sections of Fine Art, in 1931 celebrated the 25th anniversary of its establishment. As the only art exhibition under management of the Government, it has, since its foundation, been exerting a profound effect upon this sphere of art, along with the Institute of Japanese Art (Nihon Bijutsuin), which is a private institution established specially for Japanese-style paintings. This was organized in 1898 under direction of Kakuzo Okakura and Gaho Hashimoto. These two institutes have continued to hold an exhibition every year. They have given birth to works of admirable achievement and merit, under such masters as Seiho Takeuchi, Taikan Yokoyama, Eikyu Matsuoka, and Hyakusui Hirafuku, all of whom are contributors to the native school.

On the other hand, there are other painters who also produce extremely creditable work, bringing out the profundity of the Oriental spirit and rising high above the conflict between Japanese traditionalism and Western realism. They are all grouped in organizations. Seison Maeda, Yukihiko Yasuda, Usen Ogawa, Sofu Nagano and Reimei Mamichi belong to the Nihon Bijutsuin ; and Somei Yuki, Eikyu Matsuoka, Tsusen Ogiu, Ren Yamada, Shokin Katsuta, Nanyo Inui, Katsuji Koizumi, Ryuko Tsutaya, Gengetsu Yazawa and Saiten Tamura comprise the Japanese Painting Society (Nihon Gakai).

In the Kansai district, the Free Painting Society of Japan (Nihon-Jiyugadan) was organized by certain artists grouped in Kyoto, which has in itself special significance for lovers of genuine Japanese art. The members are Keisen Ikeda, Bunto Hayashi, Keigaku Nishi, Kokan Watanabé, Shunki Tamaya, Manshu Ueda and other painters. The num-

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ber of talented painters is too numerous to mention, but the following are well known : Buzan Kimura, Yukihiko Yasuda, Kokei Kobayashi, Insho Domoto, Kwansetsu Hashimoto, Heihachiro Fukuda, Seison Mayeda, Shokan Taichi, Keisen Tomita, Gakuryo Nakamura, Kampo Arai, Koka Yamamura, Tokan Fudeya, Sofu Nagano, Seisui Hashimoto, Usen Ogawa, Tsunetomi Kitano, Gyoshu Hayamizu, Koichiro Kondo, Seiju Komoda, Eiho Hashimoto, Kahaku Kobayashi, Chiyuki Sakikura, Nampu Katayama, Sanryo Sakai, Fudo Tomitori, Taigetsu Koyama, Taigyu Okuma, Kiyokata Kaburagi, Fumio Tanaka, Ryushi Kawabata, Toyoshiro Fukuda, Isso Sakaguchi, Rofu Ochiai, Shumpa Kawaguchi, and Keimei Anzai.

Western-style Painting It is not too much to say that the striking progress of Western-style painting is chiefly owing to the efforts of the Nikakai members, who, dissatisfied with the purely academic tendency of the Imperial Fine Art Academy, freed themselves from its restraint, and organized a society of their own. The Nikakai was organized in 1913 by an active group of rising painters of fresh and advanced ideas, the members being Ikuma Arishima, Yuzo Fujikawa, Hakutei Ishii, Morichi Kumagai, Jutaro Kuroda, Tokusaburo Masamuné, Katsuyuki Nabei, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Shintaro Yamashita, Sotaro Yasui, Haruyé Koga, Seifu Tsuda, Seiji Togo, and foreign painters, André L'Hôte and Zadikine. In 1922 was founded the Shunyokai by Misei Kosugi and other artists who had formerly been associated with the Western-style painting Section of the Institute of Japanese Art, but who had seceded from it, together with Ryuzaburo Umehara. The other members are Hakuyo Kurata, Noboru Hasegawa, Kanaé Yamamoto, Gen-ichiro Adachi, Shohachi Kimura, Tsuruzo Ishii and Ippei Okamoto. The Pacific Art Society, the oldest Western-art organization of the Meiji era, was established in 1905, and with them instruction in Western-style painting was first begun. Toraji Ishikawa, Banka Maruyama, and Kunishiro Mitsutani were conspicuous collaborators.

The Kaijusha was formed in 1924, supported by such able painters as Juji Kanazawa, Itaru Tanabé, Soshichi Takama, Sakujiro Okubo, Yoshihiko Kumaoka, Yori Saito and other artists.

In 1930 the Independent Art Association was founded by certain extremists in the art-world, like Katsuzo Satomi, Zenzaburo Kojima, and nine other members of the Nikakai, who had been dissatisfied with the mannerism of that society and left it. The new body consisted of 13 congenial artists, who aimed at working for a new art movement, by opening up a fresh course for students of Western-style. The painters of note in this group are Moriichi Kumagai, Kinzo Kuniyeda, Haruyé Koga, Tokusaburo Masamuné, Katsuyuki Nabei, Kigen Nakagawa, Hanjiro Sakamoto, Seifu Tsuda, Reiichi Yokoi, Giken Kinoshita, Kanemitsu Hamada, Shogo Taguchi, Genichiro Adachi, Noboru Hasegawa, Shohachi Kimura, Misei Kosugi, Hakuyo Kurata, Issei Nakagawa, Ippei Okamoto, Zennosuké Tanaka, Shozo Yamazaki, Kanayé Yamamoto, Kotaro Takamura, Sadao Tsubaki and Tsusei Kono.

In addition to these societies, there are some minor organizations such as the Hakujitsu-Kai, the Japanese Painting Society (Nihongakai), the Creative Print Association of Japan, and the National Art Association, all of them no less remarkable than the Societies previously mentioned.

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Sculpture For the promotion of plastic art, there are many organizations which contain, each of them, sculptors of distinction. Besides the "Teiten" and the "Nikakai" which have also Sculpture Sections, there is the "Kozosha", organized in 1926, for study in the various branches of plastic art. It is supported by Sogan Saito, Jitsuzo Hinako, Saburo Hamada, Miézo Shimizu, Kanji Yo, Taménari Hirai, Minato Kozu, Takézo Sato and other artists. It can hardly be denied that this sphere of art, on the whole, does not show such brilliant activity as other similar organizations.

Other sculptors of note are Denchu Hirakushi, Hakuréi Yoshida, Chozan Sato, Koyu Fujii, Tsuruzo Ishii, Ryumon Yasuda, Takéshiro Kita and Takézo Shinkai.

Applied Art Our applied arts have developed in their own way, giving birth to many works of really admirable craftsmanship, some being of more artistic merit than those of Europe. At every exhibition, various branches of applied art are represented. Many artists, some using all their traditional technique, or others creating wholly new forms, are striving to satisfy the demands of present-day life. The Fine Art Association of Japan is a leading organization, having Hozuma Katori, Kéigi Nakata, Choun Yamazaki, Shunzan Yagioka, Hiromi Minakami, as directors.

Other prominent artists in this sphere are: Nobuo Tsuda, Kamézo Shimizu, Shisui Musumi, Eiichi Ishida, Kiyoshi Unno, Séizan Kawamura, Kanémi Uyématsu, Sozan Sawada, Tozan Ito, Shuétsu Sakita, Senroku Kitahara, Shodo Sasaki, Héizo Tatsumura, Andon Yamamoto, Séika Yamaga, Kozan Miyakawa, Ichiga Numata, Kanjiro Kawai, Yoséi Tsuchiaki, Joun Oshima, Hankichi Kiuchi, Hoshu Takamura, Kado Sugita, Hakusai Okuni, Shumin Funabashi, Koshun Katsura, Gonroku Matsuda, Ryushin Umézawa, Séimi Yotsuya, Mia Isozaki, Ryuzan Ishino and Chibun Onojima.

Architecture After the earthquake and fire of 1923, Tokyo and other cities witnessed the erection of many new buildings; and almost all these structures reveal a lively modernism under the influence of European styles, though some are more or less marked by national-classical characteristics. At present, Japan has acquired the modern mentality for steel and reinforced concrete; and many buildings in Japanese cities are as large and expensive as those in America. On the other hand a dozen or more able architects are thinking out greater possibilities in the adoption of newer European styles of architecture. Already in the new Mitsui Bank and the Mitsubishi Bank, as well as in many other new buildings, Japan can show imposing examples of architecture unsurpassed for art and utility by any other country.

The 1934 Exhibitions

The 9th exhibition of the National Painters' Society was opened on April 22, 1934, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery. The number of paintings sent in for examination reached 1,738 (Western painting 1,064; block colour-print 223; industrial art 298; and sculpture 153). The accepted works were 232 or Western painting 64, block colour-print 26, industrial art 115, and sculpture 27. There were found 34 new persons among the accepted.

The submitted works to the Shunyo-kai Art Exhibition which was opened on April 21, 1934, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery in Ueno Park numbered 1,800, of which 230 were accepted. Among the 31 new paint-

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ers the name of Mr. Salvatolle Melzeh was found.

The 21st Nika-kai exhibition was opened on September 3, in the Tokyo-fu Art Gallery at Ueno. The number of works submitted was 4,033 (3,868 Western paintings and 165 sculptures). The number of Western paintings accepted was 376 and that of sculptures 39. Among new admissions there were two Chinese young painters, Li and Kwan who were born in Shanghai.

The 21st Nihon Bijutsuin Exhibition (Inten) was opened on the same day and in the same building with the Nika-kai, the number of works submitted was 812, of which 51 (23 new) Japanese paintings and 54 (8 new) sculptures were accepted.

Inten and Nika both closed their exhibitions on October 4. The continuous rain, quite unusual for the season of the year, held back visitors. The total number of visitors to the former was 45,000, decreasing 7,000 as compared with the previous year, while that of the latter was 30,000, decreasing 6,000. The number of works sold was correspondingly small, i. e. 16 in the Inten Exhibition and 6 in the Nika.

The 15th Teiten (Imperial Academy of Fine Arts) Exhibition was opened on October 16 and closed on November 20, the résume was as follows :

	Works submitted	Works accepted
Japanese painting	1,845	264 (48 new)
Western painting	8,398	225 (50 „)
Sculpture	455	152 (22 „)
Industrial art	1,097	214 (53 „)
(Japanese sword)	(118)	(14)

Art Museums

A list of the more important art museums follows :

1. Tokyo Imperial Household Museum : Ueno Park, Tokyo ; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m. Departments : Art and History.
   Officials. President : Eisaburo Sugi ; Manager : Masaaki Yajima.
2. Imperial Household Museum at Nara : In Nara Park ; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m. ; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5.
   Departments : History and Art. Director : Gunichi Wada.
3. Kyoto Onshi Museum : In Shichijo, Kyoto ; open daily from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m. ; closed from Dec. 25 to Jan. 5. Departments : Art and History.
   Officials. Director : Fujio Wada ; Advisors : Torajiro Naito and Yasunosuké Seki.
4. Chokokan : In Uji Yamada, Mié. Director : Kotaro Sakamoto.
5. Reihokan : At Koya-san, Wakayama. Director : Chito Izumi.
6. Treasure house, Kanshin-ji : In Kanshin-ji-mura, Minami-Kawachi-gun, Osaka.
7. Treasure house, Koryuji : At Uzumasa-mura, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
8. Reihokan, Ninnaji : At Omoro, Kadono-gun, Kyoto.
9. Museum of the Faculty of Letters, Imperial University, in Kyoto.
10. Kankokan : in Hiroshima.
11. Treasure house of the Itsukushima Shrine : At Miyajima, Hiroshima.
12. Kokuhokan : at Kamakura.
13. Sanda Museum : at Sanda, Arima-gun, Hyogo.
14. Governmental Museum : at Seoul, Chosen. Manager : Ryosaku Fujita.
15. Keishu Museum : in Keishu-gun, Keisho-hokudo, Chosen. Manager : Hideo Moroshika.
16. Prince Li's Museum : in Seoul, Chosen.
17. Kanto-cho Museum : at Port Arthur, Kwantung Province. Director : Naomiki Hirose

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Music

The First Period

Primitive Music The development of Japanese music may be divided into four periods. The first period originates in prehistoric times and ends about the reign of the Empress Suiko (592-627 A. D.). This is the music of the ancient Japanese (Yamato), and is here named, for convenience, primitive music. To regard the music of this stage as primitive may seem inappropriate, because towards the close of the 6th century Yamato civilization had advanced quite beyond primitive culture. The word primitive is applied here because, although music should show some development of artistic form, no such form was known in the music of this period. Compared with the music of the period that followed, a striking difference is noticed.

The Second Period

Introduction of Foreign Music The second period started about the end of the Suiko régime in the 7th century, and continued till about the end of the Heian period, at the close of the 12th century. The characteristic feature of this period lies in the building up of Japanese music upon a foundation of Chinese, Korean and Indian music, which possessed a markedly advanced form and was then being freely introduced into our country.

(1) The First Half. In the first half of this period imported music was imitated. Music was first introduced from Korea (Chosen), then from India and lastly from China. Of the three, only that from China continued to come freely thereafter. The Chosen music then imported was widely different from the music introduced from China and India, especially in the degree of its evolution. But even such undeveloped music as that of Chosen (then called Sankan), was far more advanced than Japanese music. It is, therefore, but natural that there was an abysmal difference of standard between the Japanese music of the early period and that later imported from China and India. Moreover the early models were monopolized by the nobles; the masses could not share the privilege of enjoying the advanced art but had to be content with the same old primitive music. For two to three hundred years this state of things continued, until the reigns of Emperors Saga and Nimmei when genuine Japanese Court music, called gagaku, came into vogue. But even this home-made gagaku was of foreign origin too.

(2) The Second Half. During the second half of the second period, foreign and domestic music became harmonized, producing a new Japanese style in vocal music. Founded on the imported music staff, the vocal music of this period can not be compared with the purely national music that prevailed in a later period. The varieties then developed were kagura, saibara, roei and imayo, all of which can be included in the following two groups:

(a) One group was modelled after foreign music but set to the key of Japanese music of the primitive age; and hence the reconstruction thus effected in ancient Japanese music was only in form. The most conspicuous examples are the kagura, azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and yamato-uta. No doubt the kagura existed in the prehistoric age, as may be inferred from Japanese history, but not until past the middle of the Heian period did it appear in the regular form of music. The kagura is a sacred dance with music,

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practised on the stage of a shrine at village festivals. The kagura now observed, however, is fundamentally different from that staged in those days; it saw marked development in the Heian period. In the early days of the sacred kagura dance it adopted so primitive a form of vulgar indecency that it could not be performed today.

During this latter part of the second period all the other three branches of music, namely, azuma-asobi, Kumé-uta and yamato-uta, were also practised at shrine festivals. Originally they had no relation with shrines, the first two having developed from folk-songs, and the third from a war-song sung during the triumphant expedition into Yamato under the Emperor Jimmu. The adoption of those folk-songs in the rites of sacred festivals was made possible by the advanced music of foreign origin employed at Buddhist temples; better music also became indispensable at Shinto shrines in order to rival the advanced Buddhist music. Unlike Buddhist temples, the Shinto shrines hesitated to make use of imported material; and so they had no alternative in those days but to improve their music on the ancient models of the country. The principal instruments employed for this purpose were the six-stringed Japanese koto and the six-holed kagura flute, remodelled.

(b) Those modes that come under the category of the other group are the saibara, roei and imayo, which were combinations of imported and Japanese music then in vogue. As regards saibara, it is believed that it was a sort of folk-song that prevailed in the Nara period, but the sihara, a folk melody of the Nara period, can not be compared with the saibara which was an artistic vocal song of the Heian period; in form they are widely apart. The saibara in the Heian period was in fact an artistic product. These branches of music served for the amusement and diversion of nobles, and had nothing to do with religious services. They were exclusively of foreign origin in form.

The Third Period

Seclusion of Domestic Music The third period begins with the Kamakura era and terminates towards the close of the Tokugawa Shogunate, or from the beginning of the 13th century to the middle of the 19th century. A characteristic of the period was its seclusive tendency in music. By the term seclusive music, however, is not meant national seclusion, but that music, like other arts, throughout the period, was driven into seclusion in consequence of incessant civil war in Chosen and China, which prevented its development in Japan. Save for the material brought back by priests from China no foreign culture entered Japan during that age; and it is for this reason that the term seclusive represents the third period. Characteristic features of this third period are seen in the relations of music with literature.

(1) Music and Literature. As a natural result of the interruption of intercourse with continental civilization, the influence of the Japanese language made itself felt on music, so much so that in form music seemed to belong to language, both evolving together; in fact, story and song became the essential requirements of music.

(2) The Range of Influence. Next, the range of influence of each school was narrowed, until such forms as kiyomoto, joruri, shinnai and itchubushi became representative during the third period, but each of them was cultivated in a limited locality and time. In this connection joruri

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was most conspicuous, because, based entirely on the national literature, it appealed only to the people who understand the language used. Kiyomoto music thrived in Yedo, joruri prospered in Osaka, and itchubushi flourished in Kyoto. Thus in the third period none of the music born and popularized was of national to say nothing of international character but was limited to a certain locality. This, however, is by no means a proof of retrogressive tendency in music; for the harmony thus realized between Japanese literature and music was no meagre advantage. It was natural too, for in the evolution of art song is older than speech, poetry than prose.

(3) Music and the Military. Then there was the relation of music to military administration. The government was in the hands of feudal lords. In the preceding period music was regarded as a means of culture, and treated as such by the leisured class, because, among the nobles, proficiency in this art constituted an essential element in anyone aspiring to be a man of character. Under the feudal lords, however, asceticism rose to influence among the samurai class, and music was looked down on as no more than a mere luxury which military men should despise as effeminate. This trend of the times gradually transferred music from the control of the nobles down to the lower orders of the community. This is why samisen music did not develop among the upper class but the lower stratum of society, where it thrived. The exclusion of samisen music by the intelligentsia was a glaring defect of the military administration. Naturally all branches of music in those days had to develop on the basis of popular knowledge and common sense.

Although civil strife is a great deterrent to the art of music, this was not so true in Japan as in China, for in Japan the Imperial household, whose existence and dignity suffered practically no change on account of the new military government, music was encouraged in Court circles. Then again it was protected and cultivated by priests; new music was fostered especially by Kamakura priests. The Heiké Biwa originated and developed under priestly auspices; and the shakuhachi music was introduced from China and popularized in the Buddhist domain, also through their efforts. The shakuhachi music now in vogue had its origin in this period.

The Muromachi Era The Muromachi era, sandwiched in between the Kamakura and Tokugawa eras, corresponds to a middle third period in the history of music. Between the Kamakura and Muromachi Shogunates a striking difference is noticeable in that, while a military administration was possible under the former, it was denied to the latter. Beginning with the Muromachi era the Ashikagas removed the Shogunate from Kamakura to Kyoto. Since Kyoto was the seat of the Imperial household, the officials who were military men could not do without etiquette in their association with Court officials of the Imperial household. They had to be familiar with the art of flower arrangement, the tea ceremony and the yokyoku music of the lyrical drama, or No dance. Thus from the necessity of studying these arts of social etiquette, military men had to approve and promote them. The introducers of the No dance were priests who returned from China, and used this sort of drama for moral or religious purposes, like the miracle and morality plays in England. The No dance was probably derived from something similar in China.

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Early Yedo Era The last period begins and ends in the early Yedo era. All through this period popular music prevailed; the samisen, a popular musical instrument introduced into the country towards the end of the Ashikaga era, rose to great influence. Naturally, therefore, such popular music as the joruri, nagauta, kouta and hauta developed rapidly; they were especially popular among merchants and artisans.

The samisen was not only a representative musical instrument throughout the Yedo era but also occupies a most important position in Japanese music today. This three-stringed Japanese guitar has now come to enjoy worldwide recognition as an advanced musical instrument. Nearly 400 years ago, toward the end of the Muromachi period, it arrived in the country through the Ryukyu islands and is supposed to be of Spanish or Chinese origin. Compared with the sho and biwa, imported in the 5th or 6th century, the samisen is a thing of but yesterday. Yet it is found everywhere in Japan as an accompaniment to vocal music.

The Fourth Period

Internationalization of Japanese Music The fourth period covers the Meiji and Taisho eras (1868-1926) when domestic music rose to join the world current of music. The people awoke from their long slumber throughout the isolated Yedo era, and exchanged anti-foreignism for free intercourse with the outside world. With this epochal open-door movement came the Meiji Restoration which eliminated the Shogunate and restored the old Imperial régime. In obedience to the august wish of the Emperor Meiji all welcomed the introduction of the supposedly more advanced European civilization. Music was no exception. European music then imported was enthusiastically imitated all through the period. Production of imitative art was not the only task assigned to that age, for side by side with the movement the reconstruction of native music occupied the serious attention of musicians. A similar tendency is noticeable in and about the Nara period in the 8th century, when advanced ideas, imported from the continent, afforded models on which the ancient music of the country was reconstructed. Yet, a great difference is evident between that and the movement now under review; because, whereas in that day home music still lingered in the primitive stage and imitation of alien models was effected only with extreme difficulty, improvement in the native music of the Meiji era was so easy a matter that reconstruction could be carried out by mere importation of new staffs. This fourth period, which corresponds to the Meiji and Taisho eras, can be studied from three points of view, with reference to the development of the art.

(1) Innovations in Traditional Music and Revival of Ancient Music. In the Yedo period the development of music in form was insignificant, because importance was placed on expression of sentiment. People who realized this defect in the traditional Japanese music, agreed on the necessity of introducing radical innovations in this direction. This new movement was responsible for the stimulus given by the extensive introduction of European music, which in form was far superior to Japanese. Up to about the 16th year of Meiji considerable effort was expended towards eliminating this defect. As a practical attempt to attain this object, a movement was created for reconstruction work on the form of sho music which had deplorably degenerated in the Yedo

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era, due to the influence of samisen music then at the height of popularity. The rise of the Yamada school in Tokyo is an example. Shakuhachi music likewise could not escape being influenced by the reconstruction current of the times.

For revival of ancient Japanese music the Gagaku Bureau was created in the Imperial Household Office in the 3rd year of Meiji. A large number of authorities on gagaku became officials of the bureau and strove to effect reorganization of the ancient music of Japanese parentage. These Court musicians set about composing new music out of gagaku, for use in elementary schools. The national anthem, Kimigayo, is a product of that bureau. Precisely speaking, Kimigayo ought to be played in gagaku, but, instead, it has come to be rendered with European instruments; for in those days they were the only musical instruments in educational institutions. Kibigaku, which is still popular in the Kansai district, is a form of gagaku somewhat vulgarized, at the time, by Hoshu Kishimoto, an Okayama musician.

(2) Diffusion of European Music. One of the outstanding features of musical development in the Meiji and Taisho eras is that Japanese musical education was placed on the foundation of European music. The introduction of European music into Japan can be traced as far back as the entrance into Japan of Christianity. This, however, had been monopolized by the introducers themselves in their respective localities of influence, until in the 2nd year of Meiji it entered the capital for the first time. In this year Japanese soldiers learned military band music from an English naval band master at Yokohama, which is perhaps the first instance of our official use of European music. Soon afterwards, in the 5th year of Meiji, both army and navy bands were inaugurated. Later, in the 12th year of Meiji, an investigation commission on school musical education was established in the Education Office. A commission, headed by Mr. Shuji Izawa, conducted inquiries as to the best method of teaching European music in Japanese schools. In the following year the Education Department invited an expert from America, and, under his superintendence, made music a part of elementary school education. Three years after, the Tokyo School of Music was established. This briefly is but an outline of the growth of European music in Japan during the Meiji era. It was mainly due to Government encouragement that European music was popularized in Japan much earlier than generally expected. But, for sounder and more thorough instruction in European music we must look to the era of Taisho. Rapid progress of music in the Taisho era was made possible principally in the following ways:

(a) Propagation by Gramophone. This invention enabled inhabitants of even the remotest corners of the island Empire to appreciate the great foreign music masters.

(b) European War and Visiting Musicians. At the outbreak of the European War many well-known musicians of the West went to America and Oriental countries in order to avoid being involved in the turmoil, and to find appreciation of their music in more peaceful environment. These world-famous musicians gave a number of concerts in Japan, and thus afforded us an opportunity to hear the best music the world can produce. So fortunate an event contributed much toward cultivating a taste for music in this country. Not long afterwards came radio, also from the West; and, like

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the gramophone, radio also greatly helped the public towards a more intelligent appreciation of European music. This musical instrument, however, should be regarded as more properly belonging to the present era of Showa.

(3) Internationalization of Japanese Music. The diffusion of the knowledge of European music demonstrated to us its international qualities, systematized form and aesthetic structure. The vast difference between this international music of the West and Japanese music which is but national, served to spur on the reconstruction movement among the Japanese interested in music. The movement originally started in the middle of the Meiji era, but at that time it had no fixed goal at which to aim. Now, however, renewed ambition moved in three definite directions:

(a) The attempt to harmonize European instruments with the rhythm of Japanese music was laudable, but this seems to have been confined only too largely to Japanese students of European music.

(b) The movement to produce European rhythm with Japanese musical instruments, such as the samisen, sho and shakuhachi, was the task of those musicians who specialized in domestic music and who were yet familiar with modern ideas.

(c) A scheme to create a grand symphony orchestra of mixed foreign and domestic instruments was studied and tried by a few accomplished musicians, but the success or failure of the attempt is a question of the future.

Latest Developments

European Music (1) Schools. The Tokyo Academy of Music, established in the early Meiji era, still flourishes as the only government institution of the kind. Most of the teachers are now Japanese. Leo Sirota is an instructor of piano, and Maria Toll is in charge of vocal music. The school has an orchestra and mixed chorus, organized by students, graduates and teachers, and conducted by Mr. C. Pringsheim. They give public concerts several times a year. Generally speaking, the Tokyo Academy of Music attaches much importance to German classical music, and the orchestra plays, among other masterpieces, symphonies and overtures by Beethoven, Bach and Mozart, although modern French works, such as the Nocturne by Debussy, have occasionally been attempted. The latest performances were the Fifth Symphony by G. Mahler, 1932, and the Ninth Symphony by Beethoven in the spring of 1933. In addition to this government academy, there are several private music schools, among which the most outstanding is the Tokyo Higher School of Music (Tokyo Koto Ongakuin), at Kunitachi-mura, Tokyo, each with its own orchestra and mixed chorus.

(2) Orchestras. Outside the schools there were also several orchestral groups, but all, except the New Symphony Orchestra conducted by Viscount Hidemaro Konoé, have dissolved for want of support in an age of economic depression. The surviving symphony orchestra holds concerts twice a month regularly, and has already given over a hundred entertainments, rendering pieces by various German composers, like Beethoven, Schumann, Schubert and Brahms, as well as the works of Tschaikovsky, Rimsky-Korsakoff and Moussorgsky. Several modern French productions have also been rendered. Besides, the orchestra takes advantage of the visits of Western musicians to give the orchestral accompaniment to their rendering. The Nippon Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Mr. Kosaku Yamada, has

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now almost merged into the New Symphony Orchestra, on whose platform its conductor is occasionally seen. A mandolin orchestra, known as the Sinfonia Mandolini Orchestra, was created in the early Taisho era, the conductor of which is Mr. Morishigé Takei of the Bureau of Court Music of the Imperial Household Department; it gives concerts twice a year, in spring and autumn. Among foreign musicians of note who have visited Japan are Mischa Elman, Efrem Zimbalist, Fritz Kreisler, Jascha Heifetz, Jacques Thibaud, John McCormack, Ernestine Schumann-Heink, Amelita Galli-Curci, Toti Dal Monte, Mischa Levistzki, Benno Moiseivitch and Leopold Godowsky. Several Italian and Russian opera companies and Russian orchestras have also performed.

(3) Choruses. Besides those attached to schools there are several amateur chorus companies under the leadership of professional musicians. As there are no good chorus pieces in the Japanese language, no appreciable success has yet been attained. In most ordinary educational institutions, such as universities and colleges, there are music clubs, each with its male chorus.

(4) Opera. In the early Taisho era there was created in the Imperial Theatre an opera company under the leadership of Professor Rossi. Miss Tamaki Miura, who was regarded a prima donna at this nascent stage of Japanese opera, became a member of the company and finally won world-wide notice as an opera singer. The company later dissolved and the members organized an operetta troupe, which, after a brief period of obscure existence, met the same fate. In more recent years, stimulated by the visit of Russian and Italian opera companies a movement to revive opera was started, but no tangible success has been attained. Opera scenes have been sometimes broadcast by the radio broadcasting stations, but no native opera company has yet reappeared. Inasmuch, however, as the Tokyo Academy of Music is directing some of its talent towards this line of music, genuine Japanese opera may be expected to materialize in the near future.

(5) Religious Music. The music of the churches does not show the development that one might expect. This is, perhaps, because the members are not favoured with much musical endowment. However, recently there came into existence, outside the Church, groups which investigate religious music. At the Tokyo Academy of Music choral and cantata pieces have often been rendered by chorus and orchestra, giving Mozart's "Requiem" and the "Missa Solemnis" by Beethoven.

(6) Exhibitions. It is but recently that musical competitions have come to be held. The first trial of the kind was attempted by mandolin orchestras at the close of the Taisho era, while chorus exhibitions were not given until the Showa era. In 1932, under the auspices of the Jiji Shimpo, a contest of piano, violin and vocal music was arranged to be held annually, the judges to award the prizes being leading musicians of the capital. Furthermore, it was so arranged that the three most talented among those taking prizes were to be sent to Europe. A young pianist, Miss Miwako Kai, won the highest honour at the first exhibition.

(7) Composers. In the realm of musical composition Japan still lingers in the stage of research.

Messrs. K. Yamada and Kosuké Komatsu—all leading Japanese composers—have almost entirely ceased to wield influence, but seeing that there are a number of young musicians who are devoted to the study

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of the wake left by German music, or the harmonies of French music, it is hoped that the basis of a new Japanese music will be laid. As regards the general public, they have grown somewhat tired of German classical music and turned their attention to the lighter airs of southern Europe, of even the jazz now in vogue in the United States. In urban centres social dances prevail to such an extent that folk-songs are set mostly to dance music. In the field of genuine Japanese music, songs akin to kouta are now in vogue, the leading vocalists being Miss Katsutaro and Miss Ichimaru, both of whom are geisha. Not only folk-songs but war songs have revived, since the Manchuria emergency. The old war ditties sung at the time of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars have come again into vogue, together with a new and thrilling ballad with the "Three Heroic Warriors" who made bombs of themselves at Shanghai, as its theme.

(8) Vocal Soloists. The most noted vocal soloists are Tamaki Miura, Yoshié Fujiwara, Toshiko Sekiya and Yoshiko Miyagawa. But among instrumental musicians there is no name specially worthy of notice; Mrs. Koko Ando, formerly professor at the Tokyo Academy of Music, has won distinction as a violinist under the tuition of Joseph Joachim, but she has seen her best days, and is now settled down as a successful teacher. At the Bureau of Court Music in the Imperial Household Office each musician performs on his own favourite European instrument; and there is an orchestra which at one time was quite influential. In the orchestra there are some good violinists and cellists but few who have been on the stage as soloists. There is, however, a string quartet, organized by some of the members of the orchestra, called the Haydn Quartet. Long established, it is now regarded as the only superior quartet in Japan, though occasional changes occur in its membership. As a violinist, Miss Nejiko Suwa is regarded as having the brightest future. Though only a lass of thirteen, trained under Professor Moguilewsky, she has yet sufficient understanding of classical music to leave no doubt of her exceptional musical talent.

(9) The Piano. The piano is the most popular musical instrument in the Japanese home at present. Even among amateur girl pianists there are many who display fair attainment. In singular contrast to this, few male pianists show skill in the art of music. This can be explained by the fact that formerly Japanese girls used to start their musical education with the koto (Japanese harp), which, having proved too primitive and monotonous, has gradually fallen into decline, being replaced by the piano. In this way the younger daughters of the upper middle class in towns have begun to receive training on the piano. In these circumstances there is naturally a dearth of male musicians outside the domain of vocalists. In this connection too it is interesting to note that Lafcadio Hearn, the famous interpreter of Japan, once remarked that the Japanese had no faculty for music, referring to their apparent lack of appreciation of Western music at that time. His somewhat rash remark has happily proved unjustified. Western music in Japan is still in transition. The Japanese have become good listeners, but have not yet become good players. But there is really no good reason why in the future Japan will not turn out world-famous musicians. For this, training is of course the great essential. Encouraging signs are already evident among our young mu-

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sicians, especially women. For instance, Miss Chieko Hara, a pianist only 17 years old, won the first prize in the 1932 concours in Paris.

1933-1934 Music In the early part of 1933 there were held a number of recitals, the important ones being a piano solo by Chiyeko Hara in February; a vocal solo by Maria Toll, and a piano solo by Leo Sirota in the same month; and vocal music by Yoshiko Nagasaka, Boku Kageyama, etc. Furthermore Sirota, Moguilewsky, and Pollack made important contributions towards Japanese appreciation of Western masterpieces all through the year, either in the ensemble or through radio. In March a recital in honour of the new graduates of musical schools was held at Hibiya. The second concours under the auspices of the Jiji Shimpo was held at Hibiya on May 13 and 14, and the first prizes were awarded Miss Masako Kanematsu (instrumental music, piano), Miss Kayoko Izaki (vocal music, soprano), and Mr. Setsu Imagawa (composition). The result in general showed a decided advance compared with the first concours.

May 7 of the year was the centenary of Johannes Brahms (1833-1897) and on April 22 the ceremonial concert in his honour was given in the Asahi Hall under the auspices of the Asahi, and the Sirota Trio, Maria Toll, and Nobu Suzuki took part in it. The New Symphony Orchestra also celebrated the occasion in the Hibiya Auditorium accompanied with Leo Sirota's piano solo.

Friedmann of Poland visited Japan in September and his piano recital lasted for five evenings, October 2-6, in the Hibiya Auditorium. He left an enduring impression in the heart of Japanese lovers of music. A critic on music said, "one may talk about the genuine beauty of piano music and the poetic value of Chopin after he has listened to Friedmann play Chopin."

The Tokyo Academy of Music held a special concert in the presence of the Empress on March 17, 1934 in celebration of the birth of the Crown Prince. The programme consisted of the No "Takasago", by Umewaka, Kanzé and Hosho; the nagauta "Tsuru-kamé", by Yoshizumi; the koto music, by Michio Miyagi; Mozart's Coronation Symphony, conducted by Pringsheim; Wagner's Imperial March and Bach's Prelude in E Major, by Sueko Ogura. It was one of the best performances ever given by the Academy.

Leo Sirota gave a piano recital in the Nippon Young Men's Hall at Aoyama on April 23. The pieces chosen were rather for specialists than for the mass, including Busoni's piece, Chopin's Ballade, Dvorák's Humoresque, Smetana's Polka and Stravinsky's third movement of Petrouchka. His simple rendering and easy representation of these difficult pieces carried his audience completely.

Sydny Kreutzer and Nicolai Tcherepnin visited Japan in 1934 and the former gave concerts on the works of Schumann and Chopin while the latter introduced his own compositions.

From October to December, 1934, the New Symphony Orchestra gave excellent representations of Beethoven for nights.

Native Music (1) The Koto. The koto has long been popular in Japan as a domestic musical instrument. It still retains friends among all classes, although it has lost some of its former popularity. Improvements have been attempted by specialists in recent years. An authority on koto music, Michio Miyagi, attempted to organize an orchestra with koto, shakuhachi (Japanese bamboo clarionet) and samisen. Like most koto

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musicians, he showed more talent than insight, by attempting, on traditional Japanese musical instruments pieces he composed in European style, but has already attained a fair success. The "Spring Sea", a duet for koto and violin was composed by him and rendered by Madame Renée Chemet, a violinist who visited Japan in 1932.

(2) Nagauta. This is samisen music, developed in the Yedo period, and still serves widely as an accompaniment to dances at theatres; and social entertainment, in homes. But it has never been able to rise superior to its early development in the gay quarters; the text remains too vulgar for domestic occasions. Through the efforts of a singer, Kosaburo Yoshidzumi, and a samisen player, Rokushiro Kineya, the nagauta texts are now being revised to suit family taste, new compositions for children being produced and new rhythms introduced. Another pioneer in this field is Sakichi Kineya, himself a noted samisen player. He once attempted the composition of a concerto for the samisen as a solo instrument with a view to cultivating a new sphere for the samisen. The success or failure of the new attempt remains to be seen. Other noted musicians of nagauta are Ijuro Yoshimura, Wafu Matsunaga; and samisenists, Kangyoku Kineya, Eizo Kineya, Isaburo Kashiwa.

(3) Joruri. The joruri music is made up of tokiwazu and kiyomoto, besides gidayu. Kiyomoto is mostly a lyric melody for a tenor voice; while tokiwazu demands a high baritone and is therefore rich in dramatic element. The joruri music is now employed merely as an accompaniment to stage dance and ballets; it scarcely goes beyond preserving the old tradition. It is interesting to note in this respect that Enju-dayu, a descendant of the Kiyomoto family, by which the school was founded, is a splendid lyric tenor whose art overshadows even Japanese vocalists of the Western style. The gidayu music is indispensable to the kabuki (Japanese classical play) and ningyo shibai (puppet-theatre) in their stage performances, but this music contains not only ordinary airs but it also has plenty of musical recitation.

Noted joruri musicians are: kiyomoto—Enju-dayu, Kiku-tayu, Umekichi (samisenist); tokiwazu—Matsuo-dayu, Mojibeë (samisenist); gidayu — Shikoro-dayu Takemoto, Tsu-dayu Takemoto, Tosa-tayu Takemoto, Koutsubo-dayu Toyotaké and Iwao-dayu Toyotaké.

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CHAPTER XXXVI

SPORTS

Japan in the World Olympics

Stockholm and Antwerp Japan participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1912, at Stockholm, when only two athletes represented the country. They were Shizo Kanaguri, marathon runner, and Yahiko Mishima, short-distance runner, both of whom were miserably defeated. In the following Olympiad, which was held in Antwerp in 1920, 15 Japanese took part. Of these, 11 were track and field men, and the others were two swimmers and two tennis players. Neither the track and field men nor the swimmers placed. The tennis entrants won second place.

The Paris Olympiad Japan made its real debut in the Eighth Olympic Games in Paris in 1924, with 14 men participating. A third place in wrestling was the only official score, but Mikio Oda won sixth place in the hop, step and jump; the swimming team placed fourth in the 800-metre relay; Katsuo Takaishi came in fourth in both the 100-metre and 1,500-metre free style, and Kenkichi Saito took sixth place in the backstroke event.

At Amsterdam The year 1928 found 63 Japanese competing in the North Olympic Games at Amsterdam. The late Miss Kinué Hitomi was the only girl in the Japanese delegation and the first Japanese woman to take part in the Olympics, made impressive performances. She won a 100-metre heat in 12.8 seconds and took second place in the 800-metre finals by negotiating the distance in 2 minutes 17.7 seconds. Mikio Oda not only scored for the first time but won Japan's first Olympic championship by taking the hop, step and jump event. In the swimming competition, an equally bright success was attained by Yoshiyuki Tsuruta, who took first place and the championship in the 200-metre breaststroke. Kazuo Kimura placed sixth in the running high jump; Yonétaro Nakazawa placed sixth in the pole vault; Kanésaku Yamada placed fourth and Séiichiro Tsuda placed sixth, respectively, in the marathon; Katsuo Takaishi won third place in the 100-metre free style swim; Toshio Iriyé came in fourth in the 100-metre backstroke; the 800-metre relay team placed second. The swimmers won second place in competition with the United States, the championship winner. Japanese took part in the boxing, regatta and equestrian contests for the first time but lost.

At Los Angeles The results achieved at Los Angeles by 131 athletes were satisfactory. The delegation took seven championships, seven second places and four third places.

(1) **Aquatic Meet** Japan dominated the 1932 aquatic meet as no other nation had done in the past. Of 150 official points scored in the six races, 86 went to Japan and only 46 to all other nations together. The result is Japan 86 and America 33, with the rest outdistanced. Only one race was by a non-Japanese champion, the 400-metre free style, in which Clarence Crabbe, of the United States, and Jean Taris, of France, upset expectations and finished ahead of the Japanese trio in

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new record time. The only team race, the 800-metre relay, went to Japan by a wide margin in almost incredible time, 8 min. 58.4 sec.

The Japanese swimmers produced both world and Olympic records in the Los Angeles meet. The Japanese 800-metre relay team produced a new world record with a time of 8 min. 58.4 sec. Shozo Makino set a new world mark when he swam the first 1,000 metres in the 1,500-metre free style, broke the Olympic record, 58.6 sec., set by the great American swimmer, Johnnie Weismuller, by negotiating the distance in 58 sec. flat. Others who broke Olympic records were Reizo Koiké, who won the 200-metre breast stroke in 2 min. 44.9 sec., and Katsuo Kitamura, 15-year-old boy, who won the 1,500-metre free style in 19 min. 13.4 sec.

(2) **Track and Field Events** In the track and field events, the Japanese did not show up so brilliantly as did their team mates in the aquatic events. Thanks to Chuhéi Nambu, however, Japan was able to defend the hop, step and jump championship which Mikio Oda had won at Amsterdam in 1924. With a mark of 15.72 metres, Nambu not only won the championship but established a new world record. Another outstanding performance was turned by Baron Takéichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, who won the difficult equestrian contest, the Prix des Nations. By winning this steeplechase, Baron Nishi put Japan's horsemanship on a high plane in the eyes of the world.

The principal performances of the Japanese athletes of both sexes and their records are given below :

TRACK AND FIELD

100-metre run—Ryutoku Yoshioka won sixth place in the finals. Time, 10.8s.

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.

1,600-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth.

Marathon—Seiichiro Tsuda placed fifth and Onbai Kin sixth. Time, 2h.35m.42s. and 2h. 37m.28s. respectively.

Running high jump—Kazuo Kimura placed sixth with 1.90 metres and Misao Ono seventh.

Running broad jump—Chuhei Nambu placed third with 7.45 metres, and Naoto Tajima sixth with 7.15 metres.

Pole vault—Shuhei Nishida barely missed the championship by losing to Bill Miller, of the United States, placing second with 2.28 metres.

Hop, step and jump—Chuhei Nambu won and defended successfully the title which Mikio Oda had captured at the Amsterdam meet. Nambu's record, 15.72 metres, set a new world mark.

SWIMMING

100-metre free style—Yasuji Miyazaki won. Time, 58.2 seconds, breaking the Olympic record set by Johnnie Weismuller but Miyazaki had turned in a better record, 58 seconds, in the semi-finals.

400-metre free style—Tsutomu Oyokota placed third with 4 minutes 52.3 seconds.

1,500-metre free style—Kusuo Kitamura won. Time, 19 minutes 12.4 seconds, which broke the Olympic record set by Arne Borg.

100-metre back stroke—Masaji Kiyokawa won. Time, 1 minute 8.6 seconds.

200-metre breast stroke—Yoshiyuki Tsuruta won. Time, 2 minutes 45.4 seconds, which broke the Olympic record

800-metre relay—Japan's team won. Time 8 minutes 58.4 seconds, which set a new world record.

WOMEN'S TRACK AND FIELD

400-metre relay—Japan's team placed fifth. Time, 50.2 seconds, which broke Japan's record.

Javelin—Miss Masako Jimbo placed fourth with 39.06 metres.

WOMEN'S SWIMMING

100-metre back stroke—Miss Misao Yokota placed fifth in the semi-finals.

200-metre breast stroke—Miss Hideko Maehata placed second, only four-fifths of a second behind the winner. Time, 3 minutes 6.4 seconds, which broke the existing Olympic and world records.

400-metre relay—Japan's team (Kojima, Yokota, Morioka and Arata) placed fifth. Time, 5 minutes 6.7 seconds.

HOCKEY

Japan's team placed second.

EQUESTRIAN COMPETITION

Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi won the Prix des Nations.

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Japan will send a delegation of 337 athletes and officials to the World Olympic Games to be held in Berlin next year, it was decided in May, 1935, by the Olympic Preparatory Committee of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation. This will be nearly twice the number Japan sent to the last Olympic Games in Los Angeles. The increase will be a part of Japan's campaign to bring the 12th Olympic Games to Tokyo in 1940.

The Japanese contingent will participate in the 14 events, skiing, skating, track and field, swimming, boxing, soccer, basketball, rowing, field hockey, wrestling, gymnastics, riding, yachting and art. Japan will enter the soccer games and yacht races for the first time, while basketball is a new sports adopted by the coming Olympiad. The sum of ¥1,250,000 has been provided for the athletes' expenses.

The Tenth Far Eastern Olympiad

The Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games were held in Manila between May 12 and 21, 1934. Much trouble was created in Japan before the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation finally decided to participate in the event. The Japanese side proposed to the headquarters of the Championship Games that Manchoukuo, represented by the Manchoukuo Amateur Athletic Federation, should be allowed to participate in the event. A protest was raised by both China and the Philippines that the matter had to be submitted to a general conference of the participating countries and the Constitution of the Games be revised for admittance of Manchoukuo. This attitude angered those supporting the Manchoukuo side and caused them to advise the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation to withdraw from the event, unless the matter was accepted. The matter was telegraphed to the Manila headquarters, but the reply was that it had to be submitted to a general meeting for approval. In the midst of a vigorous opposition, the Japanese Federation submitted to its general meeting a plan whether it had to attend the games in Manila or renounce its right to participate, leaving the Manchoukuo Federation, and finally it was decided the Federation would attend it with a determination to discuss matters regarding the Manchoukuo participation in the next event and to withdraw from the Games, if the Constitution could not be revised so as to let the Manchoukuo participation possible. In course of the games in Manila, the matter was discussed, but failed to be adopted by unanimous consent. In consequence, the Japanese Federation made up its mind to depart from the Games and to organize a new athletic federation with the object of promoting physical culture. Japan, however, participated in the Tenth Games throughout. On June 12, after the return of the Japanese sports delegation to Japan, it was resolved by the delegation that the Japanese Amateur Athletic Federation withdraw from the Far Eastern Championship Games and organize the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient. Japan, Manchoukuo and the Philippines have decided to join the new Federation, but China will not join it. Thus the Far Eastern Championship Games have been forced to break up.

Results of the Tenth Far Eastern Championship Games follow:

BASEBALL

Philippines	25	to	China	1
Japan	20	to	China	1
Philippines	7	to	Japan	0
Philippines	14	to	China	0
Japan	8	to	China	0
Japan	2	to	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; Japan 2nd; China 3rd.

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BASKETBALL

China	42	to	Japan	26
Philippines	51	to	Japan	35
China	48	to	Japan	47
Philippines	37	to	China	27
Japan	40	to	Philippines	37
Philippines	44	to	China	33

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

VOLLEYBALL

Philippines	3	to	Japan	2
China	3	to	Japan	2
Philippines	3	to	China	0
Philippines	3	to	Japan	1
China	3	to	Philippines	2

Note: Philippines 1st; China 2nd; Japan 3rd.

FOOTBALL

China	2	to	Philippines	0
Dutch East Indies	7	to	Japan	1
China	2	to	D.E.I.	0
China	4	to	Japan	3
Japan	4	to	Philippines	3
Philippines	3	to	D.E.I.	2

Note: China 1st; Japan, Philippines and D.E.I. 2nd.

LAWN TENNIS

Japan	4	to	China	1
Philippines	4	to	D.E.I.	1
Philippines	2	to	Japan	1

Note: Due to Japan-Philippine finals being called off, no championship was decided.

TRACK

Japan	50
Philippines	38
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd.

FIELD

Japan	51
Philippines	19
China	7
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd and D.E.I. 4th.

PENTATHLON & DECATHLON

Japan	18
Philippines	13
China	7
D.E.I.	2

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E I. 4th.

SWIMMING

Japan	68
Philippines	15
China	0
D.E.I.	0

Note: Japan 1st; Philippines 2nd; China 3rd; D.E.I. 4th. Boxing is not mentioned, as it was not included in championship games.

To commemorate the establishment of the Amateur Athletic Association of the Orient among the Philippines, Japan and Manchoukuo, after the break of the Far Eastern Championship Games in the summer of 1934, Japan invited 20 athletes, five boxers and 15 baseball players from the Philippines for a series of games in June, 1935.

Results of the games follow:

TRACK AND FIELD

Japan	98-50	Philippines (Tokyo)
Japanese Student Stars	68-47	" "

Baseball

Philippines 12-6 Moji Railway Bureau (Fukuoka); Yahata Iron Works 5-1 Philippines (Yahata); Philippines 2-1 Yahata Iron Works (Yahata); Philippines 11-1 Yahata Iron Works (Fukuoka); Kwansai University 4-3 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 2-1 Kwansai University (Osaka); All Osaka 3-2 Philippines (Osaka); Philippines 12-5 Keio University (Tokyo); Philippines 5-3 Rikkyo (Tokyo); Hosei University 3-2 Philippines (Tokyo); Waseda 12-3 Philippines (Tokyo); and Tokyo Club 6-1 Philippines.

Boxing

Philippines 3-2 All Kwansai (Osaka); Philippines 4-1 All Kwanto (Tokyo); Kwanto Student Champions 4-1 Philippines (Tokyo); Philippines 3-2 Middle Japan (Nagoya).

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Development of Western Sports

The History Young When a Japanese refers to "sports," he usually means Western athletic sports, not the traditional sports of Japan. The tremendous interest of the Japanese in Western sports and the remarkable development that they have made in them have relegated Japan's own sports to the background. One may pay tribute to the athletic prowess of the Japanese and their adaptability and capacity for assimilation, but one strong reason for the great popularity of the sports from the West may be sought in the fact that most Western sports are played collectively, instead of individually as in the case of Japanese fencing and judo, and they appear to suit the race in their modern mode of life. Western sports, moreover, offer the Japanese an opportunity to compete with other athletic nations and demonstrate their ability. This gives more incentive for their enthusiasm for foreign sports.

Despite their remarkable growth, Western sports in Japan are very young, and their history is a matter of only half a century. Sixty years ago, no Western sport worth the name existed in Japan. The fact that Japan could send only two athletes to the World Olympic Games for the first time as late as 20 years ago and suffered a miserable defeat is indicative of the slight athletic progress the country had attained up to that time. Except for baseball, which was played zealously even in the earlier years, it is no exaggeration to say that Japan's participation in the World Olympics provided the real incentive for the growth of Western sports in general.

The Far Eastern Olympiad It should be added in this connection that, one year after Japan's first participation in the World Olympics, the Far Eastern Olympic Games were organized, with Japan, China and the Philippines as the participants. There is little doubt that this minor Olympics had a great deal to do with athletic development in Japan. As in the case of the World Olympics, Japan had an insignificant beginning as far as points go, but in 1930 the country so completely defeated the Philippines and China that one who was acquainted with the remarkable athletic progress in Japan doubted the usefulness of further competition in the Far Eastern Olympic Games. The first meet of this junior Olympics was held at Manila in 1913, and since then successive Far Eastern Olympic Games have been held every other year. In 1930, when the last meet was held in Tokyo, it was agreed to hold the meet every four years so that it would not clash with the World Olympics. The last Far Eastern Olympic Games took place in Manila in May, 1934. In addition to the World and Far Eastern Olympic Games, there have been from time to time frequent exchanges of visits between Japanese athletic teams and those of foreign countries, which not only has offered the Japanese opportunities to learn valuable lessons but has proved a medium through which international friendship can be formed.

Traditional Sports Of Japan's traditional sports, those which have remained from ancient times and which still hold the interest of the people include jujitsu (judo), known as the art of self-defence; kenjutsu (kendo), or fencing; sumo, or wrestling, and swimming (native styles). All these major sports are still being practised throughout the country. Probably the most popular is wrestling. At the Kokugikan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, on the bank of the Sumida River, which flows

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through Tokyo, a professional wrestling tournament is held twice a year, in January and May. H.I.M. the Emperor invites almost each year not only professional wrestlers but jujitsu and fencing masters of the land to the palace for matches in His Majesty's presence. In addition to these Japanese sports, there are others, such as archery and horsemanship of ancient origin, but they have suffered more or less decadence since the overthrow of feudalism.

Under Education Minister All sports in Japan are controlled either by the Ministry of Education or the Home Office. All students' sports are under the jurisdiction of the Education Ministry, and such non-student affairs as Japanese professional wrestling and professional boxing are under the control of the Home Office. Matters such as the maintenance of peace and order in and around the wrestling amphitheatre or boxing ring are in the hands of the local police.

The leading athletic organization in Japan is the Amateur Athletic Association, with Ryozo Hiranuma as acting president. This is the organization which controls track and field games in Japan and selects athletes for international meets. There are other similar organizations, such as the Japan Amateur Swimming Federation and the Japan Lawn Tennis Association.

Records Various statistics of records made by Japanese athletes follow:

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Running

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
100 metres	10.4s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1933)	10.3s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1933)
200 ,,	21.2s. Ryutoku Yoshioka (1933)	20.6s. Ralph Metcalfe, U.S.A. (1933)
400 ,,	49.0s. Keiji Imai (1934)	46.2s. Bill Carr, U.S.A. (1932)
800 ,,	1m. 54.0s. Kumao Aoji (1934)	1m. 49.8s. Ben Eastman, U.S.A. (1934)
1,500 ,,	4m. 0.4s. Hideo Tanaka (1934)	3m. 48.8s. William Bonthron, U.S.A. (1934)
5,000 ,,	15m. 8.0s. Shoji Kitamoto (1933)	14m. 17s. Lauri Lehtinen, Finland (1932)
10,000 ,,	31m. 20.2s. Ryu Choshun (1934)	30m. 6.2s. Paavo Nurmi, Finland (1924)
Marathon	2h. 31m 10s. Kozo Kusunoki (1933)	2h. 31m. 10s. Kozo Kusunoki, Japan (1933)

Hurdles

110-metre high hurdles	14.6s. Tadashi Murakami (1934)	14.2s. Percy Beard, U.S.A. (1934)
400-metre low hurdles	54.6s. Yukio Fukui (1933)	50.6s. G. Hardin, Sweden (1934)
200-metre low hurdles	24.3s. Iwao Anno (1930)	23s. N. Paul, U.S.A. (1933)

Relay Races

400 metres	41.5s Sasaki, Suzuki, Taniguchi, Yoshioka (1934)	40s. Kiesel, Toppins, Dyer, Wykoff, U.S.A. (1932)
800 ,,	1m. 28s. Kono, Kondo, Taniguchi, Suzuki (1934)	1m. 25.8s. Lewis, Smith, House, Borah, U.S.A. (1927)
1,600 ,,	3m. 16.8s. Nakajima, Masuda, Oki, Nishi (1933)	3m. 8.2s. Fuqua, Alowich, Warner, Carr, U.S.A. (1932)

Walking

3,000 metres	15m. 24.8s. Kanshiro Narita (1934)	12m. 53.8s. G. Rasmussen, Denmark (1915)
5,000 ,,	25m. 51.6s. Eiji Wada (1933)	21m. 59s. A. Schwab, Switzerland (1931)
10,000 ,,	62m. 47s. Hatsutaro Akiyama (1923)	44m. 42.4s. A. H. G. Pope, Great Britain (1932)

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Jumping

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
Running high jump	2 mtrs. Yoshiro Asakuma (1934)	2.06 mtrs. W. Marty, U.S.A. (1934)
Running broad jump	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu (1931)	7.98 mtrs. Chuhei Nambu, Japan (1931)
Hop, step and jump	15.82 mtrs. Kenkichi Oshima (1934)	15.82 mtrs. Kenkichi Oshima, Japan (1934)
Pole vault	4.30 mtrs. Shuhei Nishida (1932)	4.37 mtrs. W. Graber, U.S.A. (1932)

Weight Events

Putting 16-lb. shot	14.13 mtrs. Shizuo Takada (1934)	17.40 mtrs. J. Torrance, U.S.A. (1934)
Hammer throw	49.10 mtrs. Isao Abe (1934)	57.77 mtrs. P. J. Ryan, U.S.A. (1913)

Discus Throw

44.54 mtrs. Masajiro Itabashi (1931) 52.42 mtrs. H. Andersson, Sweden (1934)

Javelin Throw

68.59 mtrs. Saburo Nagao (1934) 76.10 mtrs. M. Jarvinen, Finland (1933)

Decathlon

7,469.595 pts. Tatsuo Toki (1932) 8,790.46 pts. H. Sievert, Germany (1934)

WOMEN'S JAPAN AND WORLD TRACK AND FIELD RECORDS

Event	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 mtrs. run	6.4s. Kinuyé Hitomi (1927)	6.4s. Mejzlikova II, Czechoslovakia (1922)
100 ,,	12.2s. Sumiko Watanabé (1932)	11.8s. Stanislawa Walasiewicz, Poland (1933)
200 ,,	24.7s. Kinuyé Hitomi (1929)	24.1s. Stanislawa Walasiewicz, Poland (1932)
800 ,,	2m. 28.6s. Kiyoko Itoda (1934)	2m. 12.4s. Koubkova, Czechoslovakia (1934)
80 mtrs. hurdles	12.2s. Michi Nakanishi (1932)	11.6s. Engelhardt, Germany (1933)
400 mtrs. relay	50.2s. Muraoka, Shibata, Tsuchikura, Watanabé (1932)	46.9s. Olympic Team, U.S.A. (1932)
800 ,,	1m. 52.9s. Mayeda, Kondo, Suzuki, Sato (1934)	1m. 45.8s. National Team, Germany (1932)
Running high jump	1.50 mtrs. Yuriko Hirohashi (1934)	1.65 mtrs. Shiley, U.S.A. (1932)
Running broad jump	5.98 mtrs. Kinuyé Hitomi (1928)	5.98 mtrs. Kinuyé Hitomi, Japan (1928)
Shot put	11.05 mtrs. Fumi Kojima (1934)	14.38 mtrs. Mauermeyer, Germany (1934)
Discus throw	36.81 mtrs. Mitsuyé Ishizu (1933)	43.79 mtrs. Waisowna, Poland (1934)
Javelin throw	41.28 mtrs. Sadako Yamamoto (1934)	46.74 mtrs. Gindele, U.S.A. (1932)

JAPAN'S AND WORLD'S BEST SWIMMING RECORDS

Men's Free Style

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 metres	25.8s. Shigeo Takahashi (1934)	
100 ,,	58s. Masanori Yusa (1933)	56.8s. Peter Fick, U.S.A. (1934)
200 ,,	2m. 13s. Masanori Yusa (1933)	2m. 8s. John Weissmuller, U.S.A. (1927)
300 ,,	3m. 32.2s. Shozo Makino (1933)	3m. 24.4s. James Gilhula, U.S.A. (1933)
400 ,,	4m. 46.4s. Shozo Makino (1933)	4m. 46.4s. Shozo Makino, Japan (1933)
500 ,,	6m. 13s. . Shozo Makino (1934)	5m. 57.8s. Jack Medica, U.S.A. (1933)
800 ,,	10m. 1.2s. Shozo Makino (1934)	10m, 1.2s. Shozo Makino, Japan (1934)
1,000 ,,	12m. 41.8s. Hiroshi Negami (1934)	12m. 41.8s. Hiroshi Negami, Japan (1934)
1,500 ,,	19m. 8s. Kusuo Kitamura (1933)	19m. 7.2s. Arne Borg, Sweden (1927)

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Men's Breast Stroke

Distance	Japan's Record	World's Record
50 metres	34.6s. Yoshiyuki Tsuruta (1930)	
100 ,,	1m. 13.8s. Reizo Koiké (1934)	1m. 12.4s. J. Cartonnet, France (1933)
200 ,,	2m. 42.8s. Reizo Koiké (1933)	2m. 42.6s. J. Cartonnet, France (1933)
400 ,,	5m. 56.8s. Reizo Koiké (1933)	5m. 50.2s. Erich Rademacher, Germany (1926)
500 ,,	7m. 50.4s. Reizo Koiké (1932)	7m. 33.1s. Paul Schwarz, Germany (1933)

Men's Back Stoke

50 metres	30.8s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1933)	
100 ,,	1m. 8.6s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1932)	1m. 8.2s. George Kojac, U.S.A. (1928)
200 ,,	2m. 35.2s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1932)	2m. 32.2s. George Kojac, U.S.A. (1930)
400 ,,	5m. 30.4s. Shoji Kiyokawa (1933)	5m. 30.4s. Shoji Kiyokawa, Japan (1933)

Men's Relay

800 metres	8m. 58.4s. Miyazaki, Yusa, Toyoda, Yokoyama (1932)	8m. 58.4s. Miyazaki, Yusa, Toyoda, Yokoyama, Japan (1932)

Women's Free Style

50 metres	31.6s. Hatsuyé Matsuzawa (1933)	
100 ,,	1m. 13.4s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	1m. 4.8s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1934)
200 ,,	2m. 42.8s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	2m. 28.6s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1933)
300 ,,	4m. 19.6s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	3m. 58s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1933)
400 ,,	5m. 49.6s. Kazuyé Kojima (1933)	5m. 16s. W. den Ouden, Holland (1934)
500 ,,	7m. 35.6s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	7m. 12s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)
800 ,,	12m. 39s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	11m. 44.3s. Lenore Kight, U.S.A. (1933)
1,000 ,,	15m. 57s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	14m. 44.8s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)
1,500 ,,	24m. 8.6s. Hatsuko Morioka (1933)	23m. 17.2s. Helen Madison, U.S.A. (1931)

Women's Breast Stroke

50 metres	43s. Hideko Mayehata (1932)	
100 metres	1m. 26.8s. Hideko Mayehata (1934)	1m. 24.6s. Clare Dennis, Australia (1933)
200 ,,	3m. 0.4s. Hideko Mayehata (1933)	3m. 0.4s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan (1933)
400 ,,	6m. 24.8s. Hideko Mayehata (1933)	6m. 24.8s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan (1933)
500 ,,	8m. 3s. Hideko Mayehata (1933)	8m. 3s. Hideko Mayehata, Japan (1933)

Women's Back Stroke

50 metres	39.4s. Misao Yokota (1933)	
100 ,,	1m. 25.1s. Misao Yokota (1932)	1m. 18.2s. Eleanor Holm, U.S.A. (1932)
200 ,,	3m. 10.4s. Misao Yokota (1931)	2m. 50.4s. Phyllis Harding, Great Britain (1932)

Women's Relay

400 metres	5m. 6.7s. Kojima, Yokota, Morioka, Arata (1932)	4m. 33.3s. Selbach, Timmermanns, Mastenbroek, den Ouden, Holland (1934)

Baseball

Baseball is the most popular and most widely played game in Japan. Sumo, the Japanese style of wrestling, had been known for many years as the national game, but baseball came from the United States and caught popular fancy. The American pastime is now recognized as the de facto national game of this country. The Japanese are agile by nature and gifted with quick headwork and therefore are fitted to play baseball, although their weakness in batting is admit-

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ted. American professional players who have been to Japan and played with the Japanese have said that the Japanese are good pitchers and good fielders, but poor hitters and have recommended that efforts be made to improve batting.

No Professionals Despite the great popularity of the game, there is no professional baseball in Japan. All the games that excite public interest are those of university teams. From time to time there has been talk of organizing professional baseball with players recruited from among graduating university ball players, but so far the talk has not materialized. Opinion is divided as to the advisability of such a scheme. One section of opinion holds that unless professional baseball is organized the game will never attain the degree of perfection in technique which characterizes American professional baseball, for college players' careers as ball players end with graduation, minimizing further chance for improvement of ability; the other emphasizes the spiritual side of the game and opposes the move on the ground that professional baseball would degenerate the fair and clean game now played in Japan.

Its Inception Like track and field sports, baseball was brought to Japan in the early years of Meiji. It is recorded that baseball was introduced by two American teachers in 1872. Not much progress was made until after 1890. The First High School is known as the first school which organized a strong team. Keio University and Waseda University also organized teams. Games began to be played between those schools with much zeal. In 1905, Waseda University sent its team to the United States. It played 27 games and won seven, but the team brought to Japan new tricks, such as winding and bunting, which had been unknown here until that time. Organized cheering was begun about the same time. From then on, American university teams, such as those of St. Louis, Wisconsin, Washington and Chicago Universities, came to Japan. At first, the American invaders were sure to win. As years went by, baseball in Japan developed greatly, however, and now it is admitted that Japanese university teams are on a par with American varsity nines. Hence the almost semi-annual exchange of university baseball teams between Japan and the United States.

Its Development The development of baseball in Japan owes much to the visits of American professional players. In 1913, Japan invited the leading players of the New York Giants and the Chicago White Sox to play with the Japanese and coach them. In 1931, a picked American professional team came under the management of Mr. Herb Hunter. Those Big League players not only impressed the Japanese with spectacular playing but also opened their eyes to the possibilities of further improvement in technique. In 1932, Mr. Hunter brought here Frank (Lefty) O'Doul and a few other Big League players for the purpose of coaching Japanese university players.

The University League The game was laid on a firm foundation in 1925 when the present Six-University Baseball League of Tokyo was organized among Waseda, Keio, Meiji, Hosei, Rikkyo and Imperial Universities. Of the semi-annual league series, the most popular is the Waseda-Keio series, the interest in which is high, as in the Cambridge-Oxford regatta, because of the historical background. Before the present league was formed, Waseda and Keio had such keen rivalry that bloodshed was caused at one of the games and the series had to be abandoned for

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20 years. The creation of the league revived the series, and they are now the World Series of Japan. Each Waseda-Keio game is usually attended by a capacity crowd of 60,000 at the Meiji Jingu (Shrine) grounds, Tokyo.

In the semi-annual league seasons, each university plays a two-game series with the others. The championship winners are decided on the basis of the number of series won, not the number of games won. In case two teams win an equal number of series, the one which comes out with the better percentage is declared the winner; but in case the two teams happen to have the same percentage record, a game is played to decide the title.

The following tables show the complete results of the games in both seasons of 1934, according to the new arrangement made in 1933:

	Hosei	Waseda	Meiji	Rikkyo	Keio	Imp.	Won	Draw	Percentage
Hosei	x	2	2	1	3	3	11	1	.786
Waseda	1	x	2	2	2	3	10	0	.667
Meiji	1	1	x	3	2	3	10	0	.667
Rikkyo	1	1	0	x	1	2	5	1	.357
Keio	0	1	1	2	x	1	5	0	.333
Imperial	0	0	0	1	2	x	3	0	.200
Lost	3	5	5	9	10	12			

Hosei won the pennant.

The two-season system was revived in 1935 and its spring season resulted as follows:

	Hosei	Waseda	Meiji	Rikkyo	Keio	Imperial	Won	Percentage
Hosei	x	2	2	2	2	2	10	.909
Waseda	1	x	2	2	2	2	9	.818
Meiji	0	0	x	2	2	2	6	.600
Rikkyo	0	0	0	x	2	2	4	.400
Keio	0	0	0	0	x	1	1	.100
Imperial	0	0	0	0	1	x	1	.100
Lost	1	2	4	6	9	9		

Hosei defended its title, by beating Waseda, 6 to 5, in the deciding game.

Thirteen baseball players of Harvard University, star nine of the Eastern Collegiate League of the United States, arrived in Tokyo on August 16, 1934, for a series of games against the members of the Tokyo University League and Tokyo Club. The collegians, under the leadership of Coach Henry Chauncey, came at the invitation of Keio University.

The Harvard nine played eight games in Tokyo and two in Osaka, and won only four games and lost six others.

The following was the line-up of the Harvard team:

Edward F. Loughlin (captain), pitcher; Chadwick Braggiotti, pitcher.
Paul deGive, pitcher and catcher; Richard Maguire, catcher.
Charles Nevin, first base; John Adzigian, second base.
Craig Woodruff, third base; Thomas Bilodeau, shortstop.
John Fitzpatrick, Frank Owen, Braman Gibbs.
Gardner Prouty and John Ware, outfielders.

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The results of the games:

Harvard 4-2 Tokyo Imperial; Tokyo Club 8-6 Harvard; Hosei 12-3 Harvard; Rikkyo 9-3 Harvard; Meiji 10-8 Harvard; Harvard 9-7 Keio; Waseda 17-2 Harvard; Keio 6-5 Harvard; Harvard 8-2 Kwansai; and Harvard 13-7 Keio.

Marking as one of the biggest events in the history of the Japanese baseball, 15 star baseball players of the American major leagues, made a barnstorming tour to Japan in the fall of 1934 at the invitation of the Yomiuri Shimbun. They arrived in Yokohama on November 2 and stayed for a month during which they made a clean sweep of winning 18 games against the All Japan nine in leading cities of this country. Mr. Connie Mack, the veteran baseball coach and manager of the Philadelphia Athletics Club, was the leader of the team.

The American team, including such famous players as Babe Ruth, home-run King, Lou Gehrig, Jimmy Foxx and Charles Gehringer, were given a tremendous welcome by the Japanese baseball fans in every city they visited. Every baseball grounds where they played, were filled more than its capacity with the enthusiastic fans, who were, in return, treated with amazing and excellent play by the visitors, both in batting and fielding. Especially Babe Ruth was centre of the attraction, his play being observed keenly by the Japanese. He also was chased around heavily by a large number of autograph hunters wherever he appeared, just same as in his home country.

The All Japan team which was specially formed to meet the American stars with the former star players in the Japanese college leagues, the strongest nine Japan could offer then, was beaten by a lopsided score by the visitors in almost every game they played. A total of 47 home runs was recorded by the American players during their sojourn, with Ruth leading with 13. A name of "home run team," was given by the Japanese fans for their heavy and amazing batting works by Ruth, Gehrig, Foxx, Averill and Gehringer, who all hit home run more than four each.

The American team was consisted of the following players:

Eric McNair (Philadelphia Athletics), shortstop.
Charled I. Gehringer (Tigers), second base.
Babe Ruth (Yankees), left field and first base.
Lou Gehrig (Yankees), first base.
James Foxx (Athletics), third base.
Earl Averill (Cleveland), centre field.
E. J. Miller (Athletics), right field.
Morris Berg (Cleveland), catcher.
Frank Hayes (Athletics), catcher.
Vernon Gomez (Yankees), pitcher.
Earl Whitehill (Washington), pitcher.
Clinton H. Brown (Cleveland), pitcher.
Edward Cascarella (Athletics), pitcher.
Hal Warstler (Athletics), substitute for infielder.
Frank O'Doul (Giants), outfielder.
Mr. John A. Quinn, the noted Southern League umpire, acted as chief umpire.

Results of the games follow:

Americans 17-1 Tokyo Club (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 4)
Americans 5-1 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 5)
Americans 5-2 All Japan (Yunokawa Grounds, Hakodaté, November 8)
Americans 7-0 All Japan (Yagiyama Grounds Sendai, November 9)
Americans 10-0 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 10)
Ruth team 13-2 Miller team, exhibition (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 11)
Americans 14-0 All Japan (Jintsu Grounds, Toyama, November 13)
Americans 15-6 All Japan (Meiji Shrine Grounds, Tokyo, November 17)
Americans 21-4 All Japan (Yokohama Park Grounds, Yokohama, November 18)
Americans 1-0 All Japan (Shizuoka City Grounds, Shizuoka, November 20)
Americans 6-5 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 22)
Americans 6-2 All Japan (Narumi Grounds, Nagoya, November 23)
Americans 15-3 All Japan (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 24)
Miller team 5-1 Ruth team, exhibition (Koshien Grounds, Hyogo, November 25)

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Americans 8-1 All Japan (Itatsu Grounds, Kokura, November 26)
Americans 14-1 All Japan (Kyoto City Grounds, Kyoto, November 28)
Americans 23-5 All Japan (Omiya Grounds, Saitama, November 29)
Americans 14-5 All Japan (Utsunomiya Grounds, Tochigi, December 1)

Track and Field

The birth of track and field sports in Japan dates back to the Meiji Restoration in 1868. In the following year, a physical training course was added to the curriculum of middle schools, which consisted of gymnastics introduced by the Dutch. In the meantime, those who returned home to Japan from abroad, much impressed by athletics in foreign countries advocated the introduction of Western athletics. Several foreign teachers were invited to teach athletics as well as English. Running and jumping were taught, but progress was slow. The first Japanese track and field meet was held in Tokyo in 1884, but the first really systematic athletic meet was not held until 1886. At the latter meet, programmes were printed. It was an epoch-making event. Track and field events about 1889 and 1890 were almost the same as they are now. There were the 100, 220, 400, 880 yards, the 100 yard hurdles, cricket ball throw, the three-legged race and so on. As for records, the best was 10.8 seconds for the 100-yard dash and 18 seconds for the 100-yard hurdles. From that time on, progress was gradual until 1912, when Japan took part in the World Olympic Games for the first time. An outline of the progress of Western sports in Japan in subsequent years is given in the first section titled "Japan in the World Olympics."

At the invitation of the Japan Amateur Athletic Federation, the American track and field stars, captained by Glenn Cunningham, the world famous distance runner, visited Japan in September, 1934, for a series of contests against the leading Japanese athletes. They were the first and strongest athletic force ever came to Japan from the United States, and staged one of the biggest track and field events in this country.

The Americans with 14 members, engaged in two dual meets with the selected Japanese team in Tokyo and Osaka, and appeared in five exhibition contests, visiting Nagoya, Dairen, Seoul and Fukuoka. Their visit was successful, contributing much to Japan's athletic circle and also toward the international friendship between the two countries. The Americans won the first dual contest, held on September 8 and 9 in Tokyo, by a score of 84 points to 75, but lost the second meet to Japan by a close 77½ points to 75½ in Osaka a week later, which was an unexpected victory for the local side. Three world and 13 Japanese records were shattered in these dual contests.

Ralph Metcalfe, the ranking dusky American sprinter, covered the 200-metre course in 20.2 seconds, clipping four tenth of a second from his own world mark, both in Tokyo and later in the Dairen meet. Another world record was bettered by a Japanese, Kenkichi Oshima, former Kwansai University ace, who won the hop, step and jump event with a leap of 15.82 metres in the second dual meet in Osaka. The former world record for this event was 15.72 metres held by Chuhei Nambu of Japan, a sensation in the last Olympic Games in Los Angeles.

Members of the American team were :

Glenn Cunningham (Kansas University); John Anderson (Cornell University); Robert Clark (Olympic Club); Frank Crowley (Manhattan College); Gorden Dunn (Stanford University); Donald Favor (University of Maine); Phil Good (Bordoin University); Howard

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Greene (Abilen Christian College); Charles Hornbostel (Indiana University); Walter Marty (Fresno State University); Ralph Metcalfe (Marquette University); Charles Parsons (University of Southern California); Wirt Thompson (Yale University); and Dudley Wilkins (Louisiana State University). Coach—Mr. John Magee, vice-president of the American Athletic Union.

Winners of the first dual meet were :

Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.5 seconds; 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 20.2 seconds (new werld record); 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Hornbostel (United States), 1:54.0 minute; 1,500-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 4:8.6 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Ryu Choshun (Japan), 15:41.8 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Phil Good (United States), 14.6 seconds; 400-metre relay, American team (Clark, Greene, Parsons and Metcalfe), 41.3 seconds; and Swedish relay, American team (Metcalfe, Parsons, Greene and Hornbostel), 1:57.6 minute.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 1.95 metre; broad jump, Naondo Harada (Japan), hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.28 metres; pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4 metres; Shot put, Gorden Dunn (United States), 15.26 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 47.42 metres; hammer throw, Isao Abé (Japan), 48.98 metres; and javelin throw, Saburo Nagao (Japan), 62.07 metres.

Points scored :

United States		Japan
6	800-metre run	4
4	Broad jump	6
7	Discus throw	3
7	100-metre dash	3
3	High jump	7
4	5,000-metre run	6
3	Javelin throw	7
4	400-metre relay	1
7	400-metre run	3
6	Shot put	4
4	Pole vault	6
6	High hurdles	3
4	Hammer throw	6
7	200-metre dash	3
3	Hop, step and jump	7
5	1,500-metre run	5
4	Swedish relay	1
84		75

Winners in the second dual meet were :

Track Events

100-metre dash, Ralph Metcalfe (United States), 10.3 seconds (tied the world record); 200-metre dash, Metcalfe (United States), 21.4 seconds; 400-metre run, Charles Hornbostel (United States), 49.2 seconds; 800-metre run, Glenn Cunningham (United States), 3:58.4 minutes; 5,000-metre run, Frank Crowley (United States), 16:8.6 minutes; 110-metre high hurdles, Tadashi Murakami (Japan), 14.6 seconds; and Swedish relay, Japanese team (Yoshioka, Taniguchi, Miyanagi, and Imai), 1:57.5 minute.

Field Events

High jump, Yoshiro Asakuma (Japan), 2 metres; broad jump, Masao Harada (Japan), 7.59 metres; hop, step and jump, Kenkichi Oshima (Japan), 15.82 metres (new world record); pole vault, Suyeo Oyé (Japan), 4.20 metres; shot put, Gorden Dunn (United States), 15.62 metres; discus throw, Dunn (United States), 46.43 metres; hammer throw, Donald Favor (United States), 51.16 metres; and javelin throw, Saburó Nagao (Japan), 62.98 metres.

Points scored :

United States		Japan
7	100-metre dash	3
6	200-metre dash	4
7	400-metre run	3
7	800-metre run	3
5	1,500-metre run	5
5	5,000-metre run	5
4	High hurdles	6
1	Swedish relay	4
3	High jump	6
4	Broad jump	6
2	Hop, step and jump	7
3½	Pole vault	6
6	Shot put	4
7	Discus throw	3
5	Hammer throw	5
3	Javelin throw	7
75½		77½

Tennis

Lawn tennis is the Western sport through which the Japanese nation won international recognition for the first time. The game was introduced into this country more than half a century ago, but real tennis, by which is meant the game as played in the West, began only 20 years or so ago.

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Until then the Japanese played the game with the "soft ball." Even now the Japanese have two sorts of tennis, the hard ball and soft ball. Japan distinguished herself in tennis for the first time in 1915, when Ichiya Kumagai and Seiichiro Kashio represented her in the Far Eastern Games held in Shanghai. Kashio dropped one singles match, but the rest were won by Japan.

Prominence at Antwerp Japanese tennis players figured prominently in the international athletic world in 1920, when the Japanese entrants in the World Olympic Games at Antwerp won second place. In the following year, the country entered the Davis Cup tournament for the first time and surprised the world by reaching the challenge round, in which, however, the Japanese dropped to the Americans and missed the honours. But this served to win for the country a high place in international tennis. Since then, the Japanese entrants have cut a good figure each year.

The Davis Cup Tournament The following tables show how each year the Japanese players advanced in the Davis Cup tournament in their attempt to win the tennis supremacy of the world:

1921 (Challenge Round)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Johnston beat Kumagai 6-2, 6-4, 6-2; Tilden beat Shimizu 5-7 4-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-1; Tilden beat Kumagai 9-7 6-4, 6-1; Johnston beat Shimizu 6-3, 5-7, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Williams and Washburn beat Kumagai and Shimizu 6-2, 7-5, 4-6, 7-5.

1923 (Finals, American Zone)
Australia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Anderson beat Shimizu 6-0, 6-3, 6-3; Hawks beat Fukuda 6-3, 6-4, 6-3; Shimizu beat Hawks 6-4, 3-6, 2-6, 6-1, 6-4; Anderson beat Fukuda 6-1, 3-6, 6-2, 6-1. In the doubles, Anderson and Hawks beat Shimizu and Kashio 6-1, 6-2, 6-2.

1924 (Finals, American Zone)
Australia 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches Patterson beat Shimizu 7-5, 11-9, 6-4; Wood beat Okamoto 6-4, 2-6, 6-4, 2-6, 6-1; Patterson beat Okamoto 7-5, 6-1, 6-4; Wood beat Shimizu 6-4, 6-4, 6-2. In the doubles, Patterson and Wood beat Okamoto and Harada 7-5, 6-2, 6-4.

1925 (Finals, American Zone)
Australia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Patterson beat Shimizu 6-1, 6-4, 6-2; Anderson beat Harada 6-4, 3-6, 6-3, 6-1; Harada beat Patterson 6-2, 3-6, 6-1, 7-5; Hawks beat Fukuda 6-1, 6-3, 6-0. In the doubles, Patterson and Hawks beat Shimizu and Harada 6-1, 6-2, 9-7.

1926 (Finals, European Zone)
France 3, Japan 2

In the singles matches, Cochet beat Tawara 1-6, 4-6, 7-5, 6-3, 6-2; Harada beat Lacoste 6-4, 4-6, 6-3, 9-7; Lacoste beat Tawara 6-1, 6-3, 6-2; Harada beat Cochet 6-1, 6-3, 0-6, 6-4. In the doubles, Cochet and Brugnon beat Harada and Tawara 6-0, 6-0, 6-2.

1927 (Finals, European Zone)
France 5, Japan 0

In the singles, Cochet beat Ohta 6-0, 6-3, 6-2; Lacoste beat Harada 6-1, 6-1, 6-2; Harada and Ohta scratched the other two matches. In the doubles, Cochet and Brugnon beat Toba and Harada 9-7, 6-1, 6-2.

1928 (Finals, American Zone)
U.S.A. 5, Japan 0

In the singles, Tilden beat Abé 6-2, 6-3, 6-0; Hennessey beat Ohta 8-6, 6-3, 6-3; Cohen beat Abé 7-9, 6-2, 6-4, 7-5; Tilden beat Ohta 6-8, 6-3, 6-1, 6-0. In the doubles, Tilden and Lott beat Toba and Abé 6-1, 10-8, 6-2.

1929 (Second Round, American Zone)
U.S.A. 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Hennessey beat Abé 8-6, 6-1, 3-6, 6-1; Ohta beat Van Ryn 6-4, 5-7, 2-6, 6-4, 7-5; Van Ryn beat Abé 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 6-2; Hennessey beat Ohta 6-2, 6-2, 6-2. In the doubles, Hennessey and Van Ryn beat Abé and Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 6-2.

1930 (Finals, European Zone)
Italy 3, Japan 2

In the singles matches, de Stefani beat Ohta 6-3, 6-4, 4-6, 6-4; Harada beat Morpurgo

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6-4, 6-3, 7-5; Harada beat de Stefani 6-2, 7-5, 7-5; Morpurgo beat Ohta 6-0, 6-0, 6-1. In the doubles, Morpurgo and Gaslini beat Harada and Abé 8-6, 9-7, 6-3, 2-6, 6-1.

1931 (Second Round, European Zone)
Great Britain 5, Japan 0

In the singles matches, Perry beat Jiro Sato 6-1, 4-6, 7-5, 7-5; Austin beat Hyotaro Sato 0-6, 6-2, 6-4, 6-1; Austin beat Kawaji 6-1, 0-6, 8-6, 6-2; Perry beat Hyotaro Sato 6-2, 6-3, 4-6, 6-2. In the doubles, Hughes and Perry beat Jiro Sato and Kawaji 6-4, 6-4, 8-6.

1932 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Italy 3, Japan 2

Kuwabara beat Palmieri 6-0, 6-2, 1-6, 6-3; de Stefani beat Jiro Sato 6-3, 6-4, 6-4; Palmieri beat Jiro Sato 4-6, 4-6, 6-1, 6-2; de Stefani beat Kuwabara 6-2, 6-2, 6-4. In the doubles, Jiro Sato and Miki beat Palmieri and Sertario 6-4, 6-4, 6-3.

1933 (Semi-finals, European Zone)
Australia 3, Japan 2

Jack Crawford beat Ryosuké Nunoi 6-2, 4-6, 6-3, 4-6, 7-5; Vivian MacGrath beat Jiro Sato 9-7, 1-6, 4-6, 6-4, 7-5; Jiro Sato beat Crawford 3-6, 6-3, 6-1, 1-6, 6-2; Nunoi beat MacGrath 6-4, 6-4, 6-3, 7-5. In the doubles Adrian Quist and Crawford beat Sato and Nunoi 7-5, 7-9, 6-3, 3-6 and 6-3.

1934 (Second round of European Zone)
Australia, 4 Japan 1

Jack Crawford beat Jiro Fujikura, 6-3, 6-3, 11-9. Vivian McGrath beat Jiro Yamagishi, 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-4. Fujikura beat McGrath, 6-4, 5-7, 6-2, 8-6. Oswald Turnbull beat Yamagishi, 6-4, 7-5, 9-7.

In the doubles, Crawford and Adrian Quist beat Yamagishi and Hideo Nishimura, 6-1, 6-0, 4-6, 9-7.

1935 (Second round of European Zone)
Czechoslovakia 4, Japan 1

In the singles matches, Roderick Menzel beat Hideo Nishimura, 6-3, 6-2, 8-6; Josef Zaska beat Jiro Yamagishi, 6-1, 8-6, 6-3; Zaska beat Nishimura, 6-2, 6-3, 6-8, 6-2; and Yamagishi beat Ladislau Hecht, 6-4, 6-1, 6-3.

In the doubles, Menzel and Josef Malacek beat Nishimura and Yamagishi, 2-6, 6-2, 6-1, 6-1. All matches were played at Prague on June 6, 7 and 8.

Tennis Ranking in Japan

Rankings are decided by a committee of the Japan Lawn Tennis Association on the basis of the results of matches played in Japan. It happens, therefore, that Davis Cup players, who have had no chance to play in Japan, are barred from the ranking list. A new list is announced usually each January.

The ranking list for 1934 and 1935 follows :

Singles

	1934	1935
1.	Hideo Nishimura (Keio U.)	Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)
2.	Jiro Yamagishi (Keio U.)	Hideo Nishimura (Keio U.)
3.	Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)	Shunsuké Hirai (Keio U.)
4.	Hyotaro Sato (Asahi Shimbun)	Chuji Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.)
5.	Hajimé Ebisu (Kajimaya Club)	Shigeo Akimoto (Koshien Club)
6.	Yoshio Miyagi (Tokyo Imperial U.)	Hyotaro Sato (Asahi Shimbun)
7.	Shogoro Yamaoka (Waseda U.)	Keigo Yamada (Keio U.)
8.	Keigo Yamada (Keio U.)	Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)
9.	Shunsuké Hirai (Keio U.)	Shinroku Hayashi (Tokyo Imperial U.)
10.	Yasuo Murakami (Keio U.)	Masataro Tsukada (Meiji U.)
11.	Chuji Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.)	Sakuzo Hasegawa (Senshu U.)
12.	Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)	Asao Takada (Tokyo Commercial U.)
13.	Toshiji Yoshioka (Kyoto Club)	Jiro Fujikura (Meiji U.)
14.	Masatomo Tsukada (Meiji U.)	Akimasa Miura (Waseda U.)
15.	Junzo Kinoshita (Kwansei Gakuin)	Tatsuro Goto (Tokyo Commercial U.)
16.	Tatsuro Goto (Tokyo Commercial U.)	Ainosuké Kuwazawa (Waseda U.)
17.	Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)	Reizo Murakami (Keio U.)
18.	Masayoshi Takahashi (Keio U.)	Masayoshi Takahashi (Keio U.)
19.	Ainosuké Kuwazawa (Waseda U.)	Shizuo Fujii (Kwansai U.)
20.	Tsunaji Watanabé (Waseda U.)	Nobuo Ozaki (Kwansei Gakuin)

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		Doubles
1.	Nishimura-Yamagishi (Keio U.)	Nishimura-Yamagishi (Keio U.)
2.	Fujikura brothers (Meiji U.)	Takahashi-Murakami (Keio U.)
3.	Yamaoka-Yoshikawa (Waseda U.)	Fujii-Kuramitsu (Kwansai U.)
4.	Miyagi-Saito (Tokyo Imperial U.)	Kuwasawa-Hattori (Waseda U.)
5.	Yasuda-Watanabé (Waseda U.)	Kinoshita-Ozaki (Kwansei Gakuin)
6.	Uyehara-Murakami (Koshien Club)	Fujikura-Tsukada (Meiji U.)
7.	Kuwabara-Uyehara (Osawa Shokai)	Goto-Takada (Tokyo Commercial U.)
8.	R. Murakami-Takahashi (Keio U.)	Akimoto-Horigoshi (Koshien Club)
9.	Kajima-Kusumoto (Tokyo Imperial U.)	Kawamura-Kiyosu (Kwansei Gakuin)
10.	Kawasaki-Kinoshita (Kansei Gakuin)	Hasegawa-Isobé (Senshu U.)

The following list shows the winners in the annual National Tennis Championship tournament which takes place in Tokyo in November every year:

	Singles	Doubles
1922	Masanosuké Fukuda	Tamio Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
1923	Takeichi Harada	Tamio Abé and Ryuzo Kawazuma
1924	Tsumio Tawara	Iwao Aoki and Taku Ukegawa
1925	Tsumio Tawara	Tamio Abé and Kyo Kawajiri
1926	Yoshio Ota	Hisataka Aizawa and Kengo Asoo
1927	Tamio Abé	Tamio Abé and Masanosuké Fukuda
1928	Hajimé Makino	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1929	Takeichi Harada	Ichiya Kumagai and Takeichi Harada
1930	Jiro Sato	Seiichi Yamagishi and Hikoshichi Shimura
1931	Takao Kuwabara	Seiichi Yamagishi and Yasuo Murakami
1932	Ryosuké Nunoi	Jiro Sato and Minoru Kawaji
1933	Hideo Nishimura	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi
1934	Jiro Yamagishi	Hideo Nishimura and Jiro Yamagishi

In the 1934 tournament, Yamagishi won the singles title by defeating Hideo Nishimura in the final by a score of 6-0, 6-3, 6-1. The doubles championship was successfully defended by Yamagishi and Nishimura who beat Reizo Murakami and Masayoshi Takahashi of Keio University in an easy three-set match, the score being 6-0, 6-2, 6-2.

Swimming

Swimming is one of Japan's major sports that has been handed down from time immemorial. Surrounded on all sides by the sea, the people of the Island Empire had easy access to water. It was but natural that the people became adept in swimming, and swimming masters turned out several distinct styles of swimming, some of which more or less resembled the Western crawl of the present day. Swimming in ancient Japan was a serious subject of study, especially for the fishermen and warriors, to whom swimming was more a practical necessity than a healthful diversion.

The Western crawl was introduced into Japan about 1910. Since then the Japanese have not only copied but developed it into a more perfect stroke. The result was the remarkable showing made by the Japanese mermen at the Tenth Olympiad in Los Angeles in 1932.

As a partial explanation of the swimming ability of the Japanese, it is said that the race is particularly fitted for prowess in swimming. A modern physician once said that the Japanese show better development than other peoples in the muscles in the upper part of the lower limbs that bind them with the lower part

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of the trunk. It is noted in this connection that clever use of the lower limbs, which depend on the muscles in the upper limbs, plays an important part in swimming.

The 1934 national swimming championship meet, held on August 11, 12 and 13 at the Meiji Shrine pool, Tokyo, was featured by the participation of the three American crack mermen, Jack Medica, Arthur Highland and Albert Vande Weghe, who won three out of six events they took part. Two world records were broken in the meet, one by Vande Weghe, and the other by Negami.

The full results follow :

Men's Events

100-metre free style—Won by Masanori Yusa (Nihon); 2nd, Highland (United States); 3rd, Sakagami (Waseda). Time, 59 seconds.

200-metre free style—Won by Masanori Yusa (Nihon); 2nd, Taguchi (Kyoto); 3rd, Sugiura (Mitsuké). Time, 2:17.4 minutes.

400-metre free style—Won by Jack Medica (United States); 2nd, Makino (Waseda); 3rd, Negami (Rikkyo). Time, 4:47.8 minutes.

1,500-metre free style—Won by Hiroshi Negami (Rikkyo); 2nd, Makino (Waseda); 3rd, Medica (United States). Time, 19:16.6 minutes. Negami's lap time in the 1,000-metre, 12:41.8 minutes was a new world record.

100-metre back stroke—Won by Albert Vande Weghe (United States); 2nd, Yoshida (Saeki); 3rd, Katsuhisa (Waseda). Time, 1:8.8 minute.

200-metre back stroke—Won by Albert Vande Weghe (United States); 2nd, Yoshida (Saeki Middle); 3rd, Kawazu (Meiji). Time, 2:33.2 minutes (new world record).

100-metre breast stroke—Won by Reizo Koiké (Keio); 2nd, Hamuro (Nihon); 3rd, Okada (Nihon). Time, 1:15.0 minute.

200-metre breast stroke—Won by Reizo Koiké (Keio); 2nd, Hamuro (Nihon); 3rd, Nakagawa (Nagoya). Time, 2:45.0 minutes.

800-metre relay—Won by Waseda team (Nagami, Shimura, Sakagami and Makino); 2nd, Meiji; 3rd, Kyoto Butokukai. Time, 9:15.0 minutes.

Women's Events

100-metre free style—Won by Umeko Shiomi (Sugiyama); 2nd, Kojima (Sugiyama); 3rd, Watanabé (Aichi Shukutoku) Time, 1:16.4 minute.

200-metre free style—Won by Kazuyé Kojima (Sugiyama); 2nd, Shiomi (Sugiyama); 3rd, Kokan (Chukyo). Time, 2:51.0 minutes.

400—metre free style—Won by Tsuneko Furuta (Nakaizui); 2nd, Kawamura (Yokohama); 3rd, Kitajima (Sugiyama). Time, 6:36.6 minutes.

100-metre back stroke—Won by Haruko Kogiso (Aichi Shukutoku); 2nd, Oda (Tsukushi); 3rd, Izumi (Kyoto). Time, 1:30.0 minute.

200-metre breast stroke—Won by Hideko Mayehata (Sugiyama); 2nd, Tsuboi (Kyoto); 3rd, Mashita (Kyoto Nijo). Time, 3:5.8 minutes.

400-metre relay—Won by Sugiyama team (Shiomi, Mayehata, Hattori and Kojima); 2nd, Kyoto Nijo; 3rd, Aichi Shukutoku. Time, 5:22.4 minutes.

Wrestling (Sumo)

Japan's traditional wrestling, known in Japanese as sumo, is another ancient sport of Japan. It is recorded in ancient history that Nomi-no Sukuné and Taéma-no Kehaya wrestled before the Emperor Suinin. In feudal times each lord had under him the strongest wrestler of the province, and he made it a custom to arrange a match with the wrestler of another lord. Such being the case, the wrestler who was strong and won for his lord many laurels enjoyed warm patronage. Public estimation of wrestlers in those days was unusually high. During the Tokugawa era, which extended for nearly 300 years before the Meiji Restoration (1868), a wrestling tournament was organized, and in January and May of each year the best wrestlers of the Kwanto district (Eastern Japan) gathered for it at Ryogoku, Yédo (present Tokyo). Rankings were decided on the basis of the showing made at the tournaments, and the wrestlers exhibited great enthusiasm in their matches. This custom remains even to this day.

Until late in the Meiji era (1868-1912), Japan had two major wrestling organizations, one in Tokyo and the other in Osaka, but later they merged into one organization. At

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the end of 1931, however, the Japan Wrestling Association had internal trouble. To be more precise, many wrestlers became dissatisfied with the traditional system of distribution of profits because the retired wrestlers, who acted as officials of the association, took the major part, virtually disregarding the wrestlers on the active list. The trouble divided the wrestlers into three separate groups. In addition to the one which remains in the association, there are the Shinko and Kakushin groups. The latter two groups adopted new rules for wrestling, and the group which remains in the association is the only one which retains the traditional wrestling.

The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days. The wrestlers are all professional, and the majority of them have unusually well-developed bodies. Victory in a typical Japanese wrestling match is a matter of a minute or two. Very often it is a matter of a few seconds. The wrestler who forces his opponent to fall or even let any part of the body above the knee touch the ground or to jump out of the ring is declared by the umpire to be the winner. It is said that there are 48 different ways of defeating an opponent. Wrestling is also practised widely in schools, as are jujitsu and fencing.

The list of the principal sumo wrestlers, in May, 1935, follows :

In the order of seniority in the East Camp, Tamanishiki (Yokozuua, or Grand Champion); Musashiyama (Ozeki, or Champion); Shinkai (Sekiwaké, or champion No. 2); Hatasegawa (Komusubi, or champion No. 3).

In the order of seniority in the West Camp, Minanogawa (Ozeki, or Champion); Shimizugawa (Haridashi-Ozeki, or junior champion); Takanobori (Sekiwaké, or champion No. 2); Tomoyegata (Komusubi, or champion No. 3)

Jujitsu (Judo)

Jujitsu, more popularly known as judo, is more a military art than a sport. In olden times, this art of self-defence was widely practised among the warriors, to whom it came next to kenjutsu, or fencing, in importance. One essential difference between wrestling and jujitsu is in the use of strength. The wrestler as a rule throws down his opponent by his own strength, but the jujitsu expert uses little of his own strength, rather taking advantage of the weight and strength of his opponent in hurling him to the floor. Action is unusually swift, and a good expert of jujitsu can easily dispose of a dozen non-jujitsu men in a fight.

This manly art of self-defence was developed to its present popularity and prosperity chiefly by Prof. Jigoro Kano, promoter of the Kodokan style of jujitsu and head of the Kodokan, the leading jujitsu training quarters in Japan. Since he established the Kodokan in 1886, he has turned out thousands of experts, and these experts in turn have popularized the art throughout the length and breadth of the land. After the Russo-Japanese War, jujitsu became popular in foreign countries, where Japanese instructors were invited to teach it. Some foreign writers became enthusiastic over the art, which they said embodied the spirit of the Japanese race, and even went the length of declaring that to it the Japanese owed in large measure their brilliant victory in the Russo-Japanese War, the first war in which an Oriental nation defeated a major Western Power.

At present jujitsu is practised in all middle schools and other higher schools in Japan for its value in physical and mental culture. Many schools have teams, and as with baseball and tennis these teams have seasonal clashes. Private clubs and

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training halls are found in all cities of Japan. Experts receive degrees from the Kodokan.

The list of Japan's outstanding jujitsu experts of the Kodokan includes Nagaoka and Isogai, both holders of kudan, the strongest, Iizuka, Samura, Tabata and Mifuné, all holders of hachidan, the next strongest.

Boxing

Boxing is a Western sport which has earned phenomenal popularity in Japan during the past few years. Earlier, interest was quite negligible. The rapidity with which boxing has become popular in this country owes much to American motion pictures, which introduced it. The hero who gives the villain a black eye and finally knocks him down caught the fancy of the Japanese people, and films recording the major bouts of the past decade, including the famous Dempsey-Tunney fight, also went a long way toward creating interest in boxing here.

Boxing clubs are to be found in all leading cities of Japan. In Tokyo there are about 20 professional clubs which from time to time arrange bouts for the public. There are, of course, champions, both professional and amateur. Foreign boxers are invited to fight Japanese pugilists. Intercollegiate boxing bouts are as popular as professional bouts and draw a heavy attendance, often several thousand men and women. It is only during the past few years, however, that boxing has paid its way.

Records show that boxing was first introduced to Japan by foreign sailors in the early years of the Meiji era (1868-1912) at Yokohama, where they landed and held a few bouts among themselves. It is also recorded that a foreign sailor had a dispute with a Japanese samurai on the street and knocked him down in the clash which followed. The first boxing club in Japan was organized in 1910 by Mr. Kenji Kano. In about 1920, American motion pictures introduced to Japan many scenes in which boxing was employed. In the meantime, Mr. Yujiro Watanabé, trained by the noted negro fighter, Turner, returned to Japan and established a club of his own to train many youths in the pugilistic game.

Japanese boxers participated in the World Olympic Games for the first time in 1928 at Amsterdam. Of the two entrants, one lost the first tussle, but Kintaro Usuda, a welterweight, won two bouts before losing in the quarter-finals. In the Tenth Olympiad, held at Los Angeles, the Japanese boxers made an insignificant showing, not one winning a single bout. In 1931, the All-Japan Professional Boxing Association was organized to control professional boxing.

The first national boxing championship tournament was held for eight days, beginning November 5, 1934, under the joint auspices of the Japan Professional Boxing Federation and the Tokyo Nichi-Nichi Shimbun. The bouts on first five days (November 5, 12, 19, 30 and December 9) were held at the Hibiya Public Hall in Tokyo, mostly elimination matches, and the remaining three cards (December 16, 24 and 25) were held at the wrestling bowl of the Kokugikan, Ryogoku.

More than 150 boxers, mostly from Tokyo, Nagoya, Kobé, Osaka and Seoul, took part. The championships were contested in five different divisions—flyweight, bantamweight, lightweight and welterweight. The participants were divided into two classes, A and B. 30 leading fighters who appeared as favourites for

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championship honours were seeded in A class, and all others were included in B class. The New York Commission rules were applied to the tournament.

Results of the final round, a 10-round match each, were as follows:

Flyweight, Yoichiro Hanada (Imperial Club), 110 pounds, defeated Isamu Ito (Imperial Club), 104 pounds, on point.

Bantamweight, Shoichi Otsu (Kyokuto Club), 113 pounds, defeated Takeshi Makino (Toho Club), 117 pounds, on point.

Featherweight, Tsuneo ("Piston") Horiguchi (Nihon Club), 126 pounds, defeated Sanekatsu Koiké (Dai-Nihon Club), 126 pounds, on point.

Lightweight, Kotaro Suzuki (Imperial Club), 122 pounds, defeated Koichi Takada (Nitto Club), 131 pounds, on point.

Welterweight, Yoshio Natori (Tokyo Club), 133 pounds, won over Riichi Sato (Toho Club), 143 pounds, by a foul in the seventh round.

Football

Rugby Imported from England, this winter sport has gained much popularity during the past decade. The leading universities in Tokyo have a league, and their matches draw large crowds. Japan and Canada have exchanged teams during the last few years. The all-Japan team which invaded Canada left a very impressive record, winning several matches and losing none.

Soccer Soccer is also fast gaining popularity here. The Football Association was organized in September, 1921, in Tokyo, and since then an annual national championship game has been held.

Results of the Kwanto Inter-Varsity Rugby League, 1934.

	Meiji	Waseda	Keio	Hosei	Imperial	Shodai	Rikkyo	Won
Meiji	x	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Waseda	0	x	1	1	1	1	1	5
Keio	0	0	x	1	1	1	1	4
Hosei	0	0	0	x	1	1	1	3
Imperial	0	0	0	0	x	1	1	2
Shodai	0	0	0	0	0	x	1	1
Rikkyo	0	0	0	0	0	0	x	0
Lost	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	

The Meiji fifteen captured the championship by winning all matches.

The deciding match for the national collegiate title between Meiji, the Kwanto champion, and the Kyoto Imperial, winner of the Kwansai league, ended in a victory of the latter by a score of 16 points to 13. The winners scored two goals, one try and one penalty goal, while Meiji made two goals and one penalty goal. The match was played at the Hanazono stadium in Kyoto on January 7, 1935.

After winning the Kwanto league matches, the Meiji University team invaded Shanghai in December, 1934, and won all three matches they played there. The following is the results:

December 16, Meiji defeated the American Marine team, 42 to 6.
December 22, Meiji defeated the Shanghai Club 19 to 11.
December 25, Meiji defeated the All Shanghai team, 11 to 8.

The Tokyo Collegiate Soccer League, formed in 1923, now boasts of 33 members which are divided into six divisions. Keio and Waseda were tied in the first place of the first division matches in 1934. The two teams met in the deciding game for the Tokyo title twice, but fought to draw each time. The first game resulted in a 3-3 tie and the second, 7-7. The championship, therefore, is kept by the League.

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Waseda, representing the Tokyo League, shut out the Kyoto Imperial eleven, winner of the Kwansai League, by 6 goals to 0 to win the national Collegiate championship. The match was played at the Koshien stadium, near Osaka, December 16, 1934.

Rowing

This is one of the Western sports introduced to Japan early in the Meiji era. The Tokyo Imperial University took it up first. Japan's rowing team did not fare well at the Tenth Olympic Games at Los Angeles. Lack of training and poor physical power were blamed for the defeat. The leading universities have races on the Sumida River each year.

The final tryout to select the crew that will represent Japan in the Olympic Games at Berlin in 1936, was held on the River Ara on June 1, 2 and 3, with twelve of the leading college crews of the country taking part. The crews competed were the Tokyo Imperial University, the Tokyo University of Commerce, Keio, Waseda, Meiji, Nihon, Takudai, Japan Medical, the Tokyo School of Foreign Languages, Okura Higher Commercial, the Kyoto Imperial and Doshisha.

Several upsets featured the tryout through excellent performances by new comers such as Nihon and Takudai, resulting Waseda, the 1932 Olympic crew, being eliminated on the first-day race. Keio, the 1934 national and inter-college champion, was also defeated on the second day by Nihon. The Tokyo Imperial University eight, however, finally won a victory, by defeating Nihon by two lengths in the deciding race on the third day. The winner's time for the 2,000-metre course was 6 minutes flat and that of Nihon 6 minutes 7 seconds. The experts and officials of the Japan Rowing Association predict that the Imperial crew will be placed in the next Olympic races after a year of training, as it finished the race with the excellent time.

Members of the Imperial crew are :

Position	Names	Age	Height	Weight
Cox	Tadashi Kirishima	23	5.1 feet	96 pounds
Stroke	Tadashi Negishi	23	5.6	129
7	Katsu Kashiwabara	21	5.6	137
6	Mondo Sekigawa	22	5.9	160
5	Isamu Mita	22	5.9	140
4	Osamu Kitamura	23	5.6	143
3	Haruyoshi Nakagawa	23	5.7	143
2	Takeo Hori	22	5.6	132
Bow	Yoshiteru Suzuki	24	5.5	130
	Average Height		5.6 feet	
	Average Weight		134 pounds	
	Coach		Mr. Shuhei Seta.	

Horsemanship

Japan's horsemanship won international recognition at the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles when Lieutenant Baron Takeichi Nishi, of the Japanese Army, won the Prix des Nations and had the flag of the Rising Sun hoisted. Horsemanship was widely practised by the warriors of the feudal period as a military art. The Japanese army attaches importance to horsemanship and takes great pains in training officers and men. Horsemanship is also gaining popularity among college students and even women. There are at present about 15 clubs in large cities,

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and many universities and colleges have their own riding societies. Horse racing regained popularity with the use of pari-mutual tickets under strict restrictions in 1923. The Government encourages racing by granting aids. There are more than a score of race clubs throughout the country, most of the races being held semi-annually, that is in the spring and autumn.

Those qualified in the second tryout, selecting five members of the Japan's riding team to the Olympic Games in 1936, held at the Military Cavalry School, Chiba, in May, 1935, were :

Major Seishiro Otaki ; Captains Hosaku Imamura, Asanosuké Matsui and Baron Takeichi Nishi ; Lieutenants Manabu Iwabashi and Hiroji Inaba. Except Captain Baron Nishi who won the Prix des Nations at the 10th Olympic Games in Los Angeles, all other five are new comers. The final tryout is scheduled to take place in December, 1935.

Takeshigé Yoshida (Hosei University) won the 1934 championship of the national student horsemanship tournament.

Golf

Once a pastime of the wealthy, golf is beginning to become popular with the opening of public courses. Clubs are to be found in practically all large cities and their environs. A group of Japanese golfers visited the United States in 1932 and participated in national and State tournaments. Although they failed to win any title, they made impressive records. The list of golf links follow :

Name	System	Number of courses	Prefecture
Tama	Club	18	Tokyo
Komazawa	Public	18	,,
Akabané	Club	9	,,
Fujigaya	,,	18	Chiba
Mutsumi	,,	18	,,
Abiko	Club	18	Chiba
Kashiwa	Public	9	,,
Takanodai	Club	18	,,
Sagami	,,	18	Kanagawa
Fujisawa	Semi-public	18	,,
Fujisawa Merry Golf	Club (ladies)	9	,,
Hodogaya	Club	18	,,
Sengoku-hara	Public	9	9
Asaka	Club	18	Saitama
Kasumigaseki	,,	36	,,
Kawaguchi	Public	9	,,
Kawana Ohsima course	,,	18	Shizuoka
Fuji course	Club	18	,,
Karuizawa	,,	18	Nagano
,,	Public	9	,,
Ibaragi	Club	18	Osaka
Inagawa	,,	18	,,
Hirono	Semi-public	18	Hyogo
Takarazuka	Club	18	,,
Beppu	Semi-public	9	Oita
Unzen	,,	18	Nagasaki
Nagoya	Club	18	Aichi
Zenibako	Club	9	Hokkaido
Hakodaté	,,	6	,,
Tsukisappu	,,	9	,,
Doyako	Public	6	,,
Asahigawa	Club	6	,,
Muroran	,,	6	,,

Skiing and Skating

Introduced here only a decade or so ago, skiing has become extremely popular. Japan abounds in good grounds in the northern districts, which accounts for the rapid strides skiing has made. Numerous women are taking to it of recent years. In 1929, Hannes Schneider, the prominent Austrian skiier, visited Japan and exhibited his technique at various skiing slopes at Akakura, Myoko, etc., making a great impression among Japan's ski lovers.

Skating is an older game than skiing in this country. As a sport for the general public, an exhibition was first given about 1907 on Lake Suwa, in Nagano prefecture. The All-Japan Skating Championship Meet for speed skating, figure skating and ice hockey is held there yearly. At Nikko, a rink of tremendous size was laid in the winter

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of 1932 to permit the public to enjoy the pastime. A list of important ski grounds follows :

Name	Prefecture
(Joetsu line)	
Akagiyama	Gumma
Iwano-hara	Gumma
Mizukami	,,
Uzawa-onsen	Niigata
Ojiya	,,
Doai	,,
(Shin-etsu line)	
Kusatsu	Gumma
Kazawa	,,
Sugadaira	Nagano
Kanbayashi	,,
Hoppo	,,
Kumanoyu	,,
Iiyama	,,
Nozawa	,,
Akakura	,,
Ikenodaira	,,
Seki	Niigata
Tsubamé-onsen	,,
(Chuo liné)	
Kirigamine	Nagano
(Hokuriku line)	
Foot of Tateyama	Toyama
Unazuki	,,
(Nikko line)	
Nikko	Tochigi
Senjoga-hara	,,
(Ban-etsu line)	
Numajiri	Fukushima
(Oh-u line)	
Goshiki-onsen	Yamagata
Ohwani-onsen	Aomori
(Tohoku line)	
Za-osan	Miyagi
(Rikuu line)	
Naruko-onsen	Miyagi
(Tokaido line)	
Foot of Mt. Fuji	Shizuoka
Ibukiyama	Shiga
Rokko	Hyogo
(Hokkaido line)	
Aoyama	Hokkaido
Ezofuji	
Sankakuyama (Sapporo)	,,
Teiné (Sapporo)	,,
Midorigaoka (Otaru)	,,
Foot of Tokachidaké	,,
(Karafuto line)	
Toyohara	Karafuto
Asahidaké	Karafuto
Ohdomari	,,
Ochiai	,,
Maoka	,,
ALPINE SKII GROUNDS	
Shirouma	Nagano
Norikura	,,
Kamikochi	,,

Most of skii grounds have shanze, and such grounds as have complete equipments are as follows :

Akagi, Sankakuyama, Nozawa, Iiyama, Numajiri and Toyohara

Other Sports

Basketball Basketball is very popular not only among boys but girls in secondary and higher schools. The Meiji University basketball team invaded the United States in the winter of 1932 and 1933, but it made an insignificant showing.

At the joint invitation of the Japan Basketball Association and the Hochi Shimbun, an American all-star basketball squad of eight men headed by Mr. Clarence Anderson, assistant basketball coach of the University of Southern California, arrived in Yokohama May 5, 1935. The Americans stayed in this country for a month during which they played eight games and one exhibition match with the leading Japanese teams, winning all. Their visit benefited the basketball circle of Japan a great deal, mastering the American's excellent tactics in both defence and charge.

Results of the games were :

Americans 33-25 Tokyo Imperial University team (Tokyo); Americans 38-23 Japan's pick-up student team (Tokyo); Americans 34-14 All Japan (Tokyo); Americans 36-23 All Japan (Osaka); Americans 64-32 Kyoto Imperial University team (Kyoto); Americans 22-15 All Japan (Tokyo); Americans 52-24 All Japan (Tokyo); and Americans 74-29 All Niigata (Niigata).

Members of the American team were :

William Pierce (U. S. C.), Richard Linthicum (University of California), Donald Piper (U. C.), George Brotlemarkle (U. C.), Kenneth Fagans (Oregon State College), George Curtner (University of Pittsburgh), Duane Swanson (University of Iowa) and Victor Larkin (U. C.)

Volley-ball This sport came to Japan with basketball and is now quite popular among school girls. National championship games are held annually.

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Hockey Hockey is more or less a novelty in Japan. It was in November, 1920, that the first national tournament was held, when the Waseda University team captured the honours. At the Tenth Olympiad at Los Angeles, the Japanese team beat the United States squad and finished second behind the Indians.

American Football The American football game was introduced by the picked Japanese student team (formed mostly with the American-born Japanese boys, studying in Tokyo) and the Y. C. and A. C. eleven (foreigners' athletic club in Yokohama) on the Thanksgiving Day, November 29, 1934, at the Meiji Shrine stadium. The game ended in a victory of the Japanese students who shut out the foreigners 26 to 0.

In December, the Tokyo Collegiate American Football League was formed among Meiji, Waseda and Rikkyo, and the league games were played in the same month, with Meiji capturing the first championship by two wins over Rikkyo and Waseda. Waseda finished second, winning over Rikkyo and losing to Meiji, and Rikkyo took third place, losing all games. Hosei and Keio joined the League later.

In March, 1935, the Asahi Shimbun invited 35 leading football players from the United States, selected from several universities in the Pacific Coast, who gave a series of exhibition games in Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya and Fukuoka. The American football players were led by Mr. Albert L. Maloney star quarter-back of the University of Southern California eleven.

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CHAPTER XXXVII

AMUSEMENTS AND CALENDAR OF ANNUAL EVENTS

Amusements

The Drama

Japan has a drama all her own. The common stage is the "kabuki", essentially a product of past ages, which, with its enchanting beauty and gorgeous colour, often captivates the fancy of foreign visitors. The kabuki drama is not old as age goes in Japan. It sprang spontaneously from the people, the tradesmen, the artisans and others who were excluded from the pleasures enjoyed by the aristocrats and samurai in the old days, but, like all organic growth, its forbears may be recognized in the stage art of Japan prior to its birth.

The Origin The religious dance that was the precursor of drama goes back through centuries to the mythological age of the gods, when the great Sun Goddess, offended by her brother, retired to a deep cavern, casting the world into darkness. After trying in vain to entice her from her retreat, the other gods finally hit upon the scheme of flashing a metal mirror into the cave and of jumping and shrieking before its mouth, whereupon the curious Sun Goddess came forth, the mouth of the cave was sealed, light was restored to the world and the dance was added to civilization.

For centuries the dance remained, as in other countries, a religious rite performed in Shinto shrines by virgins. With the incoming of Chinese culture, Chinese music was taken over bodily and introduced into the Imperial Court. At the time of the establishment of the first Shogunate, that at Kamakura in the 13th century, the Buddhist semi-dances and semi-drama made a great appeal to the warrior class, and from them was evolved the "no" drama, in which both actor and playwright are subservient to interpretation. The No is a combination of music, posturing and dialogue, severely bound by conventions, with but little action, appealing to the ear and intellect rather than to the eye. The No found warm patronage among the warriors and feudal lords, continuing to hold its own with them until the Meiji Restoration, when it was identified with the then unpopular Shogunate and suffered a decline which has only recently been mitigated.

But the common people had no part in either the religious or the No dances, not even appearing as spectators. These were the exclusive prerogative of the upper classes.

Popular Stage Appears It was during the early part of the long Tokugawa Shogunate that the democratic stage of Japan came to birth, flowered and bore fruit. An era of peace was ushered in, and the Empire began to prosper in a material way. Not only the kabuki, but the ukiyoyé, or woodblock colour print, and other genre arts date from this period. The people had leisure, money and the inclination for pleasure. It was but natural that forms for providing that pleasure should follow.

The germs of the popular drama

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may be found in society prior to this period, but have not attained much development. About 370 years before, one of the Shinto shrine dancers, O-Kuni, performed on a public street in the capital city of Kyoto, after which she wandered from place to place for the entertainment of the people. Others followed her lead, until the government decreed that thereafter only men might give public entertainments, due to the moral laxity which had ensued. The name kabuki was first applied to this pioneer dancer. Although the Chinese ideographs forming the word mean literally "singing and dancing art," Japanese scholars say that its true derivation is from an obsolete Japanese verb meaning "to be playful."

The Kabuki The early kabuki actors were social outcasts, or kawara-mono (river bed folks), but as the aristocracy learned of the new art and its charms they secretly slipped away from their palaces and homes to enjoy it. Gradually, as in other nations, the moral and social level of the stage was raised, until today there is no more social prejudice against the actor in Japan than in America and Europe. The late Emperor Meiji's attendance of a troupe of kabuki actors at the home of the late Marquis K. Inouyé improved their status immeasurably.

The introduction of the three-stringed samisen, or guitar, into Japan from the Loochoo Islands constitutes another high-water mark for the drama, for in time the musical compositions for the No were adapted to this instrument of the streets, and there followed the puppet show, which has survived to this day. These marionette theatres called to their aid some of the best talent in the country, musicians, playwrights and puppet manipulators collaborating in the work. From dolls to human beings was a natural step, and the kabuki emerged as a separate and distinct art of a high order.

Drawing extensively on both the No drama and the marionette performances, the kabuki is found to embrace four general classifications: historical dramas, plays of everyday life, fantastic, imaginative improvisations and music-posture plays, or dances. It is often difficult, however, to separate any particular drama into one of the four classifications, for the play with historical characters may also be a play dealing with their very human emotions.

The Technique To the Westerner, the technique of kabuki may seem at first extremely complicated. The drama is primarily a picture for the eye, although dialogue is carried on and an orchestra-chorus seated on the stage plays very much the same rôle as was played by the chorus in classical Greek drama, aiding the action with explanations to the audience. The life and thought, costumes and manners of all classes of feudal society are well illustrated on the kabuki stage, while skilful colour combinations in costumes, stage architecture and furniture tend to carry the spectators into a land of imagination and romance. According to Western visitors, the stage of Japan cannot be surpassed in sheer artistry. In dramatic ability it takes rank with that of any country. In stage settings and mechanics it has much to teach the rest of the world, and it still has something to learn therefrom. Its gorgeousness of costuming and pageantry finds no equal. One of the features of the Japanese theatre is the hana michi, or flowery way, which usually consists of two long narrow platforms on the same level which stretch through the audience from

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the stage to the rear of the auditorium. They are chosen by the actors for their best entrances and exits and are extremely effective when processions are used.

The Kabuki Actors The profession of kabuki actors is in most cases hereditary. Boys of actors succeed their fathers in the profession, and actors without sons usually adopt the sons of other actors or their best disciples and give them the stage names of their families. Kikugoro Onoyé, one of the most accomplished actors, is the sixth Kikugoro Onoyé, while the late Danjuro Ichikawa represented the ninth generation of the Ichikawa family. Kabuki actors are trained from childhood and because of the difficult conventions to which they must conform few men can become actors after the age of 20.

In kabuki proper, all rôles are taken by men. The onnagata, or woman impersonators, devote years of study to femininity, and in most cases they are more feminine than women. In private life many of them act and speak like women, although married to women.

In comparison with screen actors, kabuki actors are paid much better. Though the matter of salaries is kept highly secret, it is well known that a high-class kabuki actor is given more than ¥10,000 a month, but in cinema circles very few actors obtain as much as ¥1,000. Stage actors are also held in much higher esteem by the general public than screen actors. They still live and work according to the family system. A high-class actor has a troupe, all the members of which are his disciples. Only the head of the troupe receives wages directly from the theatre, and he in turn divides the money among his disciples. Other feudal customs also survive among them.

Tokyo is the dramatic centre in the country. Practically all first-class kabuki actors live here, though there are a few in Osaka. They travel all over the country from time to time. The more noted ones in Tokyo are Utayemon Nakamura, Uzayemon Ichimura, Kikugorō Onoyé, Sadanji Ichikawa, Koshirō Matsumoto, Kichiyemon Nakamura, Chusha Ichikawa, Sojuro Sawamura and Ennosuké Ichikawa. The noted Osaka actors include Enjaku Jitsukawa, Fukusuké Nakamura and Kaisha Nakamura.

On the business side, kabuki is controlled entirely by a single commercial organization, the Shochiku Theatrical Company. This company not only has all the first-class actors under contract but owns or leases all of the principal playhouses throughout the country. The largest and most famous theatre is the Kabuki Theatre, commonly known as the Kabuki-za, situated back of the Ginza, Tokyo. Other well-known theatres in the capital are the Tokyo Theatre, Meiji-za, Shin Kabuki-za and Shimbashi Embujo. The Imperial Theatre, which once earned fame as a modern playhouse, has been converted into a cinema house. Osaka has the Naka-za and Naniwa-za, where Kabuki programmes are given practically throughout the year. The theatres change programmes once a month, and very seldom, if ever, are long runs given, no matter how popular a particular programme may prove, although the pieces which prove popular are repeated from time to time as long as they hold public interest.

The Typical Programme A typical kabuki programme has three to five offerings of different types and lasts six hours, beginning at 4 o'clock in the afternoon and ending at 10 o'clock. The majority of the spectators take dinner in res-

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taurants in the theatre during intervals. Tickets cost from 50 sen to as much as ¥7 or ¥8 a seat. All the playhouses are of Western-style, at least inside, with chairs provided for seating. Seats may be reserved 10 days in advance.

It is wrong to assume that Japanese actors specialize in producing classics alone. From time to time they insert modern plays between those of bygone generations on the programmes. In the past they have even staged plays from Shakespeare with marked success. Some actors specialize in modern plays, such as Masao Inouyé, Takeo Kawai, Rokuro Kitamura and Sesshu Hayakawa (the last named is also a screen actor known both in Japan and abroad), and they appear with actresses, as the latter are essential for the realistic type of plays, plays which are true to life and without the incongruity and exaggeration which characterize the kabuki.

A little theatre movement in Japan was started about 10 years ago, led by the late Kaoru Osanai, prominent dramatist and stage director. The group which performed at the Tsukiji Little Theatre, Tokyo, produced hundreds of Western plays in Japanese translation, but their performances aroused the interest of only a limited section of the intellectuals. The unexpected death of Mr. Osanai and the business depression that followed dealt a crushing blow to the movement and the actors split into smaller groups of insignificance.

The Revue The revue, a product of the West, is quite in vogue at present in Japan. Imported only a few years ago, it appealed to modern-minded youth, and several revue organizations sprang up. The largest troupe is that of the Shochiku Theatrical Company, with several hundred girls. Another influential organization is the Takarazuka Girls' Opera Troupe, with headquarters at Takarazuka, a hot-spring resort between Osaka and Kobé. It enjoys the distinction of being the oldest in Japan, having been organized nearly two decades ago. The performances of the latter group include operas and revues and are generally more refined than those of the Shochiku Troupe, and they find warm patronage among young girls in the homes of the better and wealthier classes. Costumes and scenery in the revues are both Japanese and foreign. The Shochiku group gives occasional performances in Tokyo and Osaka, and the Takarazuka organization set up a new Tokyo Takarazuka Theatre in 1933 at Hibiya.

The Odori Entirely opposed to this type of foreign-style performances is the "odori", or Japanese dance, as given by the geisha, the native dancing girls. Kyoto, the ancient capital, boasts the best organization, which gives the "miyako odori" each April, better known to foreigners as the cherry dance of Kyoto. In Tokyo, the "azuma odori" (dance of eastern capital) is given at cherry-blossom time by the geisha of the Shimbashi district of the city, who also perform in the autumn, always in their own theatre, the Shimbashi Embujo, which is of Western style. Geisha dances can be enjoyed at private parties at any time of the year.

No Drama

The No drama is as aristocratic as the kabuki drama is plebeian, and even now its performance and enjoyment are practically restricted to the upper classes. There are very few theatres or private houses, if any, where strangers are allowed to view No upon payment of admission. Most No enthusiasts form clubs, and only members and their friends see the productions. Foreigners desiring to attend a No per-

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formance are admitted through the introduction of the Japan Tourist Bureau or some acquaintance. In feudal Japan, the No was the principal form of entertainment among the aristocrats and the warrior class. It was often given in the presence of the Emperor, and there prevailed a custom for a time of inviting the common people to performances given in commemoration of some happy event by the Tokugawa Shoguns, who used the No on all ceremonial occasions.

The Origin and Stage The origin of the No dates back to the early part of the 15th century. Two men, Kiyotsugu Kan-nami and his son, Motokiyo Séami, revolutionized the "saru-gaku", an ancient form of dance, consisting of juggling feats and comic remarks with actions to suit, with the result that the No in its present form was developed. Not only did these two men build on what was best in their own sarugaku, but they drew freely from the "den-gaku", ancient music, which had much in common with the sarugaku. What was graceful in them was ennobled to profundity in the No, while their comical elements developed into the "kyogen", comic performances, usually given on the same programme with No pieces.

Unlike any other form of drama, the No is performed on a wooden stage of the regular size, built above the ground, 18 feet square, open on three sides, with a narrow extension on one side for the singers and another on the back of the stage for the musicians and attendants. To that rear extension is attached aslant a passage called a bridge. The players appear from under the curtain at the one end of which the passage slightly slopes down. The stage, too, is very slightly tilted to the front.

The No pieces, numbering more than 250, are repeated over and over again, but the interest of the spectators apparently never wanes. The pieces are classified into five groups for convenience: (1) "wakino", which generally deal with Shinto or Buddhist deities; (2) "shuramono", which commonly deal with ghosts of warriors; (3) "kazuramono", with noble ladies acting the main parts; (4) "genzaimono", or present-day pieces, dealing with various manifestations of human nature; (5) pieces dealing with demons or goblins as subjects, or those of congratulatory nature with gay and joyous elements.

For each programme of the No, which generally lasts a good part of a day, one from each of the above-mentioned five classes is given in the order mentioned, with a kyogen between each and generally a dance in an ordinary dress in addition. The whole programme is preceded by a piece called "okina", which is held in special reverence, the person acting its chief character is okina.

The Construction The construction of the No piece is by no means uniform, but very often it is as follows: A waki, the secondary rôle, generally a monk or a Minister of State, first appears and tells who he is. Then he walks a while, singing, suggesting that he is travelling. Coming to a standstill, he announces his arrival at a certain famous spot and takes his place by the post at the front righthand corner facing the stage. Then the mayé jité (shité), the principal character in the first appearance, comes in the form of a farmer, fisherman or priest, etc., describing the scenery of the place and of heroes connected with it, or relates the origin of the temple or shrine as the case may require, thus furnishing the audience with a necessary background to the play. The mayé jité then retires in a hurry. He was in reality no other than a Shinto or Bud-

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dhist deity, or a ghost of a warrior, in disguise. While waki is startled by the sudden disappearance, there come to the stage common farmers or wood-choppers and give in plain language, spoken more or less in the ordinary way, all detailed information concerning the place, generally reiterating what was already given in intonation, and retire. This allows a necessary time for the principal character to change for reappearance. While waiting, the waki sings, indicating a lapse of time. When it comes to an end, the nochi jité, the principal character in the latter appearance, in proper form and attire as a Shinto or Buddhist deity, or a spirit of a hero, comes to the stage and dances as if in a night stroll, revealing some spiritual attributes. In words and in action he recounts his bravery, his death struggle, or his suffering in the underworld, asking for the prayer of the waki for the peaceful repose of his soul. The shité tells his story as he performs, or he merely dances without any intonation. Generally there is a chorus who intonate either alone or with the performers. In the No drama, action is symbolic, stately and ennobling.

Generally several persons sitting on the side extension sing either in chorus, by themselves, or together with the performer. The musicians on the rear extension consist ordinarily of a player each on the transverse flute, the tsuzumi, which is a small drum struck with the tips of the fingers over the shoulder, the ohkawa, a slightly larger drum struck on the knee also with the tips of the fingers, and the drum beaten with two sticks.

The accessories used on the stage in connection with the play are very simple. A fan is much in evidence in the dance, the studied use of which is very effective with the manipulation of big sleeves. Costumes used in the No are marvels of textile fabrics, refined taste being revealed in bold yet harmonious designs and colours. Above all, the mask to be worn by the principal character and the assistant is a very important part of the No performance. There have been great masters among carvers of No masks in the feudal Japan whose works still remain in a large number.

Six Schools Ever since the great reformation at the beginning of the 15th century, the No has had four main acknowledged schools or houses: Kwanzé, Komparu, Hosho and Kongo, all of which are still thriving. Later, another school, Kita, won official recognition, while still another, Umewaka, also has many followers, the variation upheld by each school being but slight. On the whole, the No performance may well be compared to a masterful Oriental picture in black monochrome, both being guided by highly idealistic aims and with artistic aspirations with many points in common possessing alike great impelling qualities that thrill the devotee and sometimes weary the uninitiated.

The Doll Theatre and Joruri

Japan's doll theatre, the precursor of the kabuki drama, has suffered so much decadence that now the Bunraku-za in Osaka is the only doll troupe of its kind in the country. The plays are kabuki in miniature. Each doll, slightly smaller than life-size, is held by a manipulator on the stage and made to act. The manipulators, who appear in ceremonial robes, put life and spirit into the wooden figures, and they have world fame for their dexterity.

The "joruri (Gidayu)", a dramatic recitation, is not only inseparable from the doll show, but enhances its effect. The joruri reciter usually sits

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on a raised platform at the right corner of the stage and there sings and recites to the accompaniment of the samisen, whose player sits beside him. Not seldom several reciters and samisen players perform in unison. The dolls, of course, have no voice, and the reciters speak their lines. Both manipulators and singers are trained from childhood. The joruri recital often accompanies the kabuki performance. The joruri or Gidayu is also recited for its own sake entirely independently of the doll show or the kabuki.

Yosé, or Story-Telling

Professional story-telling is a distinct Japanese art, which, defying the onrush of the movies, still survives in Tokyo and elsewhere. When there were no movies, story-telling was one of the few common forms of amusement. The houses where the story-tellers perform are called yosé, a sort of variety hall, where singing, juggling, dancing and other entertainment are offered in addition to the story-telling.

Today a score of story-tellers' halls can still be found in Tokyo. Unlike theatres for the drama and the cinema, they are usually Japanese-style frame houses, with unattractive advertisements covering their fronts. Inside, a yosé forms a large matted room, with a small matted stage attached. All the guests sit on cushions spread on the matting, and the performers sit on the matting of the stage. Usually the house has a balcony with more expensive seats.

The majority of the story-tellers, who are called hanashika, specialize in comic talk. Those who specialize in stories of heroism and adventure, are called koshakushi, or romance readers, and regarded as of a different class. The hanashika use a lot of punning, irony and sarcasm, and each story has a twist at the end. Translated into English, their talk loses almost all meaning, for it is the manner that is important.

A story-teller might talk of a stingy and greedy old fellow, beginning something like this:

"We've got a lot of such fellows. They're stingy and like to give nothing to others, not even a show of their tongues to friends. But when it comes to getting, they're so greedy they don't mind an invitation to a funeral on Christmas Day.

"The other day a man was repairing a broken door. He needed a hammer and called his son, 'Say, go to the neighbour and borrow a hammer.'

"'All right, papa. I'll go.'

"'Will you kindly let my father borrow your hammer?'

"'Well, I may. But what does he want to knock with it, a bamboo nail or an iron nail?'

"'Iron nails, sir.'

"'Then, nothing doing. The hammer will wear off if he hits so hard a thing as iron.'

"'Did you get the hammer?'

"'No, I didn't. The neighbour refused to let you have it because he said it would wear off when you hit iron nails with it.'

"'Oh, stingy fellow. I can't help it. Then, bring out our hammer.'"

Such a story may not be interesting when written, but the professional story-teller relates it with sufficient art to amuse and keep his audience chuckling until the story comes to a smart ending.

The Cinema

Cinema theatres are to be found in all parts of Japan, whether in cities or hamlets, accommodating from 400 to 3,000 persons. The total number is 1,718. In 1933 total attendance at these movie houses was 175,041,793, including 38,017,666

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children. They are equipped and managed very much after the manner of theatres in the West, and in architecture, especially in the large cities, they follow the American style. The pictures shown in them are Japanese, American and European.

Home and Imported Films In 1934, 103 talkie and sound pictures were produced by Japanese producers, of which 72 were talkies. The number of silent pictures was 297, a decrease of 100 as compared with the previous year. Imported talkies numbered 295, a gain of 15 over 1933.

Of the imported films released in Japan during 1934, those from the United States constituted over 85 per cent. of the total number. Details follow :

Country of production	Number of films
U. S. A.	251
Germany	21
France	9
Great Britain	6
Soviet Union	6
Italy	2
Total	295

The following table shows how they were distributed among leading producers :

Producer	Number of films
Paramount Famous Lasky	41
Fox Film Corporation	28
Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, Inc.	36
Warner Brothers Pictures, Inc.	25
Universal Pictures Corporation	27
United Artists Corporation	10
RKO Productions, Inc.	35
Columbia	29

The largest and most influential motion picture producing and distributing companies in Japan are Shochiku Cinematograph Company, Ltd., Shinko Eiga Company, Ltd., and Japan Motion Picture Company, Ltd., the last being better known as Nikkatsu for short. Shochiku manages or supplies with pictures about 600 theatres, or half of the total in Japan, and all the rest are either managed or supplied with pictures by the other two and by foreign, especially American, companies. Japanese pictures in general are produced by distributing companies.

Characteristics of Japanese Pictures The substance of Japanese pictures is varied. The recent tendency favours a serious view of life, and audiences are more impressed by what is implied than by what is expressed. Scenes may be imposing, but if the meaning is shallow, the film will be disregarded. If the story is full of meaning, the picture, whether foreign or native, will catch the spectator's fancy. The Japanese people are fond of tragedy. With few exceptions, pictures without tears cannot be expected to prove financial successes. Especially the women, who constitute 50 per cent. of the spectators, feel disappointed if they have not shed tears over a tragic scene. Influenced by American pictures, comedies have come to be appreciated, but to satisfy the audience they must have at least 30 per cent. of tragic elements.

Talkies In talking pictures, Japan is much behind Western countries. Shochiku produces two a month, but the other companies combined turn out only one or two a year.

Practically all imported films are talkies. Their introduction presented language difficulties, for few Japanese understand English when spoken. As a solution, most of the American pictures now exhibited are so-called super-imposed prints, which flash a Japanese translation of the English dialogue in a corner of each scene. This has proved highly satisfactory to native audiences and has dispensed with the benshi, or interpreters, who are required for silent films, in the theatres which specialize in foreign talking pictures.

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Radio

Introduced only 9 years ago, the radio has become one of the two most popular means of amusement in Japan, the other being the cinema. In March, 1934, more than 1,714,223 families in Japan proper have already become radio subscribers in Japan proper, which means that one home in every 8 has a receiving set. Programmes broadcasted by the 25 broadcasting stations scattered throughout the country are diverse, including weather reports, market reports, news and lectures. Entertainment is naturally the most popular.

Complex Programmes It is said that Japanese radio programmes are more complex than anywhere else in the world. Japan does not have a single and uniform culture; the old and the modern exist side by side, the indigenous and the foreign. Programmes, in consequence, must be arranged to meet divergent tastes, though ingenuity is sometimes taxed to satisfy everyone daily. The principal cleavage is in music. Japanese music, both instrumental and vocal, has developed in many varieties through many centuries. Just as in foreign countries listeners have preferences for classical songs, or violin solos, or orchestral music, or popular songs, or dance music, or chamber music, so in Japan there are preferences for particular kinds of Japanese music. On the other hand, the music introduced from Europe and America is fast becoming popular. Young people, who understand it, generally prefer Western music, and old people, who do not understand it, would rather hear the music they have known since childhood. The ideal programme, therefore, must combine them. If 30 minutes are given to music by the New Symphony Orchestra of Tokyo, 30 minutes must also be given to music that is purely Japanese. Statistics show that station JOAK in Tokyo broadcast a total of 227 items from April to December, 1933. Details follow: orchestral music, 56; vocal solos and chorus, 50; brass music, 30; chamber music, 13; violin solos, 9; piano solos, 20; jazz music, 9; foreign and Japanese music combined, 15; 'cello music, 3; flute solos, 3; pipe organ music, 2; guitar solos, 1; trumpet solo, 1; trombone solo, 1; xylophone solo, 1; and opera, 5.

Japanese Entertainment Purely Japanese entertainment is very varied. It includes singing of all kinds, from the nagauta, kiyomoto, naniwa-bushi and tokiwazu to all sorts of folk-songs, radio drama, story-telling, romance reading and descriptive accounts of athletic events.

Very little amusement is given in the daytime. The first radio entertainment of the day starts at 12:05 o'clock in the afternoon. It is usually of a lighter vein and may be Japanese or foreign music or a drama. If there is a major athletic event in the afternoon, a descriptive account usually goes on the air. After this, there will be no entertainment of any kind, except on Sundays, until 8 o'clock, when the principal amusement programme begins. Frequently, however, the children's programme, given at 6 o'clock for 30 minutes, has fairly good entertainment. From 8 to 9:30 o'clock, entertainment of all sorts is offered. Very rarely does the programme extend beyond 10 o'clock.

Programme and Listener The Japan Radio Broadcasting Association distributed 1,233,908 sheets of enquiries to its subscribers all over Japan in 1932, out of which 358,039 answers came, and the résumé of the investigation was given out in April, 1934. In the questionnaire there was a

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column in which the listeners were requested to state what item or items of the programme they most liked and the answers given in percentage were as follows :

Item of programme	Percentage of listeners
News and reports	
General news	91.2
Time signal	77.5
Weather forecast	75.8
Radio gymnastics	48.0
Public announcements	42.3
Daily menues	31.0
Industrial news	30.8
Commodity prices	27.8
Stocks-market news	23.2
Employment agency	11.0
New cocoon price	8.2
Exposition of current topics	29.4
General and moral	28.1
Literature, arts, etc.	22.3
Physical education and hygiene	22.0
The home and women	20.7
Science	13.0
Foreign languages	9.9
Amusements	
Comic stories	57.6
The naniwa-bushi (mostly tragic stories)	57.5
Radio dramas	51.2
Movie picture dramas and stories	49.3
Samurai stories	48.0
The kabuki	43.4
The biwa (Story chanted with the biwa music)	39.6
The Gidayu	33.4
Foreign and Japanese music combined	33.4
Japanese harp, bamboo flute, the samisen	30.0
The nagauta (long chanting)	28.3
Modern Japanese music	24.4
Opera	24.2
Brass music	22.6
Orchestra	22.6
Vocal solos	22.0
Short songs (utazawa and kouta)	22.0
The Shinnai (a kind of joruri)	20.2
The Kiyomoto	19.0
Piano, violin solos and duets	18.7
The Tokiwazu (a branch of joruri)	18.6
Chorus	17.6
Jazz	17.3
The yokyoku, kyogen (the No)	14.5
Old Yedo music	8.5
Young folk's hours	
Nursery rhymes	60.1
Short songs	57.0
Dramas for the young folks	52.5
Music	51.5
Stories	49.0

Horse Racing

It was after the Russo-Japanese War that the import of thoroughbred stud-horses and horse racing became encouraged for the improvement of horses in Japan. As the result the fever for the horse racing suddenly rose. At that time, a pari mutuel ticket was sold at ¥5, and unlimited dividends and sweep were allowed. The result was that many people fell into bankruptcy and abuses were too apparent, so that in 1909 horse racings which sold pari mutuel tickets were prohibited. But it soon became evident again that the decline of horse racings had an effect on the improvement and propagation of horses in the country. Ten years after, the Horse Race Bill passed the Parliament and became a law in 1923. The law fixed the price of pari mutuel ticket at ¥20 a sheet, and the race was ordered to be operated on the basis of "win". The number of pari mutuel tickets a person may buy was limited to one sheet. The dividend was also limited to ten times the cost of the ticket. The race courses provided under the law are eleven in all, the names and locations of which follow :

Name			Location
Sapporo	Race	Club	Sapporo, Hokkaido
Hakodate	,,	,,	Suburb of Hakodate, Hokkaido
Fukushima	,,	,,	Fukushima City, Fukushima Prefecture
Niigata	,,	,,	Niigata City, Niigata Prefecture
Nakayama	,,	,,	Katsushika-machi, Chiba Prefecture
Tokyo	,,	,,	Fuchu-machi, Tokyo Prefecture

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Name			Location
Nippon	Race	Club	Yokohama City, Kanagawa Prefecture
Hanshin	,,	,,	Naruo-mura, Hyogo Prefecture
Kyoto	,,	,,	Yodo-machi, Kyoto Prefecture
Kokura	,,	,,	Suburb of Kokura City, Fukuoka Prefecture
Miyazaki	,,	,,	Miyazaki City, Miyazaki Prefecture

All of these clubs are corporate judicial persons. These eleven race clubs hold horse racings twice a year, in spring and fall, each of which covers from six to eight days. The money paid to the Government, the commission on sales, and the surplus of money are all used for the improvement and propagation of horses in the country as well as for the importation of the thoroughbred, Anglonorman and Arab horses. Since the losses of voters are large with "win" alone, "place" was added to the Horse Race Law and the horse race is carried on now on that basis since 1931. In all horse races in Japan, clubs themselves undertake the sales of pari mutuel tickets by the totalizator and do not recognize the bookmaker. It is being operated under the complete control of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry.

The above are the so-called officially recognized horse races, or horse races operated under the Horse Race Law. In addition to these, there are local horse races operated under the local horse race regulations.

There are 113 local horse races permitted in the country. A pari mutuel ticket costs ¥1. per sheet. Some of these are being operated on the combined basis of "win" and "place". Each person is permitted to purchase one each of "win" and "place" tickets.

The number of horses appeared in the officially recognized horse racings in 1934 was 1,733.

Derby in Japan The Great Tokyo Derby, which was established in 1932 by the Tokyo Race Club is modeled after Derby in Great Britain. The time set for it is the latter part of April. The race course covers 2,400 metres, the horses put up being both males and females of four years old. The prizes set up are the highest in Japan. The regular prizes are ¥10,000 for the first winner, ¥3,500 for the second, and ¥2,000 for the third. In addition to this there are given about ¥10,000 for the first, ¥4,000 for the second, and ¥2,500 for the third winner as stakes.

In the horse racing in Japan, canter, steeplechase, and trotting (trotting race driven to sulkies) are performed in a meeting. There is a distinction between a comer or non-subscription horse and a subscription horse. Subscription horses are those horses which are distributed to those members of the clubs by lot, each member paying comparatively a small fixed sum for it. This is a system established in Japan at the time when the interest of the people in the horse racing was not as keen as it is now with a view to increasing the number of the people who own horses.

As to the weight, the system is to fix it according to the amount of the prize. One kilogramme is added to a comer for canter race for every ¥3,000, while for a subscription horse one kilogramme is added for every ¥2,000. In each instance, the horse is withdrawn from the meeting if the weight exceeds 77 kilogrammes.

For a trotter a handicap of from 30 to 40 metres is placed for every ¥1,500.

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Amusements Other Pastimes

Flower Cards The Japanese divert themselves by composing verses in their own language and in Chinese, and by playing chess, checkers, and various games of the "Mother Goose" description, of which sugoroku is the chief. Ever since the early days of foreign intercourse they have likewise had certain kinds of cards, of which the hana-garuta, or "flower cards", are the most popular kind, so popular, indeed, and seductive that there is an official veto on playing the game for money. The cards are forty-eight in number, four for each month of the year, the months being distinguished by the flowers proper to them, and extra value being attached to one out of each set of four, which is further distinguished by a bird or butterfly, and to a second which is inscribed with a line of poetry. Three people taken part in the game, and there is a pool. The system of counting is rather complicated, but the ideas involved are graceful.

Hyakunin Isshu There is another game of cards, in which stanzas from what are known as the "hundred poems", or hyakunin isshu, take the place of flowers. At this game no gambling is ever indulged in. It is rather an amusement for family parties, who at New Year time often sit up over it all night. Some of these diversions are shared in by the ladies.

Children's Sports The sports of Japanese children include kite-flying, top-spinning, battledoor and shuttlecock, making snow-men, playing with dolls, etc. The large, grotesquely coloured papier-mâché dogs given to babies owe their origin to some idea of the dog as a faithful protector, especially against onslaughts by evil spirits.

Shogi Japanese chess (shogi) was introduced from China centuries ago; and though it has diverged to some extent from its prototype, the two games still have a feature in common distinguishing them from all other varieties. It is this. The rank on which the pawns are usually posted is occupied by only two pieces, hisha and kaku by the Japanese. Also, on either side of the king are two pieces, called kin in Japanese. These perform the duty imposed on the ferz or visir of the Persian Shatranj, which was the equivalent of the modern queen. Therefore, no queen or piece of similar attributes appears either in Japanese or Chinese chess. There are eighty-one squares on the Japanese board, and the game is played with twenty pieces on each side, distinguished, not by shape or colour, but by the ideographs upon them. Though the movements of the pieces resemble in most respects those followed in the European game, there are certain ramifications unknown to the latter. The most important of these are the employment of the pieces captured from the adversary to strengthen one's own game, and the comparative facility with which the minor pieces can attain to higher ranks.

Chess is understood by all classes in Japan. The very coolies at the corners of the streets improvise out of almost anything around them materials with which to play, and thus away the tedium of waiting for employment. But it is comparatively little patronized by the educated classes, who hold its rival "go" in much higher esteem. O is the king, keima the knight, hisha the rook, and kaku the bishop—or pieces having movements like them. Fu is the pawn. The movements of the yari also resemble those of the rock, but are confined to the single rank on which it stands. Gin (silver) and kin (gold) are not found in Western

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chess. Gin moves one square diagonally only. The kin, besides having similar movements, has also the power of moving one square on each side of itself, but it cannot return diagonally. The fu advances one square forward, and captures as it moves. When any piece moves into the adversary's third row, it may become a kin. This is indicated by turning the piece over. Every piece so promoted loses its original character, except the hisha and kaku to which the movements of the kin are added. As already indicated, a captured piece may be employed at any time for either attack or defence. To checkmate with the fu is a thing vetoed—or at least considered "bad form"—in this non-democratic game, neither is stale-mate permissible in Japanese chess. You wait until the adversary makes a move which admits of a free action on your part. The object of the game is to checkmate the king.

Go Go, often with appropriateness termed "checkers" by European writers, is the most popular of the indoor pastimes of the Japanese,—a very different affair from the simple game known to Europeans as Goban or Gobang, properly the name of the board on which the go is played. Clubs and professors of the art are found in all the larger cities, where, too, blind players may occasionally met with. Go may with justice be considered more difficult than chess, its wider field affording more numerous ramifications. The game was introduced into Japan from China by Kibino-Mabi, commonly known as Kibi Daijin, who flourished during the reign of the Emperor Shomu (A.D. 724-756). In the middle of the seventeenth century, a noted player, called Hon-im-bo, was summoned from Kyoto to entertain the Chinese ambassador then at the court of the Shogun, from which time forward special go players were always retained by the Shoguns.

Go is played on a square wooden board. Nineteen straight lines lengthwise and the same number of lines cross ways, crossing each other at right angles, make three hundred and sixty-one mé, or crosses, at the point of intersection. These may be occupied by a hundred and eighty white and a hundred and eighty-one black ishi or stones. The object of the game is to obtain possession of the largest number of mé. This is done by securing such positions as can be most easily defended from the adversary's onslaughts. There are nine spots on the board, called seimoku supposed to represent the chief celestial bodies, while the white and black stones represent day and night, and the number of crosses the three hundred and sixty degrees of latitude, exclusive of the central one, which is called taikyoku, that is, the primordial principle of the universe. There are nine degrees—or classes as we should term them—of proficiency in the game, beginning with number one degree as the lowest, and ending with number nine as the highest point of excellence attainable. In playing, if the combatants are equally matched, they take the white stones alternately; if unequal, the weaker always takes the black, and odds are also given by allowing him to occupy several or all of the nine spots or vantage points on the board,—that is, to place stones upon them at the outset. A description of how the game proceeds would be of little utility here, it being so complicated as to make the personal instruction of a teacher indispensable. Very few foreigners have succeeded in getting beyond a rudimentary knowledge of the game. The easy Japanese game, called gomoku-narabé, which was introduced into foreign countries, is played on the go

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board and with the go-ishi. The object of this game is to be the first in getting five stones in a row in any direction.

Landscape Gardening Japanese landscape-gardening is one of the fine arts. Ever since the middle of the fifteenth century, generations of artists have been busy perfecting it, elaborating and refining over and over again the principles handed down by their predecessors, until it has come to be a mystery as well as an art, and is furnished—not to say encumbered—with a vocabulary more complicated and recondite than any one who has not perused some of the native treatises on the subject can well imagine. What the Japanese call hakoniwa or bonkei is a whole landscape-garden compressed into the miscroscopic limits of a single dish or flower-pot,—paths, bridges, mountains, stone lanterns, etc., all complete,—a fanciful little toy.

Cormorant Fishing Cormorant-fishing always takes place at night and by torch-light. The method pursued is as follows: There are four men in each of several boats, one of whom, at the stern, has no duty but that of managing his craft. In the bow stands the master called ujo, distinguished by the peculiar hat of his rank, and handling no fewer than twelve trained birds with the surpassing skill and coolness that have earned for the sportsmen of the Nagara River in Gifu prefecture their unrivalled pre-eminence. Amidships is another fisher, of the second grade, who handles four birds only. Between them is the fourth man, called kako, from the bamboo striking instrument of that name, with which he makes the clatter necessary for keeping the birds up to their work; he also encourages them shouts and cries, looks after square apparatus, etc., and is ready to give aid if required. Each cormorant wears at the base of its neck a metal ring, drawn tight enough to marketable fish from passing below it, but at the same time loose enough—for it is never removed—to admit the smaller prey, which serves as food. Round the body is a cord, having attached to it at the middle of the back a short strip of stiffish whalebone, by which the great awkward bird may be conveniently lowered into the water or lifted out when at work; and to this whalebone is looped a thin rein of spruce fibre, twelve feet long, and so far wanting in pliancy as to minimize the chance of entanglement. When the fishing-ground is reached, the master lowers his twelve birds one by one into the stream and gathers their reins into his left hand, manipulating the latter thereafter with his right as occasion requires. No. 2 does the same with his four birds; the kako starts in with his volleys of noise; and forthwith the cormorants set to at their work in the heartiest and jolliest way, diving and ducking with wonderful swiftness as the astonished fish come flocking towards the blaze of the light. The master must handle his twelve strings so deftly that, let the birds dash hither and thither as they will, there shall be no impediment or fouling. He must have his eyes everywhere and his hands following his eyes. Specially must he watch for the moment when any of his flock is gorged,—a fact generally made known by the bird itself, which then swims about in a foolish, helpless way, with its head and swollen neck erect. Thereupon, the master, shortening in on that bird, lifts it aboard, forces its bill open with his left hand, which still holds the rest of the line, squeezes out the fish with his right, and starts the creature off on a fresh foray,—all this with such admirable dexterity

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and quickness that the eleven birds still bustling about have scarce time to get things into a tangle, and in another moment the whole team is again perfectly in hand."

Calendar of Annual Events

Few countries, if any, possess more ceremonies and more festivities than Japan. Some of these ceremonies at first sight may look absurd to the foreign eye, but familiarity with them and especially their origin will reveal most of them to be delightful. Rural people are more conservative than city folk in adhering to observance of ancient customs. Indeed, modern life has robbed the busy citizens of that quiet and poetical mood in which people of bygone days observed ancient customs, such, for instance, as moon viewing. But none the less it is true that despite the modern garb Japan wears today, the life of the present-day Japan is still associated with many picturesque customs and poetical sentiments of Old Japan, which afford a glimpse into the days of feudalism and the people continue to observe many of the customs handed down from time immemorial.

Below is given in chronological order a list of annual events in Japan, including ceremonies, festivals and other national customary observances.

January

January 1st New Year's Day—New Year's Day means as much to the Japanese as Christmas means to Western peoples, or probably more. It marks the beginning of new life in an atmosphere of quiet and gaiety, leisure and pleasure. It is a time to forget the cares of the past year and enjoy feasts and indulge in all sorts of amusement in celebration of the coming good and lucky year. The homes are decorated, both inside and outside; the people are clad in their best clothes, and they all look very happy.

The Imperial Household observes a religious ceremony called Shihohai (worshipping in four directions) at the Imperial Sanctuary according to Shinto rites. The Emperor usually officiates in person, offering prayers to the gods for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. New Year's Day is one of the three most important National Holidays of Japan, the others being the Imperial Birthday celebration and the celebration commemorating the anniversary of the accession of the Emperor Jimmu, the first Emperor of Japan, in 660 B. C.

The time-honoured custom of worshipping the sun-rise at shrine compounds situated in the "lucky direction" of the year is widely observed from the traditional belief that so doing will bring luck. Many, of course, observe this custom without showing the belief. The compound of the Meiji Shrine in Tokyo, for instance, is always filled with worshippers at dawn on New Year's Day. Ceremonies celebrating the New Year are also observed at all Shinto shrines throughout the country. On this day and the following two days people call on their relatives and friends and exchange New Year greetings.

2nd Beginning of Work—This day is known as shigoto hajimé, or beginning of work and is marked with ceremonies for the beginning of all sorts of activities which are to be executed properly and well in the right spirit, in the hope that

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everything will go on in the same happy way for the rest of the year. Young school children study calligraphy for the first time in the year. Carpenters begin the day by using their professional tools. Geisha tune up their samisen and practise a piece or two of music. The first delivery of goods is undertaken by all wholesale stores in a spirit of celebration. The last named is called hatsu-ni, or first merchandise. Cars on which goods are to be delivered on this day are fully decorated, and the carriers and delivery men, usually drunk, enter into the spirit of the thing, although this custom is observed in recent years with less ostentation than formerly.

On the night of the second day, the people were supposed, in ancient times, to dream the first lucky dream of the year. To inspire such a dream, pictures representing the Seven Gods of Fortune were sold in the streets, to be placed under the pillow so that the sleeper might dream a desired dream. This custom has gone almost completely out of fashion.

3rd Genshi-sai, a national holiday, celebrating the auspicious origin of the Imperial Throne at the beginning of the year, is observed on the third day before the Imperial Sanctuary in the Imperial Palace. The ceremony is attended by the Emperor, members of the Imperial family, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, high officials of the Government and members of the peerage. In the morning the front of the Nijubashi, the bridge at the main entrance to the Imperial Palace, presents a glittering scene as the dignitaries of the nation arrive at the palace in their State uniforms to participate in the court function. The New Year holidays come to an end on this day.

4th Beginning of Politics—All normal functions of the State are resumed on this day and government and private offices re-open. The Ministers of State make various important reports to the Emperor, and the Minister of the Imperial Household also gives an account of the ceremonies performed at the Grand Shrine of Isé and the other government-protected shrines on the occasion of the New Year.

5th The Shinnen Enkai, or New Year Party, is held at the Homei Hall of the Imperial Palace, where the Emperor and Empress give a banquet to the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, Ministers of State, foreign diplomatic representatives and a large number of other dignitaries. The people in general also hold New Year parties and many persons are seen till a late hour on their way home from celebrations in a hilarious mood.

One of the most interesting features of Tokyo life on this day is the festival of the Suitengu shrine at Ningyo-cho. Here, right in the heart of the modern capital, a glimpse of old Japan reveals itself.

6th Tokyo fire-brigades assemble in an open space in front of the Nijubashi for the New Year parade and give acrobatic performances on fire-ladders to show their agility. There was a time in the old days when fires were so frequent in Yedo (Tokyo) as to be called "the flowers of Yedo." The life of the fireman was envied by many as inspiring. The performance of acrobatics was initiated in those days to reassure the public by demonstrating the efficiency of firemen when confronted with danger.

Cold season begins—The so-called kan, or cold season, begins its conventional period of four weeks. The cold season is divided into two stages, the period of shokan, or lesser cold, and the period of daikan, or greater cold. During the period many male apprentices and

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artisans devoted to their work go out thinly clad in the evening to worship at their favourite temples, having the traditional belief that divine power invoked by their enthusiasm will make them proficient in their callings. They go to the well in the temple compounds and pour cold water over their bodies to purify themselves before worshipping at the temples. The rite is practised for the whole period every evening without a break, irrespective of weather conditions. Such enthusiasts, dressed in white clothes and usually with tinkling bells hanging over their loins, can be seen in the streets during the cold season, running from temple to temple.

Decorations removed—All New Year decorations should be removed from the house fronts before nightfall, as the main New Year celebrations come to an end.

7th The Seven Herbs—On this day, known as nanakusa (seven herbs), people eat rice gruel mixed with seven kinds of herb. This custom originated in the days of the threatened Mongolian invasions under Kublai Khan. The herbs were deemed to give strength to the Japanese soldiers, and they are now supposed to give strength to all consumers against the nation's enemies.

8th Military Review—The Emperor reviews the troops of the Imperial Bodyguard at the Yoyogi parade ground. The public can witness the review.

10th The Kompira shrine holds its festival on this day. The shrine is located at Toranomon in Shiba, Tokyo. A feature of the festival is a fair at which many talismans are sold.

11th The Kodokwan, the celebrated judo training institution in Koishikawa, observes the ceremony of beginning judo practice for the year. The greatest experts in the art of self-defence participate in the ceremony, at which the finest matches of the year are seen.

12th Sumo (Japanese wrestling)—The semi-annual tournaments of the Japan Wrestling Association are held at the Kokugi-kwan amphitheatre at Ryogoku, Tokyo, in January and May. Each tournament lasts for 11 days. (See Chapter XXXVI.)

15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—in old days apprentices and servants were given only two days' holiday a year, January 15 or 16 and July 15 or 16. Nowadays they are given at least one holiday a month in many cases, but the old custom is still adhered to especially in country districts.

February

February 1st Country people, adhering to the lunar calendar, celebrate the New Year on this day.

3rd or 4th The Bean-throwing ceremony—This day is called setsubun, or change of the season, on which winter comes to an official end and spring begins according to the lunar calendar. Mamemaki, or the bean-throwing ceremony, is widely practised throughout the country. People scatter beans in an attempt to drive out all the evil spirits in the house and call in good luck. The priests of leading shrines and temples observe this custom in the presence of thousands of worshippers. Usually popular actors and wrestlers are employed as bean-throwers.

11th Commemoration of the Accession of the Emperor Jimmu—This national holiday, Kigensetsu, commemorating the accession in 660 B. C. of the first Emperor of Japan to the Throne, is one of the most important in the Japanese calendar. The Emperor observes elaborate ceremonies in front of the Imperial

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Sanctuary, attended by the Empress, Princes and Princesses of the Blood, court functionaries and high officials of the government, and peers. An Imperial luncheon is given at the Homei Hall of the Palace, to which are invited the Princes and Princesses of the Blood, State Ministers, members of the foreign diplomatic corps, etc.

March

March 3rd Girls' Doll Festival—This is sometimes known as the peach festival, because it is associated with the peach blossoms which begin to open about this time. This day is a great day for the girls of Japan. All families, except the poorest, place decorated doll shelves in the guest rooms or alcoves with a set of dolls and accessories on them. Very often the dolls are taken out from the closets and displayed for the enjoyment of the young girls of the family. The set of dolls is supposed to represent a miniature court of ancient days with the Emperor, Empress, and their retainers. Some of the sets in wealthy families are valuable, costing several hundred yen each. Dolls are displayed for sale at department stores and stalls about a month before the arrival of this festival. Considerable religious significance was originally attached to the doll festival, but later it became a mere pastime for children. It is said by some that the custom encourages happy family life, and by others that it encourages the spirit of filial piety and loyalty. Scholars declare that the custom originated during the reign of the Emperor Tsuchimikado (1199-1207).

6th The Empress's Birthday—This day is known in Japanese as Chikyu-setsu, and is a holiday for girls' schools.

18th Higan, the Week of the Equinox, is a busy time for Buddhist families. Usually, all members of the family visit the family graveyard during the week, attend to the tombs and offer prayers to the spirits of their ancestors. Higan, literally translated, means "yonder shore," or Nirvana. Various eatables of vegetable substance, specially prepared for the purpose, are offered to the dead and sent as presents to friends and relatives. All Buddhist temples in the country hold special services during the period. Tokyo old-fashioned Buddhist believers make special pilgrimages to the images of the six-faced Amida Buddha at 18 temples situated in the hilly sections of the city and suburbs.

21st Vernal Equinox Festival—On this national holiday, which is called Shunki Korei-sai, all schools and public buildings are closed. A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors and ancestresses is performed at the Imperial Sanctuary.

April

April 3rd Anniversary of the demise of the Emperor Jimmu, national holiday—This day is the anniversary of the demise of the first Emperor Jimmu, who reigned over the country for 76 years. The Emperor performs an appropriate ceremony in front of the Imperial Sanctuary.

8th Birthday of Gautama Buddha—This day, marking the birth of Gautama Buddha, is celebrated by all Buddhist temples throughout Japan. Leading temples hold parades of young girls who are daughters of Buddhist believers, and hold memorial services in honour of the founder of their religion. Amacha, sweet tea, is freely given at the temples to all visitors.

18th Festival of the Tokugawa Shogunate Shrine—A festival is held at the Toshogu shrines at Ueno park

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and Shiba park, which are dedicated to the Tokugawa Shoguns.

29th Emperor's Birthday—One of the three greatest national holidays, commemorating the birthday of the Emperor Hirohito, the 124th ruler of Japan. A service is held at all elementary and second grade schools in Japan. At the Imperial Court the Emperor and Empress hold special ceremonies in front of the Imperial Sanctuary, offering prayers to the spirits of the Imperial ancestors for the peace and prosperity of the Empire. After the function, the Emperor reviews the army at the Yoyogi parade-ground. An Imperial banquet is held, to which high officials of the government and foreign diplomats are invited.

30th Semi-Annual Festival of the Yasukuni Shrine—The semi-annual festival of the Yasukuni shrine, on Kudan hill, Tokyo, dedicated to the spirits of the officers and men of the army and navy and others who died fighting for their country in the wars since the Meiji Restoration, lasts for 3 days beginning on April 30.

May

May 1st May Day—This imported festival for labourers is observed usually with a labour mass meeting at Shiba park, followed by a huge parade throughout Tokyo. Similar celebrations are held in other leading cities.

5th Boys' Doll Festival—Just as March 3 is for girls to celebrate their doll festival, so this day is dedicated to the boys of Japan. All Japanese families having sons observe this classic festival. Dolls for the festival are on display in the alcoves of the guest rooms of the families to wish health, success and prosperity to the boys. The sets of dolls displayed represent popular heroes of the Empire. The custom is of several centuries' standing and was originated to encourage a martial spirit in boys. In former days, and even now in some of the rural districts, large paper or cloth carps, often several yards long, are hoisted above the houses, symbolizing the idea that the sons of the families will be as strong as the spirited carp trying to swim up a waterfall.

June

June 1st Ayu fishing season—The seasonal ban on Ayu fishing is formally lifted on this day and anglers in Tokyo flock to the Tama and Sagami rivers to fish ayu, or sweet trout, a fish noted for its fragrance and delicious taste. A feature of the season is the picturesque cormorant fishing on the Nagara near Nagoya.

14th and 15th Annual Festival at Hiyé Shrine, Tokyo—Representative of many shrine festivals which take place in Tokyo and elsewhere in Japan is the annual festival of the Hiyé shrine, known as Sanno-sama, which takes place on top of the Sanno Hill in Akasaka ward. The mikoshi, or portable shrine, is carried on the shoulders of shrine hands through Kyobashi, Shiba, Kojimachi and other wards over which the deity "reigns."

17th Annual Festival of the Great Shrine at Isé and the Itsukushima Shrine at Miyajima.

21st Annual Festival of the Atsuta Shrine at Atsuta, Owari province.

July

July 1st Season for climbing Mount Fuji—The season for climbing Mount Fuji opens. A service is held at the Sengen shrine on top of the sacred peak.

7th Feast of Tanabata—This evening the Weaver or the Star Vega meets her lover the Cow-herd or the Star Altair on the other side of the Heavenly River (Milky Way)

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on the only occasion in the whole year, according to tradition. This festival of the seventh eve of the seventh month is celebrated by some although this custom has of recent years been more or less neglected in Tokyo and other cities.

13th—15th O-Bon Festival—During the o-bon, or feast of lanterns, tradition says that the spirits of the family ancestors and other dead members of the family visit the family and due welcome is given them according to Buddhist rites. The family tombs are visited and vegetable sacrifices are offered. People make small bonfires of stripped hemp stalks and light lanterns to guide the spirits of their ancestors into their homes.

Bon odori, or dance of the bon season, is a simple folk dance which is given in the compounds of temples or elsewhere by common people, especially in the rural districts, under the light of lanterns.

15th and 16th Extra holidays for apprentices and servants—Semi-annual holidays are given apprentices and servants on either of these two days, as on January 15 and 16.

17th Annual fête of Gion Shrine in Kyoto—This picturesque shrine festival in the ancient capital of Japan lasts for a week.

21st Hottest season — The doyo, the hottest period of summer, begins today or thereabouts, to last for about three weeks.

August

August 4th Annual festival of the Kitano Shrine in Kyoto.

6th Annual festival of the Sumiyoshi shrine in Tsukudashima, Kyobashi.

16th Annual Bon-fire Fête on Mount Nyoi in Kyoto.

19th Lantern Fête on Mount Atago in Kyoto.

September

September 1st Memorial Service for the Earthquake Dead—to comfort the spirits of those who were killed in the great earthquake and fire of 1923 services are offered at the Earthquake Memorial Hall at Honjo on the banks of the Sumida River.

5th Suitengu Shrine Festival in Tokyo.

13th Festivals of Kanda Myojin and Hikawa shrines in Tokyo.

17th and 18th Festival of the Great Shrine at Isé and the Hokoku Shrine in Kyoto.

20th Week of the equinox begins—the autumn higan begins on September 20. As during the spring equinoctial week Buddhist temples present busy scenes.

23rd Festival of the autumnal equinox—A Shinto festival in memory of the Imperial ancestors is performed at the Imperial Palace, the day being a national holiday.

26th Moon-viewing Festival—The custom of moon-viewing is no longer observed so generally as in the past, but it still delights the poetically minded in the cities, and people in general in the rural districts. Before twilight sets in, the house-wife will bring a table to the veranda where it can catch the moon beams and spread upon it a feast in honour of the moon. A vase containing autumnal flowers will be placed on the left side of the table. As the moon rises, the members of the family sit around the table in the moonlight and spend the evening in merry-making.

October

October 10th Annual fête of the Kotohira Shrine in Sanuki province and also of similar shrines in Tokyo and elsewhere.

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13th Anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren—One of the most elaborate Buddhist demonstrations in Japan is held in the evening (at the Hommonji temple at Ikegami, Tokyo) to commemorate the anniversary of the death of St. Nichiren, founder of the Nichiren sect of Buddhism. Thousands of believers and non-believers march in groups to the temple, each beating a drum so as to keep time, shouting all the time the Buddhist sutra, "Namu-Myoho Renge-kyo." Large paper lanterns, all lighted, are carried at the head of those processions.

15th Hunting season—The ban on hunting in all districts is lifted today.

17th On this national holiday, which is Kannamé-sai (first harvest festival) the Emperor makes an offering of the new grain harvested this fall to the Sun Goddess enshrined in the Grand Shrine at Isé and to other Imperial ancestors. A special service is held at the Imperial Sanctuary, while the Emperor dispatches a messenger to the Grand Shrine to offer prayers on his behalf.

22nd Festival of Yasukuni Shrine—The Yasukuni shrine begins its second semi-annual celebration, lasting for three days.

November

November 2nd Festival of Oh-tori shrines—the annual shrine festival known as tori-no-ichi, is observed at various shrines of Oh-tori, a winged god of fortune and wealth in Tokyo and elsewhere.

3rd Celebration of the Emperor Meiji's Birthday—This is a national holiday and all schools and public buildings are closed in honour of the great Emperor during whose reign Japan became a world Power, and the week is kept as a national athletic week.

8th Festival of Bellows—This is celebrated in the household of every metal-smith, silver-smith, iron-smith, and the like. On this day also takes place the annual bonfire fête of the Fushimi Inari shrine in Kyoto and elsewhere.

15th Celebration for children of 3, 5 and 7 years of age—This is known as "shichigosan (7, 5, 3) festival". On this day boys who have attained the age of 5 years and girls who attained that of 3 or 7 years of age are taken to the shrines of their tutelary deities, in their best clothes, and worship at the shrines by way of expressing their gratitude for the protection of the guardian deities and their safe growth throughout the period of early childhood, at the same time beseeching future protection and happiness.

23rd Festival of Niinamé-sai—The Emperor observes Niinamé-sai, a national holiday, with the ancient court ceremony of offering new grain to the Sun Goddess and other Imperial ancestors, and partaking of it himself. The occasion is one of thanksgiving, when the Emperor and his subjects return thanks for the harvest.

28th Anniversary of the death of St. Shinran—A religious fete in commemoration of the death of St. Shinran, founder of the Shin sect of Buddhism, is celebrated at the Hongwanji temples in Kyoto and Tokyo.

December

December 22nd Winter Solstice—On this day people take baths in hot water in which sour oranges have been placed, according to the time-honoured custom.

25th Anniversary of the death of Emperor Taisho, father of the present Emperor, a national holiday.

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25th Christmas — Christmas has become an important affair for the Japanese living in cities. Although at first it was regarded by the general public as an event entirely foreign to Japan, it has now become a season of rejoicing for children in large cities, and the day is a regular annual feature, included in the Japanese calendar as such.

29th Close of official business—All government and public offices close for the year-end and New Year holidays.

31st Eating of noodles on the last day of the year—It being the last day of December, many businessmen eat noodles at their evening meal to bring the year to a happy conclusion. The noodle is regarded as a symbol of long life and continued prosperity.

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CHAPTER XXXVIII

TOKYO

Historical Sketch

In 1192 Yoritomo Minamoto (See Chapter III, Kamakura Age) established a military régime at Kamakura, 56.33 kilometres south-west of the present Tokyo, and it was at this period that the name of Yedo was recorded in the report of a local war in which a son of Lord Shiro Kanetsugu Yedo took part, and the name seems to have been given before he became the lord of the district. Yedo literally means "entrance to the gulf."

After the fall of the Yedo family the district was occupied by a feudal lord called Sadamasa Uyesugi; and Dokan Ohta, one of his retainers, discovering the strategic importance of Yedo constructed the Yedo castle which was completed in 1457. After changing hands a few times, it fell, in 1590, into the possession of Iyéyasu Tokugawa, who settled down there to be the over-lord of the eight provinces of Kanto. From that time it gradually expanded until it became not only the capital of Kanto but the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate during 15 generations. During the 268 years of the Tokugawa Shogunate the obscure village of Yedo became a thriving town and it is said that 2 million people lived there in the height of its prosperity in the Bunsei (1818-1830) and Tempo (1830-1844) eras.

In 1869 the Emperor Meiji transferred the Imperial capital to Yedo and renamed it Tokyo, or Eastern Capital. Then came still further growth and prosperity. Contact had just been made with Western countries and as Tokyo was serving as the gateway for Western civilization much attention was given to building the city on modern lines.

The fifty years of Tokyo culture met with a terrible catastrophe in September, 1923, when earthquake and fire, unprecedented in history, dealt the city an almost fatal blow. Nearly one-half of the entire city was completely reduced to ashes. But with hard work and the enthusiastic support of the whole country and the citizens of Tokyo, as well as the sympathy of the world, a new and better Tokyo has arisen from the ashes in but a decade.

Location and Climate

Tokyo is situated at the south-east corner of Kanto plain in 35° 31′ 59″-48′ 50″ N. latitude, 139° 33′ 56″-55′ 22″ E. longitude. The climate of the city is generally mild; the annual mean temperature is 13° 9′ C (57° F); the mean temperature in July is 24° 2′ C (75° 5′ F), in January 3° 1′ C (37° 5′ F); the annual average precipitation is 1,574 mm.

Population and Area

Growth of Population The growth of the population of the city will be seen from the following:

Year		Population	Household
1878		813,400	235,943
1888		1,298,661	287,833
1898		1,425,366	316,527
1908		1,626,103	376,428
1920	(census)	2,173,200	456,816
1923[1]		1,527,489	340,278
1924		1,926,310	417,833
1925	(census)	1,995,567	429,852
1930	(census)	2,070,918	414,710
1931		2,085,560	417,950
1932		5,311,930	1,188,220
1933		5,486,200	1,176,810
1934		5,662,900	—

1 Earthquake year.

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Population On October 1, 1934, the estimated number of population in the city of Tokyo was 5,662,900, or 10,222 per a square kilometre. Of the total, 2,983,400 were men and 2,679,500 women.

Natural Increase in 1933 The number of births in 1933 was 134,850 or 24.48 per 1,000 of population, while that of deaths in the same year was 82,405 or 15.02 per 1,000 of population, and the natural increase was 52,445.

Buildings and Dwelling Houses At the end of 1933 there were 917,147 buildings and dwelling houses in Tokyo, of which 42,951 were built in the year. Of these new ones, 4 were of stones, 550 of steel or reenforced concrete, and buildings higher than 4 stories numbered 66.

Area The total area of Tokyo on January 1, 1933, was 553.967 square kilometres. Classified according to ownership, figures follow:

Ownership	Area in sq. kilometre	Percentage
Imperial Household	6.330	1.13
State	67.614	12.07
Municipality	12.237	2.50
Private persons	392.427	70.70
Rivers, etc.	75.358	13.60
Total	553.967	100.00

Tokyo Enlarged

The development of modern Tokyo is best endorsed by the giant growth of the adjoining towns and villages.

Socially and economically the towns outside the city area have been closely connected with the city itself. The position regarding Tokyo during the 10 years ending 1930 was that the 82 adjoining towns and villages increased in population by 1,720,000, while the city of Tokyo lost 100,000 within the same period. In road construction, extension of communication facilities and in the execution of various municipal regulations the city experienced enormous difficulties due to the existence of over 80 different self-governing bodies surrounding the city area.

As is generally the case with great cities, a large number of people living in adjoining towns enter the city to earn their living. They are placed on exactly the same footing with the citizens in so far as the utilization of metropolitan facilities is concerned. Besides, as most of them are salaried men belonging to middle or intelligent class, to let them stand aloof from city government means an enormous loss to both.

It was after taking into careful consideration all these practical phases of administration that on October 1, 1932, new Tokyo was founded by amalgamating 20 more wards. The newly annexed suburban towns have 3,211,580 inhabitants and 469,029 sq. km., a density of 9,034 persons to the square kilometre.

The enlarged Tokyo now covers 553.967 square kilometres divided into 35 wards.

Commerce and Industry

Retail Business In 1931-32 the number of retail dealers in Tokyo was 156,208; of the total the dealers who carried on their business with a capital under ¥1,000 comprised 22.1 per cent., under ¥5,000 40.1 per cent. and above ¥5,000 37.8 per cent. the position of various classes of dealers in the retail market in the city is shown below:

AMOUNT OF SALES BY RETAIL DEALERS IN TOKYO (1931-32)

Class of dealers	Number of Shops	Sales Amount (in ¥1,000)	Percentage
Department stores	36	235,678	24.5
Corporations	2,526	103,368	10.8
Individuals	132,922	561,575	58.5
Retail markets			
Municipal	11	1,768	0.2
Prefectural	34	6,526	0.7
Private	533	37,445	3.6

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Class of	Number of Shops	Sales Amount	Per-centage
Consumption associations	50	7,707	0.8
Stalls and venders (estimate)	14,000	6,000	0.6
Total	156,208	957,867	100.0

Public Wholesale Markets The city owns and controls the Central Wholesale Market the construction of which has just been completed on 196,741 sq. metres of land at a cost of ¥15,000,000 and opened its business in September 1934. The market is for fish, poultry, meat, vegetables and fruits. Estimated quantity and value of the commodities to be handled in a year in this market are as follows :

Fish	207,000 tons
Dried fish	66,000 ,,
Meat	3,000 ,,
Poultry	1,700 ,,
Eggs	11,000 ,,
Vegetables	88,000 tons
Fruits	52,000 ,,
Total	428,700 ,,
Value	¥106,700,000

There are two branch wholesale markets under municipal ,control. They are the Kanda and Koto markets, and both handle only vegetables and fruits.

In the newly annexed city area 4 new branch markets are to be constructed.

Industry A thorough investigation was carried out by the municipality as regards the conditions for one year of all the factories, including small ones which employ less than 5 persons, as they stood in July, 1933. According to the investigation the total number of factories in Tokyo was 84,298 ; details follow :

Factories in Tokyo Classified According to the Number of Operatives and their Production

Number of Operatives	Number of Factories	Amount of Production (in ¥1,000)	Income from Subcontracted works	Percentage Factories	Production	Subcontracted Works
1	14,105	11,255.5	6,027.4	16.7	1.1	4.7
2-4	50,468	117,147.0	32,551.5	59.9	11.0	25.4
5-10	15,040	104,322.9	26,807.8	17.9	9.8	20.9
11-15	1,891	41,769.8	7,449.5	2.3	3.9	5.8
16-30	1,425	73,889.3	12,008.1	1.7	6.9	9.4
21-50	626	93,770.7	9,129.4	0.7	8.8	7.1
51-100	398	172,752.0	7,775.0	0.5	16.2	6.1
101-200	168	97,501.9	8,857.2	0.2	9.1	6.9
201-500	116	158,315.8	8,775.2	0.1	14.8	6.8
501-1,000	21	55,776.5	675.1	0.0	5.2	0.5
1,001 and above	20	141,195.4	8,226.8	0.0	13.2	6.4
Total	84,278	1,067,696.8	128,283.8	100.0	100.0	100.0

Factories in Tokyo Classified According to the Amount of Capital

Amount of Capital	Number of Factories	Number of Operatives	Amount of Capital (in ¥1,000)	Percentage Factories	Operatives	Capital
Under ¥100	1,580	2,557	87.7	1.9	0.6	0.0
,, 500	16,872	34,733	4,847.2	20.0	7.6	0.4
,, 1,000	18,680	50,078	12,800.3	22.2	1.0	1.0
Under 2,000	20,278	65,658	27,687.9	24.1	14.5	2.2
,, 5,000	16,619	72,340	48,306.0	19.7	16.0	3.8

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Amount of Capital	Number of Factories	Number of Operatives	Amount of Capital (in ¥ 1,000)	Percentage Factories	Production	Capital
Under 10,000	4,955	33,410	31,971.9	5.9	7.4	2.6
,, 50,000	3,700	48,758	73,713.9	4.4	10.7	5.9
,, 100,000	644	17,637	42,186.0	0.8	3.9	3.4
,, 500,000	666	46,043	136,781.5	0.8	10.1	10.9
,, 1,000,000	126	16,971	84,679.0	0.1	3.7	6.8
,, 5,000,000	119	33,539	239,443.6	0.1	7.4	19.1
Above 5,000,000	39	32,047	549,671.1	0.0	7.1	43.9

Transportation

In 1932-1933 the number of daily passengers carried by all the transportation facilities in and around the city of Tokyo was estimated at 3,146,000, aggregating to an enormous number of 1,148,424,000 in the year.

CONVEYANCE OF PASSENGERS BY DIFFERENT TRANSPORTATIONS

	Municipal Electric Car	Governmental Electric Railways	Subway	Private Electric Railways	Buses	Taxicabs (Estimate)	Total (Estimate)
1928-29	445,085,238	334,156,565	8,192,524	231,822,109	92,100,103	55,047,000	1,165,912,539
1929-30	421,190,264	333,543,611	7,676,447	244,603,742	118,778,292	89,966,000	1,220,758,356
1930-31	369,737,708	322,461,593	10,041,945	235,250,177	106,640,640	95,112,000	1,139,244,063
1931-32	335,489,992	333,336,156	10,673,308	224,560,483	186,858,162	100,533,000	1,141,401,101
1932-33	300,777,666	327,768,000 (estimate)	14,438,676	227,218,397	661,954,398	106,267,000	1,148,424,137

Electric Railways The results of the operation of municipal electric railways in 1933 show that passengers carried were 295,667,416 and the revenue therefrom ¥18,853,506. Compared with the previous year, the number of passengers decreased by 5,110,250 and the fares by ¥344,619. This decrease is due to the continued depression and to the development of other advanced transportation facilities.

REPORT ON ELECTRIC RAILWAYS

(1928-1933)

Year	No. of passengers	Fares collected (Yen)	Year	No. of passengers	Fares collected (Yen)
1928	445,085,238	29,078,051.90	1931	335,439,992	21,562,315.78
1929	421,190,264	27,201,754.01	1932	300,777,666	19,198,125.00
1930	365,236,868	23,573,915.31	1933	295,687,416	18,853,506.00

Motor Bus It was in January, 1924, the year following the great earthquake, that the motor bus service was started as a temporary measure to meet the transport emergency, but its development was so healthy that it was decided to put it into permanent operation.

MUNICIPAL MOTOR BUS

At the end of	Mileage in Operation	Number of Cars	Number of Passengers	Passengers per Day	Fare (yen)	Fare per Day (yen)
1928	102.6	592	41,571,352	164,008	4,013,547	10,996
1929	112.1	592	43,582,279	164,777	4,038,891	11,065
1930	122.8	652	39,621,498	141,005	3,476,065	9,417
1931	135.5	658	39,081,124	106,779	3,276,967	8,953
1932	144.5	662	41,233,826	112,968	3,095,701	8,481
1933	148.5	809	48,588,514	133,119	3,526,547	9,662

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Underground Railways The urgent need of a high speed underground communications to relieve the congestion and pressure of surface traffic has long been felt necessary. A private company opened its first section of an underground railway, from Asakusa to Ueno, in the latter part of 1927, and is pushing forward its line under the very centre of the city to Shinagawa. It completed the construction of the line to Shimbashi in June, 1934, and the distance in operation now is 8 kilometres. In 1933 it carried 17,795,433 passengers. The municipal authorities have under contemplation the construction of other lines totalling 65 kilometres and by the end of 1930 had completed geological survey borings in 367 places.

Streets The ten years' effort after the earthquake of 1923 transformed the roads in Tokyo to a great extent and 89.4 per cent. of the total area of roads in the old city section is paved, although in the new city section the percentage of the paved roads is only 29.3. Within the coming ten years 180 lines of roads will be constructed or paved according to the city construction plan.

Bridges The city of Tokyo has a network of rivers and canals and the beauty of the city is greatly enhanced by the bridges of manifold designs which traverse them. Before the earthquake the bridges under municipal management numbered 668, of which 426 were of wood. At the earthquake 289 bridges collapsed or were reduced to ashes. By the co-operation of the Reconstruction Bureau of the Government and the Municipality new bridges were built in their place. At the end of 1933 there were 4,588 bridges in Tokyo, 1,264 of which were of stone, 107 concrete, 958 reinforced concrete, 533 iron, 66 iron and wood, and 1,660 wood.

Rivers and Canals The city is served with a veritable network of canals and rivers many of which are used for transportation purposes. Dredging has to be carried out continuously to keep them navigable. In 1933 there were 5,505 canals and rivers with the total length of 2,280,603 kilometres.

Harbour At the time of the great earthquake in 1923 the city of Tokyo keenly felt the necessity of better facilities for maritime transportation, and when rebuilding of the city took place it was decided to construct a pier, sheds and warehouses at Shibaura, Tokyo. A sum of ¥18,000,000 was appropriated for the work and construction was completed in April, 1935. The length of the reinforced concrete Hinode-cho pier is 564 metres and six steamers of 1,000 to 3,000 tons can be moored alongside at a time. Another pier of Shibaura has a length of 910 metres and can moor 7 steamers of 6,000 tons. Furthermore, there are 12 mooring buoys and 8 sheds. The total area of he harbour is 8,591 square kilometres. During 1933, the total number of steamers entered was 2,904 with an aggregate tonnage of 6,587,307 tons. The harbour handled 4,469,245 tons of import cargo, and 596,382 tons of export cargo.

Waterworks

The construction of modern water reservoirs was first commenced in 1890 and it was twenty years before the Yodobashi water reservoir was completed. But this proved inadequate to meet the ever growing water consumption and the Murayama water reservoir was constructed in 1916. It consists of two reservoirs, upper and lower, and the upper reservoir has a capacity of 3,576,000 cubic metres while the capacity of the lower one is 12,148,000 cubic metres.

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In 1934 another reservoir at Yamaguchi-mura was completed and it has a capacity of 18,824,000 cubic metres. The total volume of water which can actually be maintained by these reservoirs at any given moment reaches 30,056,000 cubic metres. The total volume supplied during 1933-34 was 120,354,969 cubic metres. Another reservoir, six times as large as the combined Murayama and Yamaguchi reservoirs, is to be constructed in the neighbourhood of Ogōchi-mura in Tokyo prefecture. In March, 1935, the city bought all rights of the Tamagawa Waterworks which had been supplying water to the six southern wards.

Sewerage Works

General Conditions Until half a century ago waste water used to be discharged into moats, navigable canals and rivers. In 1876, there was a violent outbreak of cholera which impressed upon the Government the urgent need of a general water and sewerage system, but it was not until between 1883 and 1885 that Tokyo prefecture laid the first sewers, with a government subsidy. The subject of sewage disposal was not undertaken in earnest until 1911, and it was not until ten years later that the modern Mikawajima Disposal Works were opened. Extensions and modernization are still going on. At present there are 7 sewage siphons at Sunamachi and Mikawajima.

Within the old city limits there are no longer any open street drains visible, the same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the new city area, though further development of the sewerage system is being planned.

Sewage siphon and disposing capacities for 1933-34 follow:

SEWERAGE WORKS IN TOKYO

(1933-1934)

	Area covered (in are)	Length of sewers (in metre)	Sewage siphons	Sewage farm
Proposed				
Old City Section	699,206	1,720,997	7	3
New City Section	1,761,466	816,633	6	2
Completed (1933)				
Old City Section	—	774,507	7	2
New City Section	—	200,944	—	—
Under Construction (1934)				
Old City Section	—	91,077	3 (Additional)	1
New City Section	—	66,734	4	—

Parks

Parks The absolute necessity of parks is more keenly felt in Tokyo than in other cities in Japan, not only because they are like oases in a large city, but because many lives were saved through the existence of parks on the occasion of the terrible earthquake of September, 1923.

At the end of 1934 Tokyo had 105 parks with an area of 2.747 square kilometres.

In the old city area there are three large parks: Sumida, Kinshi and Hamacho and 89 others of about 2,682,136 sq. m., whereas before the earthquake the city had only Ueno, Hibiya and 32 other parks. Within the newly annexed quarters of the city there are two at Shinagawa covering an area of 3,900 tsubo.

Sumida park has an area of 174,400 sq. m., Hamacho park 36,000

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sq. m. and Kinshi park 56,000 sq. m. All of the numerous small parks are laid out adjoining the elementary schools. They serve as local parks, the largest being 4,700 sq. m. and the smallest 1,700 sq. m. in area.

Education

Most kindergarten work is undertaken by private persons, only 47 of the 278 kindergartens were being under municipal management in 1933. Elementary education, with the exception of a very few schools, is undertaken by the municipality. In July, 1934, there were 544 municipal elementary schools with 705,020 pupils. In addition to the elementary schools there are evening elementary schools, with courses extending over three years for poor children who are unable to attend day school. They are all municipally established and pupils who complete the course are recognized as having finished their compulsory education. In July, 1934, the number of evening elementary schools and their pupils was 69 and 5,613 respectively.

For secondary education the municipality have 2 middle schools, 4 girls' schools, 10 commercial schools, and 4 industrial and business schools. (For the municipal educational expenditure see "Finance".) Education of a supplementary nature, industrial, commercial or technical is well looked after, as the following statistics will show.

All the higher education in the city is carried out by the Government, Tokyo Prefecture and private educational bodies.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

March 1, 1934

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Kindergartens	275	621	15,205	9,124
Elementary schools	555	13,684	683,343	115,052
Elementary evening schools	67	113	5,694	1,797
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	7	184	1,005	223
Middle schools	51	1,341	34,794	6,219
Girls' high schools	74	1,683	41,175	7,648
Schools which resemble middle or girls' schools	26	517	12,787	2,067
Technical schools	103	1,971	45,474	10,169
Business continuation schools	184	256	19,789	8,450
Normal schools	3	107	1,621	537
Private miscellaneous schools	277	3,480	51,850	34,806
Total	1,622	23,957	912,737	196,094

HIGHER GRADE SCHOOLS

March 1, 1933

	No.	Instructors	Students	Graduates
Higher normal schools	2	181	1,519	375
Training institutes for business school teachers	3	70	199	93
Colleges	71	3,858	50,964	14,038
High schools	4	244	2,896	902
Universities	22	3,592	46,644	14,201
Total	102	7,945	102,222	29,609

Social Education The Social Education Bureau of Tokyo municipality, established in 1921, looks after the social education of the capital.

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Adult education is effected through the medium of Commercial and Industrial Young Men's Cultural Schools and citizens' lecture courses, both of which give lectures to citizens for a term of half a year, at night or on Sundays and holidays. At other times short time lecture or training courses are arranged for citizens in general. Free use is made of music and the cinema.

The Tokyo Self-Government Hall, Hibiya park, is a permanent organ for social education with the object of fostering an autonomous spirit among the citizens, as its principal raison d'être.

Training of Young Men In July, 1934, there were 26 Young Men's Training Institutes with 15,599 students.

The Tokyo Municipal Federated Young Men's Association represents the Young Men's Associations of the different wards. Besides being subjected to physical and mental training the members are expected to render assistance in all public welfare services. In 1934, there were 1,012 such associations in the federation, the total number of members being 106,963.

In September, 1934, the Tokyo Municipal Federated Young Women's Association had 464 groups with a Association had 464 groups with members of 41,518.

The Tokyo Federated Boy Scouts movement was established in 1922. It made rapid growth and in August, 1934, the number of groups was 161 with 9,397 members.

Public Libraries There are 26 libraries owned by the municipality, 8 of which are open day and night, but the rest, being attached to elementary school buildings, are open after school hours. In 1934, the number of books kept in these libraries totalled 425,724 and that of visitors was 2,690,216. The Hibiya Library is the oldest and largest, being established in 1906 and keeping 164,464 books. There are also some noted libraries in the city such as the Ueno Library (State), Tokyo Imperial University Library, libraries attached to universities, as well as many private libraries, of which the noted one is Ōhashi library. Statistics of the number of all the libraries in Tokyo, books kept, the number of visitors, etc. follow:

STATISTICS OF LIBRARIES IN TOKYO

March 1, 1934

No. of new books	131,445
No of total books	3,136,583
Visitors	6,799,423
Total no. of libraries,	54

Religion

The number of shrines, temples, churches and missions, and that of preachers and adherents of each religion follows:

NUMBER OF SHRINES, TEMPLES, CHURCHES

(December 31, 1933)

	No. of shrines, temples, churches, and missions	No. of preachers	No. of adherents
Shintoism	861	346	—
Missions for Shintoism	1,007	6,032	557,709
Buddhism	1,863	4,300	258,706*
Missions for Buddhism	224	341	78,226
Christianity	223	447 (Includes 81 foreigners)	54,435

* Refers to the number of Buddhist households.

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Social Work

Child Welfare There are 4 maternity and 3 infants' hospitals within the old city quarters. In 1933 the former took care of 4,358 expectant mothers and the latter 7,351 infants.

There are 18 municipal nurseries where labourers can leave their children when going to their daily work. Those taken care of are babies from 6 months old to school age. In 1933 they took daily care of 1,135 children.

The city has 16 Infant Welfare Centres which give advice on the rearing of babies, arrange mothers' meetings and exhibitions on infant hygiene and assist in supplying fresh milk for babies of the poor at a reduced price or gratis. In 1933 these centres handled 4,947 cases.

The city established the Tokyo Juvenile Shelter Office in 1921 to give social protection to those youths who are in need of public care, such as those who are unmanageable at home. The number of boys protected in 1933 was 459.

The city has a few juvenile recreation grounds laid out in slum districts where children have no gardens and almost no opportunity to enjoy landscapes, flowers and trees.

Labour Exchanges There are 47 labour exchanges in the city. Condiions of their activity are as follows :

RESULTS OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE MUNICIPAL LABOUR EXCHANGE OFFICES (1933)

	Number of jobs	Persons wanting jobs	Jobs secured
General employees	271,999	303,327	77,925
Juveniles	32,031	32,555	5,717
Salarymen	9,652	24,782	7,460
Day-labourers (working days)	3,133,611	4,884,463	3,099,884

Women's Workhouses There are 6 women's workhouses in the city, where domestic manual work is given to women of the lower middle class. This enterprise of the municipality was started in 1925 as a part of the capital reconstruction work. Less than 10 years have passed since its initiation, but the development which it has made deserves attention. In 1933 the number of working days of women was 185,769 and ¥91,878.14 was paid to them.

Unemployment Relief Works The city has been undertaking relief works for daily labourers since 1925, with good results. The works carried out in 1933 are roughly repairing of water works, sewers, streets and dredging of rivers and the harbour : total expenditure ¥15,075,584 ; total wages to labourers ¥4,888,215 for 2,774,583 working days.

Besides having labour exchanges for daily labourers, the city arranges to give jobs for the unemployed among the educated and lower salaried classes. In 1933 the amount expended for the work reached ¥1,070,915, of which ¥975,310 was paid for 768,047 working days.

Economic Protection In 1933 the city had 20 public pawnshops and loaned ¥1,199,093

In 1933 there were 16 municipal dining halls serving cheap nutrious meals, the number of meals served being 4,272,689.

The city established lodging-houses attached to labour exchanges in 1911.

In 1933 there were 14 such houses giving shelter to 3,024 labourers in daily average.

In addition to all these various

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kinds of undertakings Tokyo municipality runs 3 public bath-houses, has a house exchange agency and controls House Building Associations.

The Tokyo Poor Asylum The Tokyo Asylum was founded in 1872. It takes care of the poor, those taken sick in the street, lost children and depraved boys. In connection with this work mention should be made of Viscount Shibusawa who devoted 60 years of his life to it as its director. The admission report shows that during 1933 men taken in numbered 77,459, leaving 2,398 in the asylum at the end of the year.

Administration and Government

History In July, 1868, the Emperor Meiji granted an Imperial message on the proposed removal of the capital to Tokyo. It was the beginning of the regeneration of Tokyo. At the same time the downfall of the Shogunate régime was announced and new Japan was born.

The Tokyo prefectural office was established soon after the issuing of the Imperial Rescript. In 1871, the city was divided into 6 large wards, but seven years later the large wards were abolished and 15 smaller wards established. In 1879, as the governor of the prefecture saw that these 15 wards were firmly established, he issued a decree concerning the formation and functions of ward assemblies, and thus instituted the first representative government system in this country.

Legislative Body To control municipal business the city has a city council and board of aldermen with a mayor as the head. Further, there are several departments, bureaux, sections, etc., for the execution of municipal affairs and office work.

Membership of the city council is an honorary position, the term of service being 4 years. The membership at present is 144, but owing to resignation of and death of members, the actual membership at the end of 1934 was 139. The principal functions of the council are the enactment and reorganization of city regulations, decisions as to finance, approval of settled accounts, imposition and collection of city taxes; and the right of proposing any bill, except the budget for annual revenue and expenditure. The board of aldermen of Tokyo once was the executive body, but in 1911 it became a legislative body. It is composed of 15 honorary aldermen to whom the mayor is added as chairman. The functional powers include the right of proposing any bill or expressing opinions on other matters.

Executive From 1889 till 1898 the function of the mayor of Tokyo was entrusted to the governor of Tokyo prefecture, but on October 1, 1898 the city became self-governing. The mayor is elected by the city council. Under the mayor there are three deputy mayors, a city counsellor, a treasurer, directors of departments, chiefs of bureaux, ward heads and other numerous offices. There are various kinds of committees as consultative bodies. The organization of the municipality is as follows:

THE DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION OF THE TOKYO MUNICIPALITY

Sections	Functions
Private secretariat	Secret matters, keeping of seals, ceremonies and reward
Personnel	Personnel administration
General secretariat	General affairs, municipal research, elections, legal affairs, etc.
Bureaux	
Supervising	Supervision and inspection of municipal affairs

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Bureaux	Functions
Finance	**Budget, loans, public land, taxation, purchasing, etc.**
Industrial	**Industry, promotion of industry and commerce, agriculture, fisheries and stock raising**
Education	**Management of schools; education, libraries, museums, etc.**
Social Work	**Protection and correction. Management of lodging houses, housing, labour exchanges, commercial training, etc.**
Public Health	**Management of hospitals, social hygiene, refuse disposal, parks and playgounds, auditoriums, cemeteries, zoological gardens, etc.**
Water Works	**Water supply and extension**
Public Works	**Roads, bridges, harbours and rivers, sewage disposal, buildings, etc.**
Electric	**Supply of light and power; electric cars, motor buses, subways, etc.**
Divisons	
Harbour	**Care of Tokyo harbour**
Municipal Office Building	**Building the City Hall at Tsukishima**
Miscellaneous	
Central Wholesale Market	**Wholesale of provisions**
Poor Asylum	**Protection of helpless persons aged or young**
Hygiene Laboratory	**Investigations on epidemics, bacteria, etc.**
Electric Laboratory	**Examination of meters and scientific research on electricity.**

Finance

When Tokyo became an independent self-governing city in 1898, its net annual expenditure was only ¥3,355,340, but this has grown to an estimated amount of ¥195,829,850 for the fiscal year 1934-5.

Expenditure and Revenue The estimated expenditure and revenue for 1934-5 are as follows:

EXPENDITURE

Category of account	Gross annual expenditure
Office expense	¥10,045,837
Education	25,045,584
Industries	737,716
Public health	8,193,247
Social work	7,588,150
Public work	33,421,973
Miscellaneous	4,177,449
Loan	62,151,976
Waterworks	14,582,100
Electric enterprises	29,935,818
Total	195,829,850

REVENUE

Items	Amount
Income from properties	¥2,757,206
Fees and charges	53,514,822
Government subsidy	16,491,248
Subsidy from Tokyo prefecture	1,656,123
Compensation	1,775,756
Sales of city property	2,510,767
Receipts from landowners	1,747,098
City tax	82,394,762
Loans and borrowing	52,621,100
Revenues from other sources	25,737,090
Total	191,205,972

City Property At the end of October, 1933, the property of the city of Tokyo was valued at ¥837,635,239, an increase of ¥23,371,839 as compared with the previous year.

Loans Loans of Tokyo City increased because of a great amount of loan floated due to the emergency of 1923, i. e. the great Kanto earthquake and fire, and the enlargement of the city in 1932. The total of loans which amounted to ¥193,158,000 rose to ¥745,627,945 on May 31, 1934; this means a burden of ¥647.82 per household in the city.

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CHAPTER XXXIX

FIVE BIG CITIES

Osaka

General

Geographical Position The city of Osaka is situated nearly in the centre of Japan proper, near the eastern entrance of the Inland Sea with easy access to the Pacific Ocean, while on the other sides extend the fertile plains of the provinces of Settsu, Kawachi and Izumi. The city of Kyoto, the ancient capital of Japan, is situated 43 kilometres to the north-east, and the city of Kobé lies 32 kilometres to the west. The river Yodo runs through the city, and with the numerous canals that connect with it affords excellent transportation facilities by water. The Yodo rises in Lake Biwa, the largest fresh water lake in Japan, and branches off into the Shin Yodogawa, Okawa, Dojimagawa, Tosaborigawa, Ajikawa, Kizugawa and the Shirinashigawa, which in turn connect with numerous canals, the most famous being the Dotombori Canal.

Area The area of Osaka was 10 square kilometres in 1703; it was extended to 15 square kilometres in 1889, in which year it was made into a municipality; it was increased to 56 square kilometres in 1897, by the annexation of adjacent villages, and in April 1925, more annexations were made until today it covers 187.28 square kilometres. Osaka is the third greatest city in Japan so far as the area is concerned.

Population The population of Osaka on October 1, 1930, when the last national census was taken, was 2,453,573. The population over the same area in 1920 was 1,768,295 and in 1925 it was 2,114,804. The population on October 1, 1933, as estimated by the Cabinet Bureau of Statistics, was 2,654,000, of which 1,408,900 were men and 1,245,100 were women, the same on October 1, 1934 was 2,722,700, of which 1,445,000 were men and 1,277,700 were women. The number of households, in the same year, was 602,600 and the average number of a family was 4.5.

The density of population in 1934 was 14,538 to a square kilometre, and was the first in Japan in that respect.

In 1933 births registered were 77,498, that is 212 a day, still births totalled 5,093, and deaths 45,552, or 125 a day. The natural increase, therefore, was 31,946, or a decrease of 8,214 as compared with the previous year.

Of the births registered 39,913 were men, 37,585 were women, the rate of birth being 29.20 to a thousand of population.

Of the deaths registered, 24,070 were men and 21,482 were women. The rate of mortality was 17.16 to a thousand, an increase of 1.16 as compared with the previous year.

The causes of deaths registered during 1933 show that pneumonia and broncho-pneumonia were accountable for 12.0 per cent. of the total deaths, pulmonary tuberculosis 12.0 per cent. also.

The number of foreigners was 2,470, Chinese heading the list with 2,283 (92%).

Houses At the end of 1933 the number of dwelling houses was

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542,062, of which 28,088 were vacant, that is, 5.18 houses to every 100, which is far larger than the ratio of 3 to 100, for other large towns in the country.

	Dwelling houses Vacant	Total	Percentage of vacant
1925	17,161	441,881	3.88
1926	19,139	459,938	4.16
1927	24,084	470,524	5.11
1928	24,760	484,446	5.11
1929	24,197	502,384	4.81
1930	26,963	509,874	5.28
1931	30,651	517,162	5.92
1932	28,655	529,637	5.41
1933	28,088	542,062	5.18

Industries

The city of Osaka holds an important position as a centre of industry as well as of commerce. At the end of 1933 the number of factories, excluding government concerns and small ones employing less than five workmen, was 8,200 which comprises 12 per cent. of the number of factories throughout the country. The total amount of production in the same year reached ¥1,039,651,000 (exclusive of gas and electric production), an increase of ¥284,130,000 (38%) as compared with the previous year. The following table shows the distribution of various industries.

Principal industries	No. of factories	No. of working men	Production in ¥1,000
Textile	1,082	38,878	206,182
Metallurgical	1,582	36,708	267,293
Machinery	1,662	38,718	150,359
Ceramics	282	10,623	34,392
Chemical	706	19,311	200,342
Milling and wood work	510	6,570	24,797
Printing and book binding	375	7,752	40,168
Foodstuffs	583	6,993	55,738
Gas and electric work	14	1,118	—
Miscellaneous	1,404	18,960	60,379
Total	8,200	185,626	1,039,651

At the end of 1932 the number of small factories employing less than five operatives was 25,329, the number of hired workmen was 25,803, the family of factory owners engaged in the works 31,388.

The increase in the number of hired ones and a decrease in that of family members as compared with the preceding years may be an indication of inflation reaching these petty family industries. The total amount of their production in 1932 was ¥54,460,000 or ¥2,200 per house.

Other Productions Productions of various industries other than factories in 1933 were as follows:

Agricultural	¥ 2,162,000
Livestock	4,661,000
Fisheries	2,996,000

Commerce

Business Companies At the end of 1933 the number of business companies in Osaka was 7,214, an increase of 386 as compared with the previous year. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥2,440,830,000, increase of ¥24,000,000 as compared with the previous year.

Banks At the end of 1933 the number of banks in Osaka was 9 with 137 branches besides 93 branches of banks in other cities. Their deposits amounted to ¥1,953,000,000, loans to ¥1,721,000,000.

Warehouses In 1933 the 6 big warehouses in Osaka received commodities amounting to ¥510,769,000 and delivered ¥468,678,000, with ¥138,851,000 outstanding at the end of the year.

Exchanges There are four exchanges in Osaka—Osaka Stock Exchange, Dojima Rice Exchange, Osaka Sampin (raw cotton, cotton yarns and rayon yarn) Exchange and the Osaka Sugar Exchange. The three first mentioned are joint stock companies while the Sugar Exchange is organized on a membership system.

The turnover of the Osaka Stock Exchange during 1933 was 79,920,000

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shares, which include both short and long term transactions, and the value of which reached ¥11,200,300,000 or an increase of 49 per cent. as compared with the previous year.

The Dojima Rice Exchange, which is the oldest established rice exchange in Japan dealt in 44,870,000 koku valued at ¥1,068,280,000. It was a decrease of 55 per cent. as compared with the previous year due to the effect of the enforcement of the Rice Control Law. Dealings in Sampin Exchange were 6,250,000 bales of cotton yarn, valued at ¥1,242,430,000, 2,360,000 bales of cotton, valued at ¥453,640,000, and 840,000 bales of rayon yarn, valued at ¥92,120,000. The Sugar Exchange transacted 4,680,000 sacks of sugar, amounting to ¥87,640,000.

Commodity Movements The total amount of commodities handled during 1933 reached 29,320,000 tons, of which 11,110,000 tons valued at ¥3,192,000,000 were sent out of the city and 18,210,000 tons valued at ¥2,765,000,000 were received in; i. e. in tonnage imports exceeded exports by 7,110,000 tons while in value exports exceeded imports by ¥428,000,000. This is a normal condition because imports mainly consist of cheap raw materials and exports include valuable manufactured goods.

The itemized table of the same follows:

OUTWARD AND INWARD SHIPMENTS

Kinds	Sent out		Receiving	
	Quantity (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in ¥1,000,000)	Quantity (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in ¥1,000,000)
Foodstuffs	849	148	2,386	355
Raw materials	2,713	246	9,584	455
,, ,, for manufacturing	2,310	442	3,155	575
Manufactured goods	5,171	2,354	2,871	1,357
Miscellaneous	68	3	218	22
Total	11,109	3,192	18,215	2,765

Central Wholesale Market The Osaka Central Wholesale Market handles under supervision of the city foodstuffs which are liable to deteriorate, such as fish, meat, eggs, vegetables and fruits. The amount handled during 1934 reached ¥63,011,000, an increase of ¥4,280,000 over the previous year.

Municipal Retail Markets The municipality of Osaka operates fifty-four retail markets which handle daily necessaries. The sales by these municipal markets during 1934 amounted to ¥23,320,000, a decrease of ¥60,000, as compared with the previous year. Owing to the decline of prices and buying capacity and increase of private markets, the value of necessaries handled by these markets shows a declining tendency every year.

Foreign Trade

The Osaka Customs Office handled, during 1934, 1,586,000 tons of goods valued at ¥586,180,000 for export and 4,221,000 tons valued at ¥523,290,000 for import, which shows an excess of imports over exports by 2,635,000 tons and an excess in value of exports over imports by ¥62,890,000. Compared with the previous year, it showed an increase of ¥122,650,000 or 26 per cent. in exports, and a gain of ¥81,600,000 or 18 per cent. in imports.

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Transportation

Roads On March 31, 1934, the total length of roads in the city of Osaka was 2,477.664 km., and the total area occupied by these roads was 12,135 sq. km. or 6.5 per cent. of the total city area. According to the city planning, narrow roads are gradually disappearing. On the same date the concrete roads comprised 31 per cent. of the total area of roads just mentioned.

Rivers, Canals and Bridges Osaka is the Venice of Japan and owed its development much to the network of waterways. At the end of 1934, the total length of 12 main rivers and canals in the city was 54.735 km., and the number of bridges was 1,274.

Tramways and Bus Lines The first electric tramway in Osaka was built in September, 1903, between Hanazonobashi and the harbour, a distance of 4.828 kilometres. At the end of the same year it was decided that all electric railway lines within the city limits should be constructed and operated by the municipality. At the end of 1934 the length was 103.9 kilometres. In May, 1933 the underground railway opened its business between Umeda and Shinsaibashi, with the length of 3 km. In addition to the tramcar service the municipal authorities operate motor-bus lines. Private bus lines operate over certain districts of the city.

Suburban Electric Railways 9 private companies operate suburban electric lines—the Hanshin Electric Railway Company and the Hanshin Kyuko Electric Railway Company operate the service between Osaka and Kobé; the Kéihan Electric Railway Company line connects Osaka with Kyoto; the Osaka Electric, Sangu Kyuko and Osaka lines bring Nara and vicinity to within easy reach of Osaka; the Nankai and the Hanwa Electric Railway Companies operate between Osaka and Wakayama; and the Hankai Electric connects Osaka and Sakai. The total length of suburban electric lines reaches 874.4 kilometres. These electric lines, coupled with the railway lines operated by the Railway Ministry, make up the land transportation lines of Osaka.

Sea Transportation The Osaka harbour is one of the three largest ports in Japan and the number of steamships which entered the port in 1933 was 2,138, the aggregate tonnage of which amounting to 31,607,000 tons, while that of Japanese and foreign sailing vessels was 162,628 with 4,243,000 tons. Of the steamboats 12,089 were of the volume under 1,000 tons, 7,290 from 1,000 to 5,000 tons, and 1,659 above 5,000 tons.

Airways The Japan Air Transport Co., Ltd., operates a regular passenger and mail service with its airport at the mouth of the Kitsugawa. It takes 2.30 hours between Osaka and Tokyo, the distance being 425 kilometres. Fukuoka, Kyushu, may be reached in three hours, the distance being 500 kilometres. It is 1,684 kilometres to Dairen, via Fukuoka, Urusan, Seoul and Héijo. The planes leave and arrive twice a day both ways. The fare to Tokyo is ¥30 per passenger and that between Osaka and Fukuoka is ¥35. The number of passengers during 1934 was 4,120, and is annually increasing. The Japan Air Transport Institute operates similar service between Osaka and Matsuyama in Shikoku.

Municipal Industrial Research Laboratory The Osaka Municipal Industrial Research Laboratory was established in 1916, with an imperial bounty to cover part of the expenses, for the purpose of pursuing technical studies and giving guidance to manufacturers. The institution has since been

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reconstructed and enlarged with an expenditure of some ¥500,000.

In 1925, the Institute for the Encouragement of Industry was established in the compounds of the Laboratory to ensure more competent activities. The new institute was built, at an expenditure of ¥200,000, in commemoration of the wedding of the Crown Prince. For the maintenance of these two institutes a sum of ¥150,000 is expended annually by the municipality. Besides taking the initiative in experimental work aiming at the improvement of production methods, they conduct scientific experiments at the request of private individuals and answer technical enquiries.

Education

In March, 1934, the number of kindergartens and schools in Osaka was 651, nurses, teachers and professors 12,256, and pupils and student totalled 423,708. As compared with the previous year the number of schools increased by 15, teaching forces by 533, and pupils and students by 23,429. Of the total number of kindergartens and schools the Government and prefectural numbered 29 (4.5 %), municipal 426 (65.4%).

Colleges and universities are Osaka School of Foreign Languages (governmental); Osaka Girls' College (perfectural); Osaka University of Commerce (municipal); Kwansai University (private); Naniwa Commercial College (private); Soai Girls' College (private); Otani Girls' College (private); Osaka High School (governmental); Osaka Imperial University (governmental). In 1933 the municipality paid ¥15,080,000, an annual sum of some ¥14,421,000 for the maintenance of educational institutions in the city.

Public Libraries There are one prefectural, six municipal and six private public libraries in Osaka. At the end of March, 1934 the number of books kept in these libraries was 321,845. During 1933, the number of persons visiting these libraries was 813,705.

Young Men's Training Institutes The number of training institutes for young men was 122 on April 1, 1934, the number of students being 17,258.

Temples and Shrines At the end of 1933 814 Buddhist temples, 812 sectarian Shinto preaching places, and 91 Christian churches constituted the religious force of the city.

Social Welfare Works

Relief of the Poor Since the issuance by the Government in 1874 of the relief regulation, the municipality of Osaka has given financial assistance to bodies engaging in the relief of the poor, the aged and deserted children. More recently it has undertaken the maintenance of diverse social welfare institutions aiming at the prevention of poverty. In 1933 three municipal maternity homes received 5,710 expectant mothers and took care of 9,570 such mothers. There are 60 institutions (municipal 18 and private 42) engaging in child protection, and there were 4,408 children staying at those institutions at the end of 1933.

The muncipality maintains 17 lodging-houses for the unemployed and labourers, while there are eight more similar establishments maintained privately.

The municipality also maintains dwelling houses, sells more by instalment payments and conducts public pawnshops. The last named loaned ¥471,628 during 1933.

Employment Exchanges The municipality maintains 13 employment exchanges, three of which deal exclusively with unskilled labourers, while another deals only with women. Besides numerous employment

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agencies conducted as business enterprises there are 8 privately maintained employment exchanges.

These exchanges handled 213,504 cases for salary men and women and 20 per cent. of men and 24 per cent. of women got job. In day labour exchanges the number of cases reached 2,089,293 and 85 per cent. of which was successful.

Charitable Medical Institutions The municipality maintains 29 medical institutions where citizens of the lower classes may receive treatment, free of charge or with payment of the bare cost. There are 14 more such hospitals privately maintained.

City Planning

City planning was advocated as early as 1886 in Osaka, but nothing definite took shape until 1917 when the City Improvement Investigation Commission was organized to make investigations.

After many years of investigation, the city decided in April, 1922, to fix the area for the new city at 220 square kilometres, which includes the old city. The future city was to be divided into the dwelling district 33.3 per cent., the business district 11 per cent. and industrial district 30.2 per cent., leaving 25.5 per cent. for future division. Some of these districts were marked off as fire proof districts, where fire proof buildings alone were permitted to be constructed. Owing to the experiences gained by the great Kwanto earthquake of 1923, drastic changes were made in the above plan, which cost some ¥234,570,000.

In order to wash into the sea the polluted water in branch rivers and canals, the city intends to set up movable weirs.

Harbour Construction

Half a century ago the harbour facilities of Osaka were in such a poor condition that it was feared they would fail to keep pace with the rapid growth of trade. Osaka Bay, which lies to the west, was constantly subject to huge waves and exposed to high winds, and the mouths of the rivers were always choked with sand. In 1897, the municipality started construction work on a carefully worked out plan with a subsidy from the national treasury. By 1915, the greater part of the plan had been completed at an expenditure of ¥25,000,000, and thereafter the work was temporarily suspended owing to the financial difficulties of the municipality. Work was resumed in 1917. As part of the second plan of construction, the municipality started the construction of the pier and extension of the moorings in 1929. The work is expected to be completed in 1935.

The water area inside the breakwater is 6.55 square kilometres and the maximum depth within this area is 10 metres at mean low water. This depth enables the harbour to accommodate steamers of 10,000 tons without difficulty.

Waterworks and Sewerage

The first waterworks in Osaka were completed in October, 1895, at a cost of ¥2,390,000. Water was then drawn from the Yodo River at Sakuranomiya and was conveyed to a reservoir in Osaka castle for distribution to a population of 610,000. Reconstructions and expansions have since been made and today the Osaka Waterworks supply the citizens with a daily 383,000 cubic metres of water. In 1933, 500,000 houses used 116,688,000 cubic metres.

From 1894 on, several minor additions and reconstructions to the sewerage system of the city were attempted, but it was not until 1911 that anything really big was undertaken. Then from 1911 to 1927,

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three big schemes, the last to be completed in 1935, at an aggregate cost of ¥17,000,000, have been put into effect.

Municipal Finance

In the fiscal year 1933-34 the revenue of the Osaka municipality was ¥140,757,000, expenditure ¥141,693,000. As compared with the finance of the city when she became an independent self-governing body in 1898 the amount of revenue is 44 times as large and that of expenditure 46 times. In 1933 city loan floatation amounted to ¥254,360,000, and the total amount of city loans on May 31, 1934 was ¥478,365,000 or ¥180 per capita of population.

Kyoto

Kyoto, known in antiquity by the name of "Heian" (the city of peace), was for about a thousand years the metropolis of Japan. At the Restoration, the Emperor Meiji moved his capital to Tokyo, but Kyoto retained its position as a cultural centre, and today it is looked upon as "the classic city" and the leader of culture in the western part of the country. The city, lying in what is called the Kyoto basin, is surrounded by many famous hills and mountains such as Arashiyama, Atagoyama, Kuramayama, Hiéizan and Higashiyama. The area of the city is about 289 square kilometres, the greatest length from N. to S. is a little over 26 kilometres and the greatest breadth is about 25 kilometres, the form being roughly rectangular. Osaka lies 43 kilometres to the south-west.

Boundaries The boundaries of the city have undergone considerable changes since 1888. At that date the first annexation of adjacent villages was made, a second extension was made in 1902 and a third in 1918. In 1929 three wards, Nakagyo-ku, Sakyo-ku, and Higashiyama-ku were newly added to the city. In 1931 the last annexation was made and two more wards, Ukyo-ku and Fushimi-ku, were constituted.

Population The population grew from 717,100 in 1927, to 736,000 in 1928, to 755,200 in 1929, and due to the above mentioned extensions in the boundaries, was found in 1930, to be 952,397. On October 1, 1934 the total number of population in Kyoto was estimated at 1,052,500, that of households was 224,129.

Industry and Commerce

In 1933 the conditions of factories which employed more than 5 persons in Kyoto were as follows:

	Factories	Operatives	Production (in yen)
Textile	784	15,390	34,675,341
Metallurgical	74	805	3,289,310
Machinery	104	1,876	2,410,854
Ceramics	53	670	1,457,834
Chemical	87	481	6,194,974
Saw milling & wood work	93	865	2,879,467
Printing & binding	57	753	2,176,968
Foodstuffs	283	3,891	21,506,747
Electric & gas	11	93	912,055
Miscellaneous	92	1,216	3,272,610
Total	1,588	25,540	78,775,160

TOTAL INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION OF KYOTO

(1933)

Kind of Industry	Amount in yen
Agriculture	4,421,215
Livestock	3,959,744
Forestry	315,810
Mineral	135,302
Fisheries	53,200
Factories (including all petty shops)	224,828,928
Total	233,713,699
1932	208,592,249

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Foreign Trade Not being a port Kyoto cannot carry on trade with foreign countries direct except by parcel post, but the goods consigned to and from foreign countries through other ports were (in ¥1,000),

	1930	1931	1932	1933
Exports	25,093	15,276	22,354	28,270
Imports	5,606	5,696	4,317	5,315

Banking Statistics Figures concerning the banks in the city are quoted below :

(in ¥1,000)

At the end of	No. of banks	Deposits	Loans
1930	83	427,875	154,428
1931	90	434,831	150,681
1932	88	453,702	156,344
1933	85	474,504	178,553

Commercial and Industrial Corporations At the end of 1933 there were 2,676 companies in Kyoto. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥254,119,000. The clearing house turned over 19,522,580 bills with the value of ¥2,608,655,000 and delivered 2,140,360 bills with the value of ¥210,675,000.

Transportation

Vehicles At the end of 1933 the number of vehicles was 173,104, including 253 rikisha, 2,462 automobiles and 133,214 bicycles.

Municipal Tramways In 1933-34 the total length of the lines was 59.9 km., and carried 95,112,075 passengers, while the bus ran 37.5 km. of the lines and carried 9,901,396.

State Railways In 1933-34 the number of passengers who moved through Kyoto and other seven stations in the city was 17,137,570.

Suburban Electric Railways On the north the Eizan Electric Railway extends from Demachi Bridge to Kurama and Mount Hiéi ; on the northwest the Arashiyama line starts Shijoomiya and goes to Arashiyama and connects with the Atago Electric line. To the south Kyoto is connected with Osaka and Nara by three electric railways, i. e. Kei-han Electric, Shin (new) Keihan Electric and Nara Electric. The Kei-han line extends to the east from the terminal of Sanjō to the city of Otsu by Lake Biwa.

Rivers, Water-Power Works

Rivers Almost all the rivers that meet in the Kyoto Basin, rise in the Tamba tableland. The Hozu River, which later changes its name into the Katsura River, touches the western side of the city ; the Kamo River and the Takano River, rise in the southern part of the tableland, join together and flow across the city to empty into the Katsura River. The Uji River, starting from Lake Biwa, and the Katsura River meet in the southern suburbs of the city to form the Yodo River which flows southwestwards, through Osaka, into Osaka Bay.

Canal and Water-power Work The first Biwa Canal, completed in 1895 at the cost of ¥1,838,317, was designed for the conveyance of passengers and goods and for the supply of water power, while the second canal, completed lately at the cost of ¥4,477,805, supplies water for drinking, fire-brigades and for producing electricity, etc.

The waterworks were started in 1908 and completed in March, 1912, at the cost of ¥3,000,000 of which ¥750,000 came from the State treasury. The water is drawn from Lake Biwa by means of the second canal mentioned above and supplies water to 500,000 people. Further work, to cater to the needs of 200,000 people, is on the way. The supply in 1933-34 was 36,451,004 cubic metres to 143,044 households.

Education

Governmental and Prefectural : Kyoto Imperial University, the Third

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Higher School, Kyoto Higher Industrial Schools, Kyoto Higher Sericultural School, Kyoto Sangyo Koshujo (School of Sericulture).

Municipal schools: Kyoto Painting School.

Private schools: Ritsumeikan University, Doshisha University, Ryukoku University, Otani University, Shingon-shu University, Buddhist School, Military Arts School.

NUMBER OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES
(March 1, 1934)

	No.	Instructors	Students
Kindergartens	50	163	4,069
Elementary schools	135	2,735	119,839
Business continuation schools	41	259	2,729
Blind, deaf and dumb schools	2	46	343
Girls' high schools	17	469	9,721
Middle schools	15	403	7,465
Technical schools	10	356	7,166
Normal schools	2	96	1,054
High school	1	66	876
Colleges	15	655	5,783
Universities	7	850	10,356
Total	295	6,098	169,401

Libraries and Museums There are also in Kyoto other institutions for educational purposes as the Imperial Gift Museum, Kyoto Municipal Library, Kyoto Fine Arts Museum, etc. The libraries of the Kyoto Imperial University, of the Cabinet and of the Imperial Household Department are especially deserving of mention.

Shrines and Temples In 1933 the numbers of Buddhist temples and Shinto shrines with which Kyoto is famous were 403 shrines, 300 preaching places of sectarian Shinto sects, 1,417 Buddist temples, while Christian churches numbered 52.

Social Work

Conditions of social undertakings under municipal management in 1933-34 were:

	No. of establishments			
Public markets	11		Sales account	¥2,268,806
Housing	5	Places		249
Public baths	4	houses	Bather	(in 1932) 1,024,214
Labour exchanges	8		Cases	46,821
			Employed	12,391
Lodging houses	2		Lodgers	11,391
Lunch-rooms	2		Meals	(in 1932) 156,867

Finance

The annual revenue and expenditure, both general and special, of Kyoto amounted to:

Fiscal year	Revenue (in ¥1,000)	Expenditure
1931-32	40,548	40,444
1932-33	37,517	37,002
1933-34	26,083	36,302
1934-35	27,453	37,884

Municipal debts outstanding on May 1, 1934 totalled ¥38,436,638 or ¥37.429 per capita of population.

Nagoya

Nagoya is situated in the very centre of the main island. Facing Isé Bay on the south and bordered by the fertile plain of No-Bi on the north, the climate is always mild. Nagoya castle, with its famous golden dolphins, speaks of the glorious history of the city, but one cannot live on the past, and old and historically important as the city may

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be, she fills today a more important rôle than that of an antique, for she is a distributing and industrial centre for the middle part of Honshu, a rôle that will grow in importance as time goes on.

Area and Population

The increases of population and area during the ten years 1924-33 are shown in the following table:

On October 1	Population	No. of Households	Area (sq. km.)
1924	670,800	142,723	148.142
1925 (census)	768,558	161,141	148.142
1926	801,900	168,466	148.142
1927	835,700	175,567	148.929
1928	869,900	182,752	148.929
1929	904,700	190,063	148.929
1930 (census)	907,404	190,379	150.738
1931	934,400	198,000	151.044
1932	961,800	203,700	151.044
1933	989,600	209,700	151.044

Buildings Number of buildings in 1933 was as follows:

Stone, brick, etc. buildings	26,962
Wooden buildings	248,784
Total	275,746

Commerce and Industry

Companies and Banks At the end of 1933 the number of business corporations in Nagoya was 3,775, and that of banks 7 with 59 branches besides 23 branches of banks in other cities. At the end of 1933 deposits amounted to ¥416,163,639, outstanding loans to ¥191,504,311.

Warehouses The receipts of goods by the warehouses owned by three big warehouse companies in 1933 amounted to ¥114,779,511, delivery to ¥108,958,232, leaving the outstanding stock valued at ¥27,276,645 at the end of the year.

Domestic and Foreign Trade Foreign and home trade values in recent three years were as follows:

	EXPORTS	IMPORTS
Home trade	(in yen)	
1931	84,928,640	88,120,608
1932	86,010,396	101,770,517
1933	41,596,840	122,252,842
Foreign trade		
1931	37,910,564	64,999,153
1932	64,458,989	69,553,389
1933	89,420,348	91,178,124
Totals of home and foreign trades	(in yen)	
1931	72,839,204	153,119,761
1932	100,469,385	171,323,906
1933	131,017,188	213,430,966

In 1933, in home trade, shipments of rice, other cereals, confectioneries, cotton tissues, iron, timber, wooden board and boxes, knitted goods, ceramics and fertilizers exceeded million yen each, ceramics heading the list with ¥4,019,953; receipts of rice amounted to ¥12,733,647, sugar ¥20,993,963, lumber ¥16,173,290 and coal ¥18,587,539. In foreign trade, exports of wheat flour amounted to ¥2,309,856, beer ¥2,149,435, cotton tissues ¥34,248,139, ceramics ¥30,076,760, glass and glasswares ¥1,080,169, iron manufactures ¥1,867,775, boards for boxes and casks ¥2,245,157, and veneer boards and other planks ¥1,043,671; imports of wheat amounted to ¥4,104,925, wool ¥40,549,273, cotton ¥4,533,382, timber ¥4,750,668, coal ¥4,150,501, fodder 3,661,787 and bean cake ¥3,171,754.

Exchanges Nagoya has three exchanges, i. e. the Stock Exchange, Rice Exchange and Cotton Yarn Exchange. In 1933, the turnover of the Stock Exchange was 247,831 shares long term transaction valued

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at ¥18,079,199, 26,828,770 shares short term valued at ¥3,571,054,709. The Rice Exchange handled 5,895,800 koku while the Cotton Yarn Exchange handled 1,594,790 bales.

There are in Nagoya 11 wholesale markets, and 14 municipal and 93 private retail markets. In 1933 the 11 wholesale markets sold commodities valued at ¥25,271,361, and 107 retail markets ¥8,234,166.

Industry Commodities that are brought into the city are foodstuffs and raw materials such as rice, sugar, timber, coal, ginned cotton, iron, wool, etc., while those sent out are mainly lumber, coal, cotton piecegoods, porcelain and pottery, beer, cement and other manufactures. Nagoya has been from olden times a famous place for porcelain and pottery and in 1933 the output totalled as much as ¥17,026,689. It is only since the growth of the cotton spinning industry in the city that the value of the annual output of pottery has been challenged. The total production of the cotton spinning industry reached ¥147,488,588 in 1933. An equally significant development is that of the machine and machinery. In 1933 the total output of machine industry reached ¥62,747,161.

Number of Factories and Production Number of factories employing more than 5 operatives and productions of various industries in 1933 follow:

Kind of industries	Factories		Operatives		Output (in ¥1,000)	
	1932	1933	1932	1933	1932	1933
Textile	520	517	29,537	29,696	115,341	147,488
Metallic	197	235	2,963	3,569	6,176	10,205
Mechanical	464	575	20,277	25,553	48,575	62,747
Pottery and porcelain	124	136	7,376	9,498	11,650	17,026
Chemical	102	123	2,553	3,464	9,967	14,402
Saw mills and wood works	316	354	5,258	5,708	13,406	17,871
Printing and bookbinding	126	131	2,308	2,457	7,280	7,899
Comestibles and beverages	216	226	3,171	3,184	30,382	35,221
Gas and electric	2	3	205	234	5,478	5,486
Others	487	460	3,788	4,090	9,111	13,370
Total	2,554	2,760	77,436	87,453	252,868	331,719

Transportation

Railways Lying as it does between Kyoto, the old capital, and Tokyo, the present capital, Nagoya is known as Chukyo (middle capital). It is an important intermediate city on the Tokaido highway. The Kwansai line, which starts from Osaka, passes through Nara and Miyé prefectures and connects at Nagoya with the main Tokaido line to Tokyo. The Chuo line, which runs through Gifu, Nagano, Yamanashi and other prefectures to Tokyo, has Nagoya as its other terminus. Nagoya is thus one of the most important railway centres of Japan. The railway station and the harbour are directly connected by rail and the importance of the city as a distributor of goods is thereby enhanced. There are 8 stations, viz., Nagoya, Nagoya Minato, Atsuta, Chikusa, Ozoné, Hatta, Shiratori, and Horikawaguchi. The annual passenger traffic passing through these 8 stations is estimated at about fifteen million persons, and goods traffic amounts to approximately three million tons. The city is provided with an extensive network of electric railway lines to connect with outlying districts. The principal ones are:

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(1) Mei-Gi Railway extends to Gifu, Ichinomiya, Inuyama and Tsushima.

(2) Seto Electric Railway runs to Seto.

(3) Aichi Electric Railway to Toyohashi and Tokonamé.

(4) Shimonoishiki Electric Railway to Shimonoishiki.

In 1933 the total length of roads in Nagoya extended to 2,848 kilometres, the number of bridges 473, that of vehicles 179,244

Harbour Works Nagoya has a splendid harbour well protected by Chita Peninsula from typhoons. Construction of the harbour was started in 1896 and the third stage of the entire plan was completed in 1928 after a total outlay of ¥15,490,000. The area of the wharves is 1.52 square kilometres, with anchoring space for thirty-eight steamers of ten thousand tons or so. The fourth stage of construction was undertaken at an estimated expenditure of ¥10,120,000. When the work is finished the area of the wharves will be increased to 2.23 square kilometres and there will be anchoring space for fifty-two steamers of ten thousand tons. At present direct trade is carried on with the American continent, Europe, China, the South Sea Islands, Australia and Africa.

Education and Social Work

Social Work Social undertakings in 1933-34, were as follows :

	Establishments	Beneficiaries
Maternity hospitals	5	208
Municipal houses to let	269	227 households
Public lodging houses	4	182,644
Public pawnshops	4	(Loan ¥162,511 to 37,380 persons)
Intelligence offices	4	20,333
Labour exchanges	3	637,201
Hospitals : Ordinary	1	481,817
Special	2	2,966
Establishments for free medical treatments	4	128,546
Municipal "Tozanryo" for poor relief	1	757
Municipal retail markets	14	sold ¥2,678,492

Educational Facilities In March, 1933 the number of schools and pupils in Nagoya was 248 and 171,389 respectively classified as follows : 34 kindergartens with 3,135 children; 104 elementary schools with 135,958 pupils ; 63 secondary schools with 25,359 pupils ; 9 collegiate schools with 3,311 students, 2 blind and deaf-mute schools with 289 pupils ; and 36 miscellaneous schools with 3,337 students.

Among the above mentioned schools those belonging to the municipality were :

Kind of schools	No.	Classes	Instructors	Pupils
Elementary schools	99	2,411	2,675	134,277
Girls' high schools	3	—	85	2,624
Commercial schools	3	—	101	2,512
Technical school	1	—	29	433
Business continuation schools	29	—	395	8,397
Kindergartens	4	22	24	577

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The annual revenue and expenditure of Nagoya city has shown a marked increase of late as it is clear by the following table :

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Year	Revenue	Expenditure		
		Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
1926-27	¥10,131,031	¥5,996,229	¥4,064,042	¥10,079,271
1927-28	10,415,166	6,566,182	3,788,203	10,354,385
1928-29	19,438,161	7,275,835	11,663,553	18,939,388
1929-30	25,390,085	7,034,796	18,219,390	25,254,186
1930-31	31,477,355	6,878,659	23,545,976	30,424,635
1931-32	37,963,011	7,126,598	28,946,961	36,073,559
1932-33	45,421,218	7,163,058	36,644,010	43,807,068
1933-34	84,689,082	7,578,021	76,511,764	84,089,785

Municipal Loans At the end of March, 1933, the total indebtedness of Nagoya city amounted to ¥83,602,977 or ¥84 per capita of population.

Yokohama

General

History Yokohama, in the Bunroku Era, about 1587, was a hamlet of twelve families and by the time it became an open port, July 1, 1859, it was only a small fishing village of one hundred families or 350 people. The real growth began with the arrival of the foreigners. The commercial treaties Japan entered into with the United States of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Great Britain, and France stipulated that Kanagawa should be an open port, because it stood on the open harbour nearest Tokyo, then known as Yedo and the seat of the Shogunate Government, but as that village was already very crowded the Tokugawa Shogunate opened up the village of Yokohama instead.

In the beginning four streets were laid out, but as more and more Western, Chinese and Japanese merchants gathered there the area was quickly extended. The population in 1877 was 30,000, five years later it had grown to 52,000, and five years after that there were more than 94,000 in the town. At the end of September, 1932, the population was 661,500. Yokohama received the status of a municipality on April 1, 1889. In 1901, the once thriving port of Kanagawa and other adjoining villages and towns were absorbed by the newly risen Yokohama, and in 1911 and 1927, further extensions took place.

Quake and Rehabilitation Yokohama and suburbs suffered severely in the great earthquake and fire which occurred on September 1, 1923. Practically the whole town was reduced to ruins and ashes, but with the untiring efforts of its citizens, together with generous support from outside, the reconstruction of the town was completed, as originally planned, within six years of the disaster. On April 22, 1929, His Majesty the Emperor honoured the city with a visit of inspection, and the following day the municipality celebrated the completion of its programme of reconstruction which, in truth, was the creation of a new city out of a pile of cinders.

On April 1, 1927, two adjoining towns and seven villages, with a population of 115,757, were annexed to the municipality, and on October 1 of the same year the whole city was re-divided into five wards; Tsurumi, Kanagawa, Naka, Hodogaya and Isogo. By that time the construction of the gigantic breakwaters, the reclamation at Namamugi and Koyasu and the extension

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of the waterworks was completed, and the perpetual land leases were being bought back by the municipality one after another.

Location Yokohama is situated in the south-eastern part of Honshu, the main island of Japan, on the western shore of the Bay of Tokyo about 22 miles from the entrance to the bay, in latitude 35° 27′ N., longitude 139° 38′ E. It is the seat of government of Kanagawa prefecture, of which it is also the largest population centre. It is surrounded by hills on which the better class residential districts are located.

Climate Yokohama's location on the Bay of Tokyo serves to modify the heat of summer, the nights being generally cool and comfortable. In the summer months there is an absence of rainfall. Rain is most abundant in June and September, the two rainy seasons of the year, at which times the humidity is trying, but never so bad that the climate is unbearable. In winter the sky is clear and the atmosphere crisp and invigorating. In February there is a short season of damp cold during which there are occasional snowfalls. From March spring begins, with bright sunny days and frequent strong winds. During the summer months typhoons are to be expected, but Yokohama harbour is protected from their violence.

Area and Population At the end of 1934 the area of Yokohama was 133.875 square kilometres. The total number of population in October, 1934, was estimated at 703,900.

INCREASE OF POPULATION OF YOKOHAMA

1930—1934

October 1 of	Men	Women	Total	Households
1930 (census)	317,084	297,624	614,708	134,320
1931 (estimate)	331,300	309,500	640,800	140,338
1932 („)	341,500	320,200	661,500	144,923
1933 („)	351,500	331,100	682,600	149,531
1934 („)	361,700	342,200	703,900	154,181

Foreign Residents The number of foreigners residing in Yokohama at the end of December, 1922, was 7,492. This figure was greatly reduced in consequence of the great earthquake and fire of September, 1923, in which all the foreign consulates were reduced to ashes and many of their staffs lost their lives. The number of foreigners at one time decreased to 376, but they gradually returned and by the end of December, 1933, the number had grown to 4,000.

The following table shows the nationalities of foreigners according to sex at the end of 1934:

FOREIGN RESIDENTS IN YOKOHAMA

(1934)

	No. of houses	Men	Women	Total
British	257	298	293	591
American	140	179	133	312
German	85	103	78	181
French	40	52	51	103
Italian	12	11	17	28
Swiss	28	37	25	62
Chinese	809	1,967	1,069	3,036
Others	177	225	176	401
Total	1,548	2,872	1,842	4,714

Commerce

Exchanges During the one year from December, 1933, to November, 1934, sales of the Yokohama Raw Silk Exchange amounted to ¥258,994,806 while deliveries amounted to ¥5,266,300. Sales of the Yoko-

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hama Stock Exchange amounted to ¥20,426,608 and deliveries, ¥1,979,090.

At the end of 1934 the stock in warehouses amounted to ¥139,683,902, gaining ¥15,000,000 over the previous year.

Banks At the end of 1933 the number of banks and branches was 50, i. e. 6 banks, 19 branches thereof, and 25 branches of banks in other cities. Their paid-up capital amounted to ¥108,547,500; deposits ¥360,091,000; advances and loans ¥219,277,000.

Companies At the end of 1934 the number of business companies was 374 with the paid-up capital of ¥301,045,000.

Warehouses At the end of 1934 the stock in the warehouses in Yokohama amounted to ¥139,683,902.

Foreign Trade In 1934 exports from Yokohama amounted to ¥490,201,000 and imports to ¥537,316,000, and for the first time in recent years imports exceeded exports as it is shown below.

FOREIGN TRADE THROUGH YOKOHAMA

(in ¥1,000)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Excess of
1930	449,838	392,838	842,676	ex. 57,000
1931	370,662	305,637	676,299	„ 65,025
1932	400,659	355,358	756,017	„ 45,031
1933	500,888	456,354	957,242	„ 44,534
1934	490,201	537,316	1,027,517	im. 47,115

VALUE OF PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES

EXPORTS

(in ¥1,000)

Articles	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Wheat flour	12,205	6,557	11,011	22,701	19,805
Canned crab	12,872	1,772	10,377	17,726	13,945
Raw silk	290,794	250,694	262,252	274,691	204,640
Silk crêpe	9,455	7,335	7,671	13,935	20,652
Electric lamps	3,892	4,383	8,026	7,750	6,931
Toys	6,567	6,013	9,360	15,184	17,498

IMPORTS

(in ¥1,000)

Articles	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Wheat	25,752	17,103	26,809	27,414	25,040
Crude oil and heavy oil	12,912	14,752	21,568	29,305	38,193
Rubber	3,205	2,411	3,267	5,705	12,571
Cotton	25,486	21,894	31,601	41,898	48,601
Wool	14,372	13,959	19,584	39,595	43,763
Coal	7,324	7,447	7,334	9,145	10,845
Automobiles and parts	9,227	10,389	9,226	8,988	19,073
Lumber	10,907	13,044	10,907	11,819	11,169
Oil cake	8,580	11,126	8,580	10,092	9,703

Electric and Gas Supply The gas supply is owned by the municipality. In 1933-34 the total volume of gas supply reached 18,839,661 cubic metres. The number of spouts at the end of November, 1934, was 102,480.

Electricity is supplied by the Tokyo Electric Company, In November, 1934, the number of electric lamps was 616,650, and the same on the streets was 72,647. The sum paid by the citizens to the company in 1933-34 was ¥4,533,720.

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Industry

Factories and Production The statistics of factories and production for 1933 follow:

FACTORIES AND PRODUCTION IN YOKOHAMA

(1933)

Kind	Factories	Workers	Production (in yen)
Spinning	408	6,654	13,454,019
Metallic	155	2,559	23,152,407
Machine and machinery	509	12,983	67,318,065
Ceramics	41	945	5,710,118
Chemical	129	3,451	48,061,332
Wood works	488	2,409	5,111,024
Printing and bookbinding	117	741	1,698,047
Comestibles	1,829	5,718	60,709,453
Gas and electric	4	378	11,144,054
Miscellaneous	901	3,714	6,378,788
Total	4,572	39,552	242,737,379
1932	4,240	33,906	169,745,432
1931	4,489	30,973	170,880,870
1930	4,730	29,809	189,102,463
1929	5,903	40,066	206,438,349

Note: The table includes smaller factories which have operatives less than 5.

Transportation

Ships Entered Yokohama The total tonnage of vessels which entered the port of Yokohama in 1933 reached 18,585,967 tons. Details follow:

SHIPS ENTERED YOKOHAMA

(1930—1933)

	Japanese		Foreign		Total
	No.	Tonnage	No.	Tonnage	Tonnage
1933	67,967	13,879,378	883	4,706,589	18,585,967
1932	58,506	12,904,753	824	4,565,959	17,470,712
1931	65,800	12,905,944	919	4,804,401	17,710,245
1930	73,962	12,803,753	961	4,854,489	17,658,242

Railway Passengers In 1933 the Government railway passenger who left and arrived at Yokohama, Sakuragicho, Tsurumi, Higashi-kanagawa and Hodogaya stations numbered 38,651,363.

Electric Tramways Tramways were first installed in July, 1904, by a private company and later were purchased by the municipality. There are now over 50 kilometres of lines and carried 39,589,471 persons in 1933. There are three private tramway companies attending to the suburban services, viz., the Kei-hin Electric Tramway, the Tokyo-Yokohama Electric Ry., and the Jinchu Electric Ry. The number of passengers of these private tramways for 1933 was 15,482,871.

Miscellaneous In 1934 the length of roads in Yokohama was 2,066.769 km. and the number of bridges 529.

In March, 1934, the total number of vehicles was 92,920, of which automobiles numbered 1,359 while bicycles totalled 73,062.

Education

Schools and Colleges On March 1, 1934, there were 70 elementary schools, of which 66 were maintained

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by the municipality. The number of children at these schools was 94,133.

There were 21 kindergartens with 841 children.

The number of middle grade, higher, and special schools and their pupils follows :

	No.	Students or pupils
Middle schools	6	3,972
Girls' high schools	12	6,103
Technical schools	9	4,106
Business continuation schools	36	4,467
Blind, deaf and mute schools	3	241
Colleges :		
Governmental	2	986
Municipal	1	298
Private	2	1,246
Total	5	2,530
Prefectural normal School	1	244

Young Men's Training Institutes The number of these institutes follows :

Municipal	30	3,372
Private	2	90

Libraries In 1933-34 the library statistics were as follows :

	No.	Books	Visitors
Prefectural	1	9,774	2,712
Municipal	1	36,254	235,309
Private	1	16,686	6,758
Total	3	62,714	244,779

Religion In 1933 the number of Shinto shrines was 151, Buddhist temples 199, and Christian churches 30.

Social Works In 1933 the conditions of social works in Yokohama were as follows :

	Establishments		Beneficiaries
Child protection	5		815
Employment exchanges	8	cases	691,278
		employed	662,450
Lunch halls	3		28,719
Pawnshops	21	Loans	¥ 642,638
Housing houses	2,055	households	1,619
Lodging house	1		19,031
Poof relief			2,416

Finance

Revenue and Expenditure The ordinary revenue and expenditure of the city of Yokohama in 1929 to 1933, amounted respectively to :

1930—1931	¥16,671,428
1931—1932	15,182,861
1932—1933	16,540,066
1933—1934 (estimate)	15,260,789
1934—1935 („)	14,179,844

In 1934-35 budget of Yokohama the total amount of ordinary and special expenditures was estimated at ¥26,392,406. Itemized details follow :

Items	Amount in yen	Percentage
Municipal office	939,184	3.65
Education	2,811,327	10.65
Industriy	144,636	0.55
Hygiene	1,118,390	4.24
Social works	1,135,539	4.30
Public works	1,010,679	3.83
Loans	12,418,869	47.05
Miscellaneous	1,048,431	3.97
Water works	2,216,880	8.40
Gas	1,048,143	3.97
Electricity	2,500,328	9.47
Total	26,392,406	100.00

Bonded Indebtedness At the end of March, 1934, the total bonded indebtedness of Yokohama city amounted to ¥158,570,246.

Kobé

General

Geographical Position and Area The city of Kobé lies on the south-west coast of Hyogo prefecture in the Kansai district of Honshu, situated at 135° 5′–15′ E. long. and 34° 38′–45′ N. lat. The greatest length from west to east is 14.47 kilometres and the greatest breadth from north to south is 13.5 kilometres, the total area being 83.06 square kilometres, of which about 60 per cent. is occupied by mountains and hills, and the rest by farms and the city proper. The form of the city is like a long

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band, and is divided into eight wards known at Nada, Fukiai, Kobé, Hyogo, Soto, Minato, Hayashida, and Suma.

Climate The city of Kobé has an exhilarating climate at all seasons of the year on account of the advantage of its geographical position. It is backed by the Rokko mountain-chain and faces the Chinu Sea in Osaka Bay. The average temperature is 15° C (59° F). During summer the temperature sometimes runs up to 37° 6′ C (99.6° F), but the average temperature of August and September is 26° 2′ C (79.2° F). In winter the thermometer sometimes ranges about 5° 8′ C below zero (21.5° F), but snow is rarely seen. The highest temperature in 1932 was registered as 37.6 C (98°6′ F), and the lowest temperature 3.1 below zero (26°4′ F) the average of the year being 15°C (59° F). The precipitation in the same year was 1,497 mm.

Population The following are the results of the national census for the year 1930:

Families	178,325
Population	787,616
Males	406,348
Females	381,268

As compared with the results of the general census taken in 1925, the population has increased 143,404 (18.2%), and the families 26,820 (14.4%) during the interval of five years. The increase was mostly made up by the annexation of three adjacent villages on the eastern part of the city. The average number of members per family were 4.42, and the percentage of sexes was 100 females to 106.6 males. The estimated families and population on October 1, 1933 were as follows:

Families	193,740
Population	853,800
Males	438,100
Females	415,700
Per family	4.4

Foreign Residents According to the statistics taken by the police office of Kobé, at the end of 1933, the total number of foreign residents in Kobé was 5,711.

Houses With the exception of public and municipal buildings and the houses of foreign residents, the total number of houses in the city was registered as 86,615 at the end of 1927, among which one-storied houses numbered 44,473, two-storied ones 41,185, and three-storied ones 957. There were 84,507 buildings of wood, 98 per cent. of the total number; of brick 1,651; of concrete 402; and of stone 11.

Waterworks The waterworks were at first designed in 1909 to supply 3 cu. ft. per capita a day to 250,000 inhabitants, but the plan was later altered to provide for 100,000 families, 25 cu. ft. a day. The work lasted until 1923 and cost ¥12,858,720, of which state grants amounted to ¥3,403,000. In 1926, the municipality increased its water supply by laying pipes in the eastern suburbs to draw water from the Chikari pond behind Mt. Rokko. In 1932 the city supplied 36,113,679 cubic metres to 147,787 households and other uses.

Police Stations The total number of police stations in the city at the end of 1932 was 9. Police boxes numbered 181, and policemen 1,810.

Commerce and Industry

Movement of Commodities The movement of commodities through the Kobé harbour and railway stations in 1932 within Japan proper and Chosen was as follows:

	Tonnage (in 1,000 tons)	Value (in yen) Japan proper	Chosen
Outgoing	4,198	357,077,942	20,136,409
Incoming	7,672	296,007,300	30,134,564
Total	11,870	653,085,242	50,270,973

Foreign Trade The grand total of exports and imports in 1933 was

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¥1,291,661,000, showing an excess of ¥9,418,000 of exports over imports.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1933

(in 1,000 yen)

	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1929	701,893	882,331	1,584,206	im. 180,420
1930	523,172	563,649	1,086,821	„ 40,476
1931	409,011	457,740	866,751	„ 48,729
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	„ 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418

Imports and exports of important commodities the value of which reached over ¥10,000,000 follow:

EXPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Raw silk	207,561	125,853	104,700	121,114	16,210
Habutaé	13,744	9,338	13,169	19,478	19,911
Silk crepe	18,183	13,682	12,311	15,088	28,169
Satin (Shusu)	4,092	3,479	4,885	8,063	11,759
Fuji silk	22,147	13,725	6,607	10,842	11,900
Striped cotton fabric	3,415	2,083	14,827	13,571	17,145
Figured cotton fabric	34,687	27,749	9,473	11,446	17,716
Calico	32,505	28,742	16,309	18,328	19,993
Bleached calico	2,710	4,462	5,177	10,886	14,840
Printed cotton	2,118	2,275	3,243	7,452	11,635
Knit underwares	18,985	14,212	10,653	10,652	13,655
Caps and hats	15,973	8,228	9,462	4,476	7,440
Foot wears	—	—	9,422	10,543	10,976

IMPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Wheat	11,253	6,300	6,342	8,735	5,946
Sulphate of Ammonia	19,159	10,614	8,018	3,488	5,246
Rubber	23,618	12,486	8,748	9,826	18,403
Cotton	391,821	239,025	187,294	279,526	336,839
Hemp	16,011	8,955	6,917	7,885	10,522
Wool	31,832	24,015	33,899	22,975	28,331
Bean cake	10,547	8,777	5,928	4,574	6,432
Woollen yarn	16,685	12,986	11,287	4,095	2,174
Paper pulp	9,147	8,570	8,192	11,840	19,947
Spinning machines	12,821	6,037	3,041	5,516	1,888

Warehousing At the end of 1933 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 8 and the area covered by the warehouses was 137,706 tsubo. In 1933, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥617,400,000, while ¥588,941,000 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end were ¥143,309,000 which showed a gain of ¥28,803,000 over the previous year.

Electricity and Gas At the end of 1933 the number of electric lamps in the city was 823,393 and electric motors 6,275. In the same year the municipality which undertakes the electric business got ¥10,838,373 from it.

In 1933, gas was supplied to 96,970 families with 244,971 spouts.

Banks and Business Firms At the end of 1933 the total number of banks and branches was 68, i.e. 3

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banks, 15 branches thereof, and 50 branches of banks in other cities including 7 branches of savings banks. The deposits of ordinary banks and branches amounted to ¥5,334,753,000 and advances and loans ¥3,511,112,000.

In 1932 the clearing house turned over 2,412,043 bills with the value of ¥3,520,509,000, gaining over the previous year 30,009 bills and ¥337,698,000 respectively.

At the end of 1933 the number of companies was 2,833 with the paid-up capital amounting to ¥602,743,000.

Factories and their Workers At the end of 1933 there were 858 factories. The total number of the staff was 4,914, that of workers 48,227, and the total production was valued at ¥245,292,369.

Transportation

Roads At the end of 1933 the total length of roads in the city reached 685.8 km. gaining 7.2 km. as compared with the previous year.

Sea Transportation In 1933 the number of ships entered the Kobé harbour was 25,687 with 44,093,884 gross tons, of which registered tonnage was 25,665,703 tons.

Of the total number 21,734 were vessels sailing home waters and 3,953 on international courses. The foreign vessels numbered 1,057, Great Britain heading the list with 490 (2,743,042 tons), followed by the U.S.A. with 216 (1,469,602 tons).

VESSELS ENTERED KOBÉ

1930–1933

	Number of vessels	Registered tonnage
1930	23,891	24,915,302
1931	24,300	24,967,356
1932	24,804	24,975,154
1933	25,687	25,665,703

Vehicles On March 31, 1934, the total number of vehicles of various kinds was 87,898. The itemized table follows:

March 31 of	Rikisha	Carts	Automobiles	Autocycles	Bicycles
1931	1,046	15,336	1,549	684	65,379
1932	801	12,527	1,549	771	68,847
1933	654	12,151	1,584	862	71,609
1934	489	10,792	1,598	989	74,030

Railways In 1932 the total number of passengers who left from and arrived at 9 stations in Kobé was 21,070,516.

Electric Tramways The tramways within the city limits are operated by the municipality, the total open mileage being 30.798 km. at the end of 1932. Attending to the suburban service, there are private companies, the Sanyo Electric Tramway (Hyogo-Himeji), Han-Shin Electric Ry., (Kobé-Osaka), Han-Shin Express Electric Ry., (Kobé–Osaka), and the Shin-Yu Electric Railway (Kobé–Arima). Han-shin Kokudo Ry. was laid along the national road between Osaka and Kobé in 1927 and opened business in 1932, forming a parallel line to the state railway.

Education, Religion and Social Works

Schools In 1933-34 the number of elementary schools was 75, including 67 municipal schools, with 2,430 teachers and 105,554 pupils. Middle schools numbered 5, of which 3 were prefectural schools and 2 were private schools, with 176 teachers and 4,599 boys. The number of girls' high schools was 10, and pupils 7,491.

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The number of business schools was 27, of which 9 were commercial, 3 were technical, 4 were business and 11 were business continuation. The total number of teachers was 633 and students 15,165. There is a government university of commerce and a technical college. In 1932-33 Kobé expended ¥4,678,373 for educational purposes.

Shrines, Temples and Churches At the end of 1933 there were 100 Shinto shrines, 152 Buddhist temples, 397 Tenrikyo and Shinto churches, 254 Buddhist halls, and 55 Christian churches.

Social Welfare Work At the end of 1933 municipal establishments for social welfare work were as follows :

Markets, 12 ; cheap eating-houses, 6 ; employment exchanges, 6 ; public nurseries, 2 ; lodging-houses, 5 ; boys' consultation offices, 1 ; municipal dwelling-houses, 3 places ; municipal pawnshops, 1 ; relief house, 1 ; peoples' hospitals, 4 ; sanatorium, 1.

Finance

In 1932-33 Kobé received ¥40,362,920 and expended ¥41,566,316. The ways and means of the municipality for past 5 years follow :

	Revenue	Expenditure
1930-31	¥44,818,597	¥44,991,844
1931-32	39,993,340	46,897,568
1932-33	40,362,920	41,566,316
1933-34 (estimate)	38,851,816	40,480,196
1934-35 (estimate)	49,306,906	50,161,680

The total amount of the city loans standing at the end of March, 1935, was ¥108,915,623. The loans and the sum borrowed in cash in the fiscal year 1934-35 was ¥113,041,600 while the sum refunded was ¥4,125,977.

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CHAPTER XL

CHOSEN (KOREA)

General Description

Chosen, a peninsula extending southward from the north-eastern side of the continent of Asia, is washed on its eastern and western coasts by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea respectively, and borders Manchoukuo and the Maritime Province of Siberia on the north, from which it is separated by the two rivers, the Yalu or Oryokko and the Tumen. Between the upper waters of these two rivers there is a mountain range which separates and turns them in opposite directions, the former flowing through Antung into the Yellow Sea. On the south the peninsula faces the Island of Kyushu and the western coast of Honshu, across the Korean Straits, with the islands of Tsushima and Iki about midway. It lies between the parallels of 33° 06′ and 43° north and 124° 11′ and 130° 56′ east, having a total area of 220,740.72 square kilometres which is about one-third of the area of the whole empire.

Surrounded thus by sea on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line extending in all to 8,674 kilometres. It has many good harbours on the south and west coasts, such as Fusan, Reisui, Mokpo, Jinsen and Chinnampo. The tides rise far higher on the west coast than on the east, the difference between the highest and the lowest tide-mark on the former reaching over ten metres, while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a metre. The country is as a whole mountainous, the eastern side steep and rocky, but sloping down more gently on the western side toward fertile plains traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, Kin and Rakuto. The northern half of the peninsula is comparatively level and fit for agricultural work, whilst the southern half is rich in timber and minerals indicating good possibilities for future industrial development. The climate in Chosen is continental running to extremities of both heat and cold, the spring and autumn seasons being very short though highly delightful. One needs hardly add that the climate is decidedly rigorous in the north and milder in the south. Moreover, the eastern coast has on the whole a milder climate than the western, the average temperature being some 2° C. higher, except in the middle of summer.

Population

According to the report of the Ministry of Overseas Affairs, the population of Chosen in 1933 was as follows :

POPULATION OF CHOSEN (Dec. 31, 1933)

Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. Chinese)	Total	Density per sq. km.
Keiki	138,012	2,024,387	8,736	2,171,135	169.4
North Chusei	8,036	866,734	536	875,306	117.7
South Chusei	24,477	1,365,815	1,392	1,391,684	171.8
North Zenra	33,619	1,415,814	1,709	1,451,142	169.5
South Zenra	41,156	2,240,982	1,067	2,283,205	164.3

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¥1,291,661,000, showing an excess of ¥9,418,000 of exports over imports.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF KOBÉ IN 1929-1933

(in 1,000 yen)

	Exports	Imports	Grand total	Excess of
1929	701,893	882,331	1,584,206	im. 180,420
1930	523,172	563,649	1,086,821	„ 40,476
1931	409,011	457,740	866,751	„ 48,729
1932	499,303	535,647	1,034,950	„ 36,344
1933	650,539	641,122	1,291,661	ex. 9,418

Imports and exports of important commodities the value of which reached over ¥10,000,000 follow:

EXPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Raw silk	207,561	125,853	104,700	121,114	16,210
Habutaé	13,744	9,338	13,169	19,478	19,911
Silk crepe	18,183	13,632	12,311	15,088	28,169
Satin (Shusu)	4,092	3,479	4,885	8,063	11,759
Fuji silk	22,147	13,725	6,607	10,842	11,900
Striped cotton fabric	3,415	2,083	14,827	13,571	17,145
Figured cotton fabric	34,637	27,749	9,473	11,446	17,716
Calico	32,505	28,742	16,309	18,328	19,993
Bleached calico	2,710	4,462	5,177	10,886	14,840
Printed cotton	2,113	2,275	3,243	7,452	11,635
Knit underwares	18,985	14,212	10,653	10,652	13,655
Caps and hats	15,973	8,228	9,462	4,476	7,440
Foot wears	—	—	9,422	10,543	10,976

IMPORTS (in ¥ 1,000)

	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Wheat	11,253	6,300	6,342	8,735	5,946
Sulphate of Ammonia	19,159	10,614	8,018	3,488	5,246
Rubber	23,618	12,486	8,748	9,826	18,403
Cotton	391,821	239,025	187,294	279,526	336,839
Hemp	16,011	8,955	6,917	7,885	10,522
Wool	31,832	24,015	33,899	22,975	28,331
Bean cake	10,547	8,777	5,928	4,574	6,432
Woollen yarn	16,685	12,986	11,287	4,095	2,174
Paper pulp	9,147	8,570	8,192	11,840	19,947
Spinning machines	12,821	6,037	3,041	5,516	1,888

Warehousing At the end of 1933 number of principal warehouse companies in Kobé was 8 and the area covered by the warehouses was 137,706 tsubo. In 1933, goods received by these warehouses were valued at ¥617,400,000, while ¥588,941,000 worth of goods were delivered. Goods stored at the year end were ¥143,309,000 which showed a gain of ¥28,803,000 over the previous year.

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Province	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign (incl. Chinese)	Total	Density per sq. km.
North Keisho	49,303	2,296,943	1,252	2,347,498	123.6
South Keisho	89,284	2,033,104	871	2,123,259	172.6
Kokai	18,186	1,497,919	2,391	1,518,446	90.8
South Heian	34,228	1,306,129	3,573	1,343,930	90.0
North Heian	20,218	1,523,460	12,084	1,555,762	54.7
Kogen	12,180	1,430,556	587	1,443,323	55.0
South Kankyo	38,748	1,500,016	4,442	1,543,206	48.2
North Kankyo	35,607	703,732	3,986	743,325	36.5
Total	543,104	20,791,321	42,626	20,791,321	94.2
1932	528,452	20,037,273	39,151	19,599,876	93.3
1925	424,740	18,543,326	47,460	19,015,528	86.1
1920	347,850	16,916,078	25,031	17,288,989	78.3
1910	171,543	13,128,780	12,694	13,313,017	60.3

Keijo (Seoul), the old capital of Korea and now the seat of the Government-General, had at the end of 1933 a population of 382,491, of which the Japanese numbered 106,782 and the others 5,119.

The following is the classification of the population of Chosen according to occupation :

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION (Dec. 31, 1933)

Occupation	Japanese	Koreans	Foreign	Total
Agriculture, forestry, stock-raising, fishery, etc.	49,239	16,341,220	8,923	16,395,382
Industry	68,888	431,413	8,056	508,357
Commerce and transportation	151,787	1,226,215	18,892	1,396,894
Public service and profession	230,185	600,360	1,862	832,357
Miscellaneous	21,746	1,256,112	4,612	1,282,470
Others	21,809	350,271	282	371,861
Total	453,104	20,205,591	42,626	20,791,321

Origin of the Korean Race

Though no conclusive opinion has ever been given as to the origin of the Korean people, it is evident that they are of the Mongolian family, and it is generally admitted that their cradle was in the neighbourhood of Changchun, Manchoukuo, in and around the place now called Petna on the River Sungari. It seems, therefore, but natural that they should have a profound liking to emigrate and settle in those parts of Manchoukuo. From various historic relics it appears that they were of the same stock with the Manchurians and those Japanese dwelling in the western half of Japan. In course of time much intermingling of blood seems to have taken place among the Koreans and the Chinese ever since Chinese colonies were first established along the north-western coast. But the latter did not supersede the native Korean race to any appreciable degree. This is clearly seen from the fact that the two races today have a distinctly different facial appearance, though both alike have black straight hair, dark oblique eyes and a tinge of bronze in the skin. The Korean language belongs to the Turanian group ; it is poly-syllabic and possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as Eunmonn. In grammatical construction it is almost identical with Japanese, though in sound and vocabulary it is quite dissimilar. From all these and other facts and evidences it is beyond any doubt that these two peoples were akin to one another from very remote times.

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Administrative Organization

Chosen is administered by the Government-General which was inaugurated on August 29, 1910, and has 8 main administrative offices, viz., (1) Governor-General's Secretariat, (2) Home Affairs Bureau, (3) Financial Affairs Bureau, (4) Industrial Bureau, (5) Judicial Bureau, (6) Educational Bureau, (7) Police Bureau, and (8) Forestry Bureau. There are also 5 affiliated offices which are (1) Communications Bureau, (2) Railway Bureau, (3) Monopoly Bureau, (4) Customs Bureau and (5) Tax Bureau.

Position of Koreans For a number of years since the establishment of the Government-General in Chosen all Koreans in government service were placed under different regulations from those applying to Japanese officials. Gradually, however, almost all discriminative features in treatment and salary have been wiped out and in October, 1919, Korean officials were finally placed on the same footing as the Japanese and came under the same regulations. Moreover, prior to March, 1920, in the courts Korean judges were allowed to try only those civil cases in which both parties were Koreans and the criminal cases where the accused were Koreans, but now they are allowed to try all cases in which people of any nationality may be involved. Moreover, prior to 1919 the freedom of the press had been rigidly restricted. No newspaper except the few already in existence was allowed to be issued. Now, however, more daily papers are issued, and the restrictions placed on the holding of public meetings have been partly removed.

The Central Council As the highest consultative body there is the Central Council which is convened by the Governor-General several times a year to discuss such measures as may be presented by him. This Central Council consists of 5 advisors, 65 councillors, 1 chairman and 1 vice-chairman. One of the characteristic principles by which the Japanese administration in Chosen is guided is respect for the old Korean customs and manners, and the work of investigating these old customs so dear to the native people is entrusted to the Central Council. Koreans attach great importance to their ancestral tombs as a form of ancient worship, and the selection of a burial site is always made with great care. This, coupled with their age-old superstition that the fate of one's family would be greatly affected by the position of its grave, has resulted in the devastation of a large area of land; wherefore the Government-General in 1912 issued an order requiring all people to use the public cemeteries for the disposal of their dead. This order, however, was revised in 1919 so as to allow the people to follow their old customs with only slight limitations set.

Finance

Budgetary System Introduced Under the old Korean régime there was no clear distinction between the court and the government in the use of money collected from the people in the form of various taxes. Moreover, most of the state revenue was from the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, and granting of concessions of various sorts. Accordingly, therefore, there was no means of framing a yearly budget. This state of affairs, more than anything else, called for speedy remedies. When, therefore, a Japanese financial adviser, Baron Megata, took up his duties in August, 1904, his first task was to bring order out of this financial confusion and his work was quickly done during

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the protectorate period. He drew up necessary plans for introducing the modern budgetary system, and the gold standard with a central bank to act as a state treasury and empowered with a right to issue convertible notes. A rigid taxation system was brought into existence, with the burdens of the people more equitably distributed. The former method of tax collection which gave rise to many serious abuses was quickly corrected. All the monopolies, such as that of ginseng, were turned over from the Imperial court to the government, and a clear distinction was marked between the finances of the court and of the state.

Japan in Chosen Upon the establishment of the Japanese hegemony in Chosen the Government-General took on its shoulders the heavy task of developing the country in every possible way so as to promote the welfare of the Korean people to the utmost extent. It necessitated starting new enterprises and increased expenditure, and the government outlay for the year 1911 reached over ¥48,740,000, an amount twice that of the preceding fiscal year. Since that time the tendency had always been upward, till it reached ¥246,852,843 in 1929, the highest mark ever seen in the budgetary history of Chosen. In 1930 a slight decrease was seen; the figures fell to ¥239,729,783, with a further slight reduction in each year until it reached ¥219,132,671 in 1932. Mention must be made of the fact that the determination of the Government-General to do its utmost for the economic development of the country and the promotion of the welfare of the people is shared by the Japanese government at home, for the latter is yearly advancing a subsidy of more than ¥15,000,000 from the national treasury to the Government-General.

The budget again took an upward turn in 1933, and in 1935 it reached the highest mark of ¥288,388,664. Below is given a budget table showing the trend of steady expansion of expenditure:

BUDGETS 1911—1935

	Revenue yen	Expenditure yen
1911	43,741,282	48,741,782
1920	124,798,469	114,816,860
1921	162,474,208	162,474,208
1922	158,124,617	158,124,617
1923	146,007,225	146,007,225
1924	142,700,159	142,780,159
1925	178,082,382	178,082,382
1926	194,487,914	194,487,914
1927	210,910,111	210,910,111
1928	222,746,979	222,746,979
1929	246,852,843	246,852,843
1930	239,729,783	239,729,383
1931	238,923,617	238,923,617
1932	219,182,671	219,132,671
1933	231,938,384	231,938,384
1934	262,978,776	262,978,776
1935	288,348,664	288,348,664

BUDGET FOR 1935—1936

REVENUE

Ordinary revenue	yen
Taxes	53,366,263
Stamp receipts	15,172,736
Receipts from government undertakings and properties	169,239,951
Miscellaneous	2,819,892
Total	240,463,427
Extraordinary revenue	
Proceeds from the sales of government properties	311,603
Contrfbutions	6,000
Temporary profit tax	323,595
Grants from home national treasury, etc.	12,925,822
Loans (public or otherwise)	24,000,000
Part payment for the improvement of rivers and harbours	217,350
Brought forward	10,200,867
Total	47,885,237
Grand total	288,348,664

EXPENDITURE

Ordinary expenditure	yen
Chosen Shrine	70,000
Prince Li's household	1,800,000
Government-General offices	4,247,582
Courts and Deposit bureau	3,702,971
Prisons	5,226,199
Provincial offices	26,736,923
Keijo Imperial University	1,808,212
Schools and museum	1,527,875
Police training school	2,117

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Ordinary expenditure	yen
Agricultural experimental station	542,338
Cattle disease serum manufacturing plant	249,013
Central experimental institute	103,379
Breeding horse and sheep pastures	59,423
Cereals inspection office	1,694,621
Fisheries experimental station	175,303
Forestry " "	150,733
Monopoly office	28,471,532
Railways	69,334,543
Forestry bureau	5,755,525
Communication	14,823,730
Taxation superintendence and tax offices	3,963,395
Customs office	1,357,802
Social works	260,455
Leper sanatorium	488,453
National debt readjustment fund	27,027,451
Pension	6,933,409
Miscellaneous	432,542
Reserve	2,500,000
Total	209,645,526
Extraordinary expenditure	
Pension for the old Korean soldiers	43,440
Forests and fields investigation committee	50,324
Investigation and experimentation	931,314
Subsidies	22,096,199
Buildings and repairs	4,427,054
Civil engineering works	12,053,152
Railways	24,000,000
Protection against shifting sands	600,000
Adjustment of the cadastre	87,145
Encouragement of Korean language	58,988
Improvement of land	5,139,251
Disposition of state property	170,276
Customs at the frontier	50,630
Temporary special allowance	826,239
Measures for the Koreans abroad	1,600,000
Compilation of the Korean history	80,243
Temporary supervision	664,491
Supervision of local public works	122,116
Construction of salt fields	1,180,000
Development of northern Korea	2,181,458
Improvements of farming districts	244,374
Manchurian affairs	836,284
For research work of students abroad	34,160
Supervision of foreign exchange	19,735
Control of cereals shipped to Japan proper	763,410
Purchase of land for military purpose	9,927
For reconstructions to damages done by calamity	932,095
Total	78,703,138
Grand total	288,348,664

Below is given the latest statement of receipts from domestic taxes and from leased state lands for the four years ending 1933:

	1930	1931	1932	1933
	yen	yen	yen	yen
Land tax	15,617,023	15,810,219	15,422,197	15,853,159
Income tax	1,135,199	763,154	1,006,874	1,325,502
Mining tax	603,477	624,468	744,949	1,009,771
Business tax	1,591,627	1,291,983	1,233,306	1,329,060
Capital interest tax	314,882	332,874	345,881	483,918
Exchange tax	147,637	195,371	518,605	367,128
Bank of Chosen note tax	—	145,556	7,326	—
Liquor tax	12,322,234	11,248,536	11,366,182	12,385,013
Sugar consumption tax	3,181,858	2,893,536	2,897,016	1,517,248
Clearing dues	54,307	145,746	125,694	119,864
Total	34,968,367	32,951,434	33,167,814	34,391,131
Customs duties	8,466,029	7,401,819	7,966,105	11,157,771
Tonnage dues	44,316	39,049	32,227	39,046
Grand total	43,478,712	40,392,312	41,166,313	45,587,948

RECEIPTS FROM CUSTOMS DUTIES

	yen		yen
1910	3,806,000	1925	10,781,000
1914	4,140,000	1926	13,361,000
1918	16,870,000	1927	10,946,000
1919	11,165,000	1928	10,410,000
1920	16,309,000	1929	10,716,000
1921	—	1930	10,284,813
1922	15,620,000	1931	7,401,819
1923	9,211,000	1932	7,966,104
1924	9,311,000	1933	11,157,771

Government Monopolies

Several industries are being carried on as monopolies by the Government-General under direct control of the Financial Affairs Bureau; they are the manufacture or preparation of ginseng, tobacco, salt and opium.

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Ginseng This medical herb is regarded as a wonderful cure for many diseases in China and Korea. The drug is obtained from the root of the plant carefully tended for six years. The principal customers for this plant are the Chinese, who are ready to pay a high price for it. Figures relating to its production follow:

	Area (tsubo)	Raw root (kin)	Prepared product (kin)	Receipts (yen)
1911	14,345	7,719	2,300	119,000
1919	195,620	103,989	26,002	2,082,000
1920	319,321	116,508	29,694	2,544,000
1921	371,328	136,066	36,266	2,102,000
1922	475,339	163,053	40,571	1,269,000
1923	419,788	166,282	46,022	2,225,000
1924	397,850	141,983	38,546	2,152,000
1925	303,713	112,988	31,629	2,658,000
1926	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930	336,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463
1931	—	161,952	59,302	2,039,541
1932	—	165,172	58,789	2,099,819
1933	—	142,686	49,525	1,339,941

Tobacco As practically all Koreans smoke, the tobacco industry is a great source of income to the government. Three kinds are grown in Chosen, namely, Korean, Japanese and American. There are four tobacco manufacturing centres, these being Keijo, Heijo, Taikyu and Zenshu, the annual production reaching thirty million yen.

AREA, PRODUCTION & SALES OF TOBACCO

Year	Area (cho)	Amount leaf tobacco (kwan)	Value in yen: Korean product	Imported	Total
1930	14,227	4,026,914	31,698,010	123,100	31,816,110
1931	15,232	4,884,183	31,149,374	99,751	31,249,125
1932	13,637	5,309,923	32,076,449	91,290	32,167,739
1933	13,558	4,414,268	35,227,038	87,148	35,313,186

Salt The salt consumption in Chosen amounted to 560,000,000 kin in 1932 which is a great increase as compared with the amount ten years ago. The consumption in 1921 was 114,000,000 kin valued at ¥1,120,000. As the native production is not sufficient to meet the entire demand of the people, a considerable amount is imported from Japan and foreign countries under the control of the Monopoly Bureau of the Government-General. The following shows production and the area of salt-fields in 1932:

PRODUCTION AND AREA OF SALT-FIELD IN 1933

	Area (cho)	Production (kin)
Koryowan	1,142	155,620,000
Shusan	1,115	154,196,000
Nanshi	217	26,725,000
Total	2,474	336,541,000

Opium Owing to the strict control of the Government-General the number of opium smokers has in recent years greatly decreased, but at the same time the number of those indulging in morphine-injection has increased. The use of morphine has of course been prohibited by the government, but owing to the activity of cunning dealers all the efforts of the government to put an end to it have been fruitless. The government thereupon has come to the decision to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine so as more effectively to control the spread of its use. Accordingly, in March, 1933, the government's manufacture of morphine was started at Keijo, its production being sold to certain designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes only.

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MORPHINE MANUFACTURE IN 1933

Raw opium		14,058 kilogrammes (less water)
Percentage of morphine		—
Manufacture	Morphine (salt)	267 kilogrammes
	Diacethyl morphine (salt)	156 ,,
Sale	Morphine (salt)	263 ,,
	Diacethyl morphine (salt)	124 kilogrammes
	For medical purpose	8 ,,

Overseas Trade

Prior to its annexation by Japan the overseas trade of Korea amounted to about 50 millions of yen a year. Now it is approximately valued at ¥368,627,000 as per figures for 1933. The following figures indicate its development:

OVERSEAS TRADE

Year	Exports (¥ 1,000) Foreign countries	Japan	Total	Imports (¥ 1,000) Foreign countries	Japan	Total
1912	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,753	67,112
1917	20,236	64,726	84,962	31,396	72,696	104,092
1918	18,697	137,205	155,962	43,151	117,273	160,424
1919	22,098	199,849	221,947	98,158	184,918	283,076
1920	27,639	169,381	197,020	106,174	143,112	249,286
1921	20,884	197,393	218,277	75,898	156,483	232,381
1922	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1923	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1924	22,879	306,660	329,039	97,776	211,817	309,593
1925	24,341	317,288	341,630	105,388	234,623	340,011
1926	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169
1927	28,133	330,791	358,924	113,943	269,473	383,417
1928	32,147	333,829	365,974	118,181	295,839	414,020
1929	32,773	309,891	342,664	107,767	315,325	423,092
1930	25,852	240,694	266,546	88,854	278,194	367,048
1931	12,771	294,027	261,798	52,696	217,770	270,466
1932	29,210	282,144	311,354	61,686	258,670	320,356
1933	52,773	315,854	368,627	64,368	339,817	404,185
*1934	48,232	303,112	351,854	63,326	352,007	415,333

OVERSEAS TRADE BY COUNTRIES

Countries	Exports (¥ 1,000) 1932	1933	1934*	Import (¥ 1,000) 1932	1933	1934*
Japan proper	282,144	315,854	303,112	258,670	339,817	352,007
Kwantung Peninsula	4,337	4,975	4,383	2,479	3,689	3,328
Manchoukuo	22,867	40,588	40,463	39,723	40,765	37,889
China	947	1,598	1,669	3,772	5,857	6,155
The U. S. A.	406	2,746	261	5,079	2,195	4,173
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	616	2,137	1,074
Asiatic Russia	—	—	—	1,020	1,144	83
Great Britain	—	—	—	1,545	988	866
Germany	—	—	—	819	423	320
Others	753	2,866	1,456	6,633	7,170	9,438
Total	311,354	368,627	351,344	320,356	404,185	415,333

*Figures for 1934 are for Jan.—Oct. only

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PRINCIPAL EXPORTS (¥1,000)

Commodities	1932	1933	1934*
Rice	145,337	154,706	158,090
Beans	20,539	19,275	14,430
Fish	10,950	12,158	10,212
Laver	2,114	3,452	3,481
Sugar	3,448	2,537	2,094
Hides	1,489	1,426	1,312
Fish-oil	1,207	1,177	778
Red ginseng	159	—	—
Timber	2,689	5,756	6,655
For'gn-style paper	—	4,062	3,754
Cotton	3,505	6,499	5,637
Cocoons	1,270	1,774	664
Raw silk	11,666	14,009	9,516
Graphite	693	1,046	1,026
Coal	3,850	4,602	4,642
Gold ore	1,304	1,882	2,007
Iron ore	1,082	1,907	810
Cattle	3,246	4,261	3,282
Fertilizers	18,485	22,607	21,177
Copper	—	5,732	8,770
Iron	—	8,756	11,750

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS (¥1,000)

Commodities	1932	1933	1934*
Rice	1,771	1,839	2,272
Millet	16,026	12,787	12,849
Beans	1,814	2,736	2,948
Flour	3,774	3,989	4,303
Sugar	7,645	5,851	5,328
Saké	1,161	1,118	948
Beer	1,780	2,110	1,541
Salt	2,295	2,769	2,158
Woollen cloth	6,360	8,528	8,381
Silk tissue	13,328	18,445	18,640
Rubber shoes	1,332	606	798
Paper	6,878	8,615	8,244
Coal	7,873	10,735	9,692
Cement	2,307	3,348	4,585
Ceramics	2,343	2,912	3,024
Iron	12,784	20,477	22,460
Machines	8,959	12,512	14,505
Timber	4,097	6,135	7,924
Leaf tobacco	1,106	408	1,638
Petroleum	4,879	3,015	4,690
Matches	1,417	1,493	965
Ginned cotton	6,870	9,583	10,919
Cotton yarn	6,085	6,800	8,263
Wild silk	7,945	9,412	5,191
Cotton cloth	19,223	43,802	34,973
Hemp cloth	1,204	1,147	1,754
Fertilizers	7,794	11,453	19,748
Gasolene	—	5,464	5,449

*Figures for 1934 are for Jan.–Oct. only

Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan. After the China-Japan War these banks opened their branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and in the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1909 the Bank of Korea capitalized at ¥10,000,000 was founded in Keijo as a de jure central institution, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the Annexation the bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and its activity even penetrated North China and East Siberia. The Bank also made loans to China, and opened an agency in New York with a view to facilitating exchange operations and to utilizing the American money market for the development of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to ¥40,000,000 in 1918, and to ¥80,000,000 in 1920, while authority was given to increase its maximum limit of note

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issue as occasion demanded; but owing to continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half. (See Chapter IX, the Bank of Chosen.)

Since then, encouraged by the economic development in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks were established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only ¥2,600,000, so in 1918 they were all merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of ¥10,000,000, which has since been trebled.

The first clearing house was opened in 1910, and banks in Keijo became its members. Later additional clearing houses were established in Jinsen (Chemulpo) and other large commercial centres—the total number being nine at the present time.

In 1911 there were in Chosen only 11 banks with 59 branches. The total aggregate capital was then ¥12,350,000, with total reserve funds amounting to ¥366,000 and the deposits totalling ¥18,335,000. In 1933 the number of banks was 11 and their branches 163. The total aggragate capital increased to ¥121,075,000 and the deposits to ¥458,159,000. The following gives a more detailed account:

	1910		1925		1926
Banks	11		18		18
Branches	59		136		133
			(¥ 1,000)		
Capital subscribed	12,550		102,275		102,275
Capital paid-in	7,080		58,850		59,375
overnment shares	438		1,963		1,963
Loans by government	2,634		2,838		2,825
Reserve funds	366		7,024		8,065
Debentures issued	960		135,976		144,837
Deposits	18,355		217,597		163,092
Loans	37,912		429,361		372,195
Net profit	—		4,592		5,687
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Banks	17	16	15	15	11
Branches	151	154	162	172	163
			(¥ 1,000)		
Capital subscribed	103,425	101,425	101,425	101,425	121,075
Capital paid-in	61,471	60,991	60,971	60,971	61,871
Reserve	12,385	14,464	16,377	18,522	21,358
Deposits	241,408	226,563	239,458	262,321	458,159
Loans	420,460	457,557	598,671	635,540	730,614
Net profit	6,418	6,430	6,233	6,209	—

The banking institution which is utilized most by the Korean masses is the Post Office Savings Bank. In 1921 there were about one million and a half depositors at this bank, their aggregate deposits reaching ¥18,726,338. In 1933 the number of depositors increased to 2,840,656, with the aggregate deposit expanding to ¥48,807,154. The following figures show the annual expansion:

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	Number of depositors	Amount (yen)
1921	1,416,325	18,726,338
1922	1,590,470	19,875,093
1923	1,694,087	21,040,342
1924	1,606,740	21,029,849
1925	1,711,590	21,581,122
1926	1,795,858	22,466,126
1927	1,910,289	26,961,217
1928	2,023,977	30,787,502
1929	2,078,602	36,286,417
1930	2,118,178	38,852,866
1931	2,283,871	41,432,670
1932	2,494,062	40,939,891
1933	2,840,656	44,807,154

Agriculture

Chosen, though mountainous, is essentially an agricultural country. It is enough to point out that more than 83 per cent. of its entire population is engaged in agricultural pursuits. Though the soil is not very fertile, it is sufficiently so to produce enough foodstuffs to support its entire population.

In 1933 the total agricultural products amounted to ¥641,600,000, of which ¥204,400,000 worth was exported, mostly to Japan, forming 55 per cent. of the entire value of Korea's export trade. In 1910, the year of annexation, the value of production scarcely reached ¥250,000,000, but in 1930 it more than doubled the above figure. Of all agricultural produce rice is the most important.

Ka-den-min In Chosen there are quite a good number of so-called "ka-den-min" or fire-field-people, who use fire for making their land ready for cultivation in a most primitive way. In ancient times, people set forests or plains on fire and then sowed seeds and cultivated vegetables on the blackened land without manuring. When this land became sterile, they moved to another place to repeat the operation. Among the lowest class of Chosen peasants this primitive system of agriculture is still in practice. There are nearly 400,000 ha. of the fire-field on which about 230,000 families or 1,160,000 people are living. They are mostly distributed over such northern mountainous districts as South Kankyo and North Heian. They plant the sweet potato, German millet, Indian-corn, soy-bean, red-bean, barley and buckwheat. Steep slopes or mountain tops, even above 1,200 m. in height, are burnt by these farmers. One of the causes of the bare hills noticed by visitors to Chosen is said to be this long practice of burning the forests. Most of these people are nomadic and cultivate about 2 ha., the average family with an income of about 60 yen a year. After the establishment of the new Japanese Forestry Bureau the forestry police have been taking measures to prevent the continuance of this destructive practice by teaching these peasants a better method of farming; but all their efforts seem in vain so far.

Grains In 1910 the rice fields covered a total area of 1,350,000 cho, yielding 10,400,000 koku, which rose in 1933 to 1,697,000 cho and 18,192,000 koku, its export during the same period increasing from 798,000 koku to 7,990,000 koku. This wonderful development has been achieved by the improvement made in cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation. Next in importance come barley, wheat and rye, which are, however, mostly cultivated for home consumption. In almost every province these grains are raised in the paddy fields, after the rice crop is harvested, production of these in 1933 being 7,585,000, 1,762,000 and 1,023,000 koku respectively. Owing to the help in various ways given by the authorities to aid in the cultivation of these three cereals, their production has been on the increase year after year. Third in importance comes the soy bean. In

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earlier times it was far from being an important produce owing to ignorance on the part of Korean farmers of the proper method of preparation, such as drying and assorting. It is now, however, in high esteem on the Japanese market where there is a demand for it not only as food, but for chemical industrial purposes, and thus the amount exported to Japan is yearly on the increase. In 1933 the total area under cultivation was 803,000 cho and the amount produced reached 4,555,000 koku, which was an increase of more than six times, compared with the year 1910. Millet is for most Koreans what rice is for the Japanese people. They depend more upon it than upon rice on account of its cheapness in price. The Korean farmers sell their rice, but use their millet crops for their daily diet, so that the supply of the grain hardly suffices to meet the entire demands of the Korean people. They, therefore, import much of it from Manchoukuo, its import from that region reaching about one million koku in 1933.

Cotton Cotton is another important agricultural produce in modern Chosen. The present scale of its growth is owing to the encouragement given by the Government-General. It was in 1906 that the first trial plantation of American cotton was carried out in the neighbourhood of Mokpo. As its superiority over the old native cotton was sufficiently demonstrated, soon its cultivation was vigorously encouraged in all parts of southern Korea, so that the cotton acreage was increased from 1,200 cho in 1910 to 117,000 cho in 1933, and the crop expanded from 660,000 kin in 1910 to 114,313,000 kin in 1933. If the production of the native plant is added, the total cotton production in 1933 amounted to 159,415,000 kin from the total area of 159,000 cho, as against 21,000,000 kin from 60,000 cho, in 1910.

Sugar Beet A trial plantation of sugar beet was also made first in 1906. As it proved quite satisfactory every governmental assistance was given to its cultivation. A subsidy was given to ensure a sufficient distribution of improved seeds. Further exhaustive experiments proved that Keijo and its vicinity is best suited for sugar beet cultivation and consequently the authorities encouraged and assisted its plantation in that part of Chosen, with very good results.

Fruit Farming Fruit farming has also become a thriving industry of the erstwhile hermit kingdom. Soil and climate alike are suitable, especially for the growing of apples, and the government authorities are extending their assistance in this direction likewise, with the object of improving the quality of the fruit and gaining for it a world-wide market.

Many new varieties of apple, superior to the old native ones, are now cultivated, the quality being in some cases better than that of the fruit grown in Japan, the recent annual production reaching as much as 12,447,000 kwan with money value estimated at ¥4,311,000.

Sericulture By 1910 the Government-General had done everything in its power to improve the native methods of cultivating the mulberry trees and raising silk-worms after the Japanese fashion. In 1919 a new system was instituted for carrying on a compulsory examination of egg-cards and for giving adequate care to the growing of good mulberry trees. All this paternal care and effort on the part of the Government-General for the advancement of the economic welfare of the Korean farmer was by no means thrown away. In 1910 the

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cocoon production was 14,000 koku and the number of households engaged in the work was figured at 76,000. In 1931 the households increased to 747,084 and the output to 578,259 koku ; in 1932 the number of households increased to 786,060 and the output to 593,054 koku and in 1933 the number of households increased to 810,000 and the output to 608,000 koku.

Stock Farming As Korean beef is very palatable, the demand for it is rapidly increasing in Japan and Manchoukuo as well as in Siberia. In 1910 the cattle in all Chosen numbered only 700,000 head, which in 1933 increased to 1,663,000. The export of cattle and hides totals from ¥5,000,000 to ¥8,000,000 a year. The raising of both pigs and poultry has been greatly encouraged by importing from Japan animals and birds of superior quality, with the result that at the end of 1932 the former totalled 1,339,000 and the latter 6,601,000, and in 1933 the former 1,430,000 and the latter 6,868,000, both more than doubling the numbers found in 1910. Sheep were unknown in the old days in Chosen. In 1919, however, efforts were made to encourage their rearing, but the number is still insignificant with less than 3,000 in all.

Forestry

The area of forests in Chosen covers 16,440,000 cho which corresponds with 73 per cent. of the entire area of the land. But there existed before 1910 nothing like a forestry policy in Korea, and except a few protected ones, all forests were allowed to be devastated by ignorant and superstitious people. Therefore before 1910 nearly all the mountains in Chosen were treeless. The forests existed only in name. As a matter of fact, only one-third of the so-called "forest" areas was covered with standing trees, the remaining two-thirds being only thinly wooded. There was no system for safeguarding or protecting forests.

Afforestation Work Undertaken In 1908, however, the Korean government, by the advice of the Japanese, promulgated a forest law aiming at the protection of forests, and when the new régime was established the Government-General issued a new forest law providing, among other things, for the letting of forest lands to any interested party for the purpose of afforestation and, if the work were successfully carried out, the ultimate transference of them to the lessee. The total area thus leased now reaches 1,318,000 cho, of which more than 637,000 cho have been transferred to the successful planters. So far as the present situation is concerned, 5 million cho of the entire forest lands is owned by the state, and one hundred and twenty thousand cho is reserved for university research and as national parks, the rest being owned by private persons. The first public afforestation work was started in Kogen province in 1911, and this example was followed by almost all the other provinces, so that the total area afforested to the end of 1933 was 1,564,000 sq. m. There are at present 275 seeding plantations, where mostly pine, oak, chestnut, poplar, larch, etc. are being raised. In 1932 about 190,000,000 seedlings were grown by private undertaking, since the seedlings raised by the public plantations alone were not enough. Nor is this all. Schools are given suitable pieces of ground whereon to plant trees, and the Third of April, the anniversary of the death of Jimmu Tenno, the first ruler of Japan, is fixed as Arbour Day, a day on which universal plantation of trees is encouraged throughout Chosen. In short, in the past

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twenty years more than a million cho have been planted with over 4,687,000,000 trees, and thus the mountain scenery in every part of Chosen is steadily undergoing a change with the accompanying effect of diminishing floods.

The Forest Districts There are, however, several forest districts which escaped the almost wholesale denudation by ignorant woodsmen and kadenmin before 1910, the most important of which is the forest along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the frontier. In 1906 the first systematic exploitation of the region was conducted by a joint undertaking organized by Japanese and Koreans and assisted by both the Korean and the Japanese governments with a capital of ¥1,200,000. This, combined with a similar enterprise financed by a group of Japanese and Chinese industrialists, forms one of the largest timber-supplies in the world. Due, however, to further deforestation by kadenmin, the government considered it necessary to further educate these ignorant Koreans, and to utilize and develop the forests. Since 1932, the government started the work of developing these forests in northern Korea with an expenditure of ¥12,183,000 to be operative for 15 years. The work consists of (1) development and utilization of forests, (2) education of kadenmin, and (3) protection of the forests. The results of this work are proving satisfactory, the education of kadenmin giving especially good results.

Fisheries

Since 1910 all sorts of encouragement have been given to the Korean fishermen for the development of the fishery industry in Chosen, with the result that improvements in one way or another have been introduced in the building of fishing-boats and in the method of catching. Thus, while before 1910 the total value of catches used to be about ¥8,000,000 a year, by 1933 it increased to ¥51,370,000, and other aquatic products in the meantime advanced from ¥2,650,000 to ¥38,490,000. The first fishery law in Chosen was issued in 1909, and this was replaced three years later by a new law providing for the definite establishment of fishing rights over a certain area of waters, the prohibition of certain actions harmful to fishing in specified areas and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing area. Trawling within special zones was also prohibited, and certain restrictions were made to the number of whaling-boats and to the diving apparatus carried. Mention should be made in this connection of the famous "hanyo" (woman divers) of Quelpart Island. There are 7,000 of these women and they are engaged in catching sea-ears and many kinds of shellfish and gathering laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea. The total earnings of these women amount to one million yen a year.

The following shows the marine products for two years, 1932 and 1933, the value of each of which exceeds ¥1,000,000:

Kind	1932 Value (in yen)	1933 Value (in yen)
Mackerel	5,258,000	6,384,000
Sardine	6,178,000	8,789,000
Guchi	3,340,000	3,706,000
Laver	2,294,000	—
Herring	1,726,000	1,902,000
Sea-bream	1,763,000	1,537,000
Hair-tail	1,270,000	1,642,000
Plaice	1,868,000	1,223,000
Cod	1,784,000	1,537,000
Horse-mackerel	1,140,000	—

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Kind	1932 Value (in yen)	1933 Value (in yen)
Shrimps	1,845,000	1,644,000
Mintai (Alaska pollack)	1,969,000	3,549,000
Mackerel-like fish	1,659,000	1,404,000

Besides these, there are isinglass, yellow-tail, glue, shark, grey mullet, rays, oyster, sea-eel, conger-eel, etc., valued each at between ¥500,000 and ¥1,000,000.

Mining

The present mining law, enacted in 1916, provides that mining rights can be granted only to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations under the Japanese law, and mining rights are treated as a form of real estate. As for mining rights secured by foreign citizens under the old régime, they are well respected. Of all minerals produced in Chosen gold occupies by far the most important position, the largest gold mine being the Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next in importance are the Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, the Suian Mine by Englishmen, and Sansei and Koyo Mines by Japanese. Formerly the mining industry in Chosen was carried on in a very primitive way except in those mines operated by foreign concerns. Soon after Chosen had been brought under Japanese protectorate rule in 1906 the Government tried hard to induce Japanese capitalists to invest capital in the mining industry of Chosen, but it was only in 1910 that Japanese capitalists began to display their energies in that lucrative undertaking. As, however, most of the more promising gold fields were already under operation by foreign capitalists, Japanese capitalists turned their attention to the exploitation of other minerals such as iron and coal. Iron ores in Korea hitherto found were mostly of hematite and limonite, the former being found in South Kankyo and Kokai provinces and the mixture of the two in South Heian and Kokai provinces. The amount of these ores stored, the purity of which is about 50 per cent., is estimated at about 20,000,000 metric tons. In 1933 about 500,000 metric tons of these ores were mined, of which about 260,000 were sent to the Kenjiho Iron Works and the balance of 250,000 metric tons shipped to Japan proper. Fortunately a much greater store of magnesite ores is found in North Kankyo province. The purity of these magnesite ores is about 40 per cent. on average.

As regards coal, almost unlimited quantity of brown and anthracite coals are stored in Korea, the quantity of the latter stored being especially large. Anthracite is mostly produced in the Heijo coal-field, and in South Kankyo, North Keisho and South Zenra provinces.

It must be mentioned that in Chosen nearly all kinds of minerals except sulphur, petroleum and asphalt are found in more or less abundance, gold, coal, and iron preponderating. The following shows the value of the mineral products of Chosen, expressed in yen:

MINERAL PRODUCTION

(in 1,000 yen)

	1911	1921	1929	1931	1932	1933
Gold	3,744	2,992	5,848	9,008	17,809	25,066
Pig iron	—	4,819	6,795	4,588	4,114	5,605
Coal	388	3,192	613,6	1,190	5,970	7,205

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(in 1,000 yen)

	1911	1921	1929	1931	1932	1933
Iron ore	421	1,716	3,153	820	749	1,287
Copper	—	17	1,348	224	307	417
Gold and silver ore	262	587	1,353	553	944	1,906
Concentrates	246	1,489	633	—	638	—
Graphite	153	208	511	231	255	465
Placer gold	821	359	25	575	1,823	3,327
Silver	6	4	59	206	552	721
Lead	—	—	129	5	64	120
Tungsten ore	—	—	8	7	29	117
Zinc ore	21	4	85	—	—	97
Others	21	374	318	318	487	961
Total	6,069	15,767	26,488	21,741	33,746	48,301

Manufacturing Industry

It is only since 1916 that there has been any manufacturing industry worthy of the name in Chosen, and in 1933 the total value of manufactures reached ¥378,700,000, being over 12 times as large as that in 1911, in which year the total output was valued at ¥30,000,000. As the land has abundance of materials and a good labour supply, Chosen may be looked upon as a promising land for the future expansion of various industries. In 1911 there were in all the land only 251 manufacturing plants employing about 14,575 workers, but by 1933 this number of factories had increased to 4,836 and the total number of employees to 120,251. The most important manufactures are:

(1) Cotton, hemp, and silk tissues, the total output in these goods expanding from ¥5,000,000 in 1911 to ¥55,359,000 in 1933.

(2) Paper, which increased from ¥382,000 in 1911 to ¥3,816,000 in 1929. Of late years the demand for foreign-style papers has grown, the imports expanding from ¥800,000 in 1911 to ¥8,615,000 in 1933.

(3) Ceramics, which show a yearly output worth ¥9,034,000 to ¥13,000,000.

(4) Iron-wares, the annual production of which is now valued at ¥6,231,000.

(5) Fertilizers, which have an output of ¥5,292,000 a year.

(6) Tobacco, the total output being ¥32,451,000 in 1933.

(7) Marine products, the total product being ¥8,460,000 in 1933.

Justice and Police

Chosen has now a judicial system similar to that of Japan. That is to say, in addition to the supreme court there are courts of appeal and local courts, the last-named having detached and sub-detached courts widely located. Both civil and criminal cases are first tried by local courts, while appeals against the decisions of local courts are made to the courts of appeal. The supreme court handles those appeals made against judgements rendered by the local courts or complaints against decisions or orders rendered in the second instance by the courts of appeal. Grave crimes of one sort or another have greatly diminished owing to the improvement in the work of maintenance of order and security. On the other hand, what might be called intellectual crimes such as fraud, forgery, and perjury have yearly increased. Prior to the establishment of the Japanese administration flogging was a common form of punishment. In 1912 its application to aged persons, women and children was prohibited,

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and in 1920 it was finally abolished as it was unsuited to modern ideas of penology.

Police The police service in Chosen had been under Japan's direction for some years even prior to the establishment of Japan's protectorate in 1906. But the system which had been in force at that period proved unsatisfactory. Accordingly, in June, 1910, a new system was introduced by which the commander-in-chief of the military police was appointed chief of police, and gendarmes and civil policemen were separately stationed as local needs required. In 1919, however, that semi-militaristic police system was displaced by the one now in force. This new and present police system is modelled on that in Japan proper, with its headquarters entrusted with the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. Numbers of administrative officials of police, police superintendents, polic inspectors, police, etc. as of 1933 follow:

Class of officials	Japanese	Koreans
Administrative officials	13	—
Police superintendents	48	9
Police inspectors	338	86
Assistant police inspectors	604	154
Police	10,163	7,913
Total	11,166	8,162

Education

In the olden days Korean children were taught in school nothing but Chinese writing and classics, but soon after the new régime was introduced they began to receive a more modern education, with such new subjects as arithmetic, geography and the Japanese language. The parents at first objected to the introduction of these revolutionary methods, and specially to the forcible teaching of the Japanese language, believing that this was a deliberate attempt on the part of the government to deprive the Korean children of their national and inherited traditions. It was due to this misconception held widely among the Korean people that the educational authorities found much difficulty in enrolling pupils despite the fact that no tuition was charged and all textbooks were supplied to the pupils free of charge. In 1930 the Government-General, animated by a desire to respect the wishes of the native race and to foster oriental morals developed by Confucius, reopened the old Meiringaku-in (Confucian Institute) at the Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan."), the oldest and highest seat of learning in the country for the study of the Confucian classics.

Important Reforms But many more reforms of far-reaching importance were made in 1920, when the present educational system was introduced. By it not only was the standard of educational attainment raised, but the principle of equality was laid down firmly though no compulsory features were adopted with regard to elementary education, as in Japan. The following differences, however, were made and are maintained out of respect for Korean sentiment.

1. The Korean language is made an obligatory subject in schools for Korean children exclusively, while it is optional in schools for Japanese children in Chosen.

2. The teaching of Korean history and geography is to be particularly emphasized in schools for Korean children.

3. Different text-books, though of an equal standard, may be used in view of the difference of language and customs of the two races. That is to say, schools for Japanese children may use text-books compiled by the Education Department of

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Japan, but schools for Korean children those compiled at the Education Bureau of the Government-General. Koreans are mostly educated in common schools, higher common schools and girls' common schools. The term of the common school is six years, while that of the higher and girls' higher common school is two years. Korean children who prefer to receive education at the Japanese school may enter the elementary or the middle school as they chose. The system proved very efficacious in developing the education in Korea. While there was only 100 common schools before 1910, they number now 2,105 with 565,000 pupils. The table below shows cleary the development of educational work in Chosen since 1910:

	1911		1919		1933	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Elementary schools	128	15,509	380	42,811	479	79,397
Common schools	172	20,121	482	89,288	2,105	561,920
Middle schools	1	205	5	2,010	11	6,847
Higher common schools	5	819	12	3,156	26	12,610
Girls' high schools	3	515	11	1,905	25	9,558
Girls' higher common schools	2	394	6	687	17	5,179
Normal schools	—	—	—	—	3	1,891
Industrial schools	20	961	25	2,848	58	14,823
Elementary industrial schools	3	93	73	1,650	97	4,235
Colleges	5	409	8	901	15	3,770
University preparatory schools	—	—	—	—	1	314
University	—	—	—	—	1	609
Non-classified schools	1667	71,763	749	39,247	457	58,714
Total	2,006	110,789	1,751	184,498	3,295	763,038

Christian mission and other rivate schools are included in this table.

Korean Students in Japan The Korean students in Japan now number about 4,087, most of them being in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government-General are comparatively few, numbering only nine at present. The students sent by the Government-General are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they stay in the colleges to which they have been sent, but are on graduation given official or educational positions.

Religion

Buddhism Buddhism first entered Korea about 370 A.D. It was introduced from China by a priest who brought with him a Buddhist image and the "sacred books", and it flourished greatly in the peninsula during the days of Silla and Koryu. Under the dynasty of Yi, however, it met with persecution. The number of priests was limited and members of good families were forbidden to enter the priesthood, with the consequence that it soon lost its hold among the masses to a large extent. Things remained so until Japan extended her rule throughout the country. Then in September, 1911, an ordinance on religions was promulgated giving freedom of preaching and full protection to temples, and also raising the status of the priesthood. Since then Buddhism has been revived to a marked extent, so that at present there are 1,338 temples with 5,712 priests, 1,080 nuns and 128,000 adherents. There are several native religions not recognized by the Government-General, among which the most influential one is the Tendo-kyo, which in nature is a mixture of Confucian-

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ism, Buddhism and Taoism. This religion has followers numbering 82,200. Apart from Korean Buddhism and allied sects, we find Japanese forms of Buddhism lately established in the peninsula, priests of the Shin sect being the pioneers. Later three others, Jodo, Soto, and Nichiren sects, entered the new religious field in competition with other sects and religions. At present nine sects of Japanese Buddhism are working among the resident Japanese as well as among the Korean masses, and at the end of 1933 there were 123 temples, 441 preaching houses, 597 priests, and 241,800 believers including 8,200 Koreans.

Christianity Christianity in Chosen was first brought by an official mission sent to Peking, China, by a Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century. This mission brought back with them a Bible and other Christian books. As its teaching, however, ran counter to the deep-rooted custom of ancient worship, King Seiso in 1784 issued an order prohibiting its preaching which was followed by a severe persecution. Though later occasionally the persecution was more or less relaxed, nothing for a time indicated a revival of Christianity. In 1833 a French missionary named Pierre Maubant came to Chosen to preach the Gospel. He was the first foreign missionary to tread the soil of the hermit kingdom. His energetic and devoted evangelistic work was not fruitless, but it alarmed the government officials, who in 1839 issued a prohibition edict. But it failed to suppress the spread of Christianity, and in 1863 there were as many as 18,000 converts. In 1866 the persecution against Korean converts was renewed with vigour, which cost the lives of 30,000 people. In 1882, however, freedom of worship was fully recognized in the country as a result of diplomatic pressure brought upon its government, and in 1885 several American missionaries came to Korea. This was the first time for Protestantism to be preached there, and it gained influence among the masses as time went on. When in 1906 Prince Ito, the foremost Japanese statesman at that time, was appointed first Resident-General, he pursued a policy of friendliness toward these foreign missionaries, this policy being pursued up to the present day under various Governors-General. The following table gives an idea on the present situation of Christianity in Chosen:

	No. of missions	No. of missionaries	No. of members
Presbyterian	2,583	1,489	239,235
Roman catholic	327	184	95,520
Japan episcopal church	87	91	6,390
Japan christian church	12	15	1,802
Holiness	156	267	10,645
Methodist	16	21	1,655
Salvation army	74	77	6,523
Others	1,014	503	60,810
Total	4,269	2,647	422,580

Communications and Transportation

Railways The construction of railways as a civilizing agency is being vigorously carried on in accordance with the 12 year programme laid in 1927. The programme covers the construction of a Tumen River line and four other lines totalling 1,384 kilometres and the purchase of five lines including the Zenshu-Riri

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Railway, totalling 339 kilometres. At the end of 1933 the total government-owned railway mileage reached 2,935 kilometres in active operation with 413 stations. The following gives some idea of the development of railways in Chosen:

	Length (kilo)	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Receipts (yen)
1911	674 (miles)	2,024,000	888,000	4,095,000
1920	1,157 („)	12,421,000	3,186,000	28,816,000
1925	1,309 („)	18,241,000	4,297,000	30,708,000
1930	2,792	20,650,000	5,986,000	36,821,000
1931	3,009	19,673,704	6,025,150	36,300,512
1932	3,142	20,591,638	6,248,863	40,154,103
1933	2,935	22,238,338	7,254,859	43,611,142

As the through traffic between Tokyo and Europe is now established, the two main lines, Keijo-Fusan line and Keijo-Gishu line, form an important part of the railway system connecting Europe and Japan. Of all the lines now under construction the most important one is the line between Heijo and Gensan, 213 kilometres in length. When completed it will serve as an important traffic link between North China and Japan. As for the private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were issued in 1912 so as to provide adequately for effective supervision and protection. In 1921 new regulations were issued by which increased state aid was extended to private railway undertakings. These have in consequence made rapid progress, and at the end of 1933 their total mileage reached 1,163 kilometres operated by seven companies, though their earnings are far from being satisfactory. There are at present over 387 kilometres of additional lines either under actual construction or projected.

Tramways The following are the main tramway lines now in operation:

43.6 km.	in Keijo
9.8 „	in Fusan
12.9 „	in Heijo
6.1 „	in Kanpei
1.1 „	in other parts
Total	73.5 kilometres

Navigation There are now 235 steamships the total tonnage being 57,920 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia. The following table shows the progress in this method of transportation in the last decade:

	Steamers		Sailing-boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1919	87	35,682	483	16,432
1925	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929	185	47,161	694	23,083
1930	196	53,998	692	22,911
1931	202	52,802	745	24,778
1932	223	57,512	756	24,889
1933	235	57,920	796	26,578

Navigable Rivers The most important river in Chosen is perhaps the Yalu or Oryokko which, forming the boundary line between Chosen and Manchoukuo, rises in the Paktusan or "Ever-white" Mountains (2,744 m.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. Its length is about 800 km. of which about 700 km. is navigable by air-propeller boats under governmental subsidy. Timber felled on the mountain slopes is made into rafts and floated down until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung. Another river of importance is the River Daido which flows through Heijo and empties into the Yellow Sea in the neighbourhood of Chinnampo. The river is 400 km. long, navigable for a distance of 245 km. There are also four other

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rivers wide enough for navigation by sailing boats and motor boats. These are:

Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel) 344 km. (Navigable course)
Kanko (flowing into Yellow Sea) 300 km.
Kinko „ „ „ „ 180 „
Tumen „ „ „ „ 85 „

Airways There are at present three airports established in Chosen. These ports are located at Urusan, Keijo and Heijo. Beside that in the following places ground marks are set up: Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Sharlin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu. Moreover, in Urusan and Keijo there are now built wireless stations for keeping in communication with the airways. At the airport of Urusan there is installed a meteorological observatory for forecasting weather conditions in the interests of air navigators. Most of the air traffic between Chosen and Japan is being done by planes belonging to the Japan Air Transport Company.

Post, Telegraphs and Telephones Prior to 1905 there were 516 postal offices in the peninsula. In March, 1934, they numbered 948, but in this are included 119 engaged for telegraph and telephone service exclusively. There is a Telegraphic Service Training School, which had turned out up to March, 1931, 3,252 graduates, 909 being Koreans. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting Office was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927.

Public Hygiene

Prior to 1906 Chosen was a land practically without access to any medical service worthy of the name and the sick were simply placed under the care of unqualified practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or magicians. The situation was made worse by an entire lack of sanitary equipments and pure water, the consequence being frequent outbreaks of various infectious diseases. As soon as the protectorate was brought into existence in 1906 the first step taken by the government with a view to giving the nation the benefit of sanitation was the establishment of a modern hospital in Keijo. Since 1910 further steps have been taken to extend modern medical and sanitary benefits among the masses, even among those in very remote regions. The construction and extension of waterworks is another work pushed on by the government with vigour so as to provide the people with good drinking water. The Government-General has also taken efficient and energetic measures for the prevention of epidemics; in consequence, small-pox which was formerly so virulent in Chosen, has almost died out. Moreover, sanitary regulations relating to foodstuffs, drinks, and drugs are rigidly enforced. Medical and hospital equipments have been greatly improved. At the end of 1933 hospitals numbered 134 including 4 government institutions and 45 under local public authorities, and there were 2,100 licensed medical practitioners including 964 Japanese, 1,094 Koreans and 32 foreigners. Korean medical students numbered 4,267 in the same year.

Prohibition of Opium Smoking

Soon after its inauguration the Government-General made a serious effort to deal with opium-smoking. The habit of opium-smoking among

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the Korean people had been quite strong, specially among those in the frontier regions, many deaths resulting therefrom. The Government-General's drive for the abolition of this vicious habit was a thorough one. Those who were found smoking opium were made liable for criminal punishment. It would be, however, an exaggeration to say that the land was entirely freed from the evil, as much opium is still being smuggled in from China. In 1919 poppy cultivation was absolutely prohibited except for the purpose of supplying the needs of the medical profession and a certain limitation was placed on the area of its cultivation, and the product so raised was not permitted to be sold on the general market, being all taken over by the government at a fixed price. In 1930, the Government-General granted a subsidy of ¥16,240, in addition to sufficient money to buy a necessary quantity of morphine to be divided among the provinces to assist in the cure of addicts. As a result 2,837 addicts out of a total of 2,944 treated at the provincial morphine asylums were completely cured. The following is the policy now being pursued by the Government-General in its effort to conquer the evil of opium-smoking:

(1) To attempt to cure all morphine addicts within 10 years;

(2) To take into its own hands all the work of manufacturing and selling the morphine to be supplied to the registered addicts;*

(3) To permit no person other than those registered to use morphine, and to punish heavily those who smuggled or secretly sold it;

(4) To educate the people so as to prevent any increase of addicts.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General issued an order forcing all addicts to be registered and in the end of that year those who registered totalled 3,278 out of 5,094 persons known to be addicts.

* The government manufacture began March, 1933.

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CHAPTER XLI

TAIWAN (FORMOSA)

General Description

Area and Topography Taiwan (Formosa) forms the westernmost part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed by the Pacific on the east, and is separated from China on the west by the Formosan Straits and on the south from the Philippines by Bashi and Balintang Channels. It extends from 119° 18′ to 122° 6′ E. longitude, and from 21° 45′ to 25° 38′ N. latitude. The Tropic of Cancer bisects the island, which is about 394.28 km. long, its greatest width being 122.31 km. The Pescadores (Bokoto) and other outlying islands form a political division of the Taiwan Government-General. They cover 126.86 sq. km. The area of Taiwan, including the Pescadores, is 35,973.55 sq. km., being about 5.3 per cent. of the total area of Japan, a little smaller than Kyushu, and about one-sixth the size of Chosen (Korea). As regards its topography, Taiwan is an island which rises from the sea to a height of 3,950 metres, reached at the summit of Mount Niitaka (Mount Morrison). It consists of a mountain range with narrow valleys on both coasts which are the population centres. The valley on the west coast is the principal population centre. That on the east coast is little developed and is capable of but slight further development. The rivers are not long and their current is very swift; in the rainy season they flood the surrounding country, causing much damage. The climate is semi-tropical. In summer the north is visited by rains; in winter the south. The temperature rarely falls below the freezing point.

The Inhabitants The territorial system of Formosa was organized during five years, 1898 to 1902, by a large land-investigation enterprise made by the Government-General. The island is inhabited by Japanese, natives and foreigners. The Japanese went there after the occupation of the island by Japan, and the foreigners mostly are Chinese. The number of Western people is small. The native Chinese are mostly Mins from Fukien province and Cantonese from the China coasts across the Formosan Straits, composing 92 per cent. of the total population. The aborigines consist of savages and semi-civilized tribes. The following figures show the population at the end of 1933 :

	Total number	Male	Female	Percentage
Japanese	256,327	135,836	120,491	5.1%
Koreans	1,191	417	774	0.0
Natives	4,759,197	2,421,881	2,337,316	94.0
Aboriginal savages (Included in natives)	146,923	73,755	73,168	(2.9)
Chinese	43,585	28,856	14,729	0.9
Foreigners	207	110	97	0.0
Total	5,060,507	2,587,100	2,473,407	100.0

Including the savages, the total population at the end of 1933 in Taiwan was 5,060,507, showing an increase of 130,545 over that at the

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end of 1932 and 2,023,648 over the end of 1905, when the first census-taking results were announced. This means a yearly again for the 28 years of 72,273.

The areas, population, number of counties and districts and number of towns and villages of five provinces, three districts and seven cities at the end of July, 1933 follow :

	Area sq. ri	Population	No. of counties or sub-districts	No. of towns and villages
Taihoku province	299	1,009,180	9	39
Shinchiku ,,	291	720,605	8	42
Taichu ,,	475	1,125,535	11	57
Tainan	354	1,278,926	10	66
Takao ,,	371	694,401	7	43
Taito district	231	64,806	4	11
Karenko ,,	298	101,300	4	10
Boko ,,	8	65,754	2	5
Taihoku city	3	275,675	—	—
Keelung ,,	3	81,713	—	—
Shinchiku,,	2	51,920	—	—
Shoka ,,	1	64,991	—	—
Taichu ,,	4	49,790	—	—
Tainan ,,	3	106,242	—	—
Kagi ,,	3	66,853	—	—
Takao ,,	2	76,380	—	—
Byoto ,,	4	39,272	—	—

The Climate Being in the semi-tropical zone, the summer time is long and the winter is short. The highest temperature, however, is not very much higher than in Japan proper, but the weather is warmer during the winter time. Frost is very rare and water has been known to freeze over only twice since Taiwan came under Japanese rule. The island lies in the highway of typhoons, and is yearly visited by them, terrible damage being sometimes caused.

During a 37-year period ending in 1933, Formosa was hit by severe typhoons no less than 89 times ; of these, several occurred in the year 1914.

Typhoons originate generally in the offing northeast or east of Luzon Island of the Philippines, and cross the island or enter the Chinese mainland, passing the southern or northern extremity of the island. Taiwan forms a part of an earthquake zone connecting Kyushu, Okinawa Islands and the Philippines and naturally it is very often visited by seismic shocks. The number of earthquakes registered in the island or the neighbouring seas during 25 years ending 1933, was 8,118, which means 325 a year or nearly one every day.

Administrative System

When Taiwan came under Japan's rule in April, 1895, the Japanese Government established the Taiwan Affairs Bureau in June of that year and then in August of the same year the Taiwan Government-General Act was promulgated in connection with the introduction of military administration. This was replaced by the civil administration in March of the following year. The Taiwan Government-General came under the supervision of the Minister of Overseas Affairs with the establishment of the Ministry in June, 1929. The Governor-General is invested with authority to require military assistance from the commanders of the army and navy in the territory under his jurisdiction, when he deems it necessary to do so for the maintenance of peace and order in Taiwan. If the Governor-

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General is either a soldier or a naval man, he is able simultaneously to assume the command of the Formosan Army. The Governor-General also is invested with authority to supervise officials under him, promote them in rank, retire them from service, or recommend them for honours through the Minister of Overseas Affairs and the Premier, and to suspend or cancel orders and administrative measures of provincial governors under him, when such are deemed damaging to public interest or overstepping the sphere of their authority. The Taiwan Government-General consists, besides the secretariat to the Governor-General, of five bureaux, that is, the Home Affairs Bureau, Educational Affairs Bureau, Financial Affairs Bureau, Colonial Development Bureau and Police Affairs Bureau. The chief of general affairs, or civil governor, directors of the five bureaux and many other officials are under the supervision of the Governor-General. There is an Advisory Council to the Governor-General, which serves as a very important organ for the administration of the island. Not only does it give advice to the Governor-General on laws or regulations but also on general important business. The members consist of Government-General officials and leading persons in private circles in the island. The provincial administration extends over 5 provinces, 3 districts, 7 cities and 45 counties. There are the same number of provincial governors, district superintendents, city administrators and county chiefs, all under the Government-General.

Aboriginal Administration

The Taiwan aborigines are the oldest inhabitants of the island and are classified into semi-civilized aborigines and savage head-hunters. The former have now settled down as ordinary peaceful citizens and differ nothing in culture and general status from the natives who belong to the Han (Chinese) race. The head-hunters, on the other hand, live in mountainous districts and still adhere to their traditional habits and manners, their culture being very low. The Taiwan Government-General is concerned in its aboriginal administration mostly with these savage tribes. These savages lead a very primitive life, their dwelling-places being so difficult of access, and they still deter other tribes from settling near them by their traditional custom of head-hunting. Since Japan's occupation of Taiwan great efforts have been directed by the authorities to their subjugation and cultural improvement, and at the present time head-hunting is rapidly becoming extinct, and these savages are entering the first stage of civilized life. Some of them living along the mountain zone in west Taiwan, and those living on the sea coast in east Taiwan, pay taxes. These aborigines have a close resemblance to the Negritoes in the South Sea islands and are supposed by anthropologists to be of a Malay-origin. They may be classified into seven tribes: Taiyal, Saiset, Bunun, Tsuwo, Paiwan, Ami and Yami, and are entirely different in countenance, physical build, language and habits from the Han race who came over from continental China. These savages are distinguished by their extreme hatred of other tribes, and have a habit of combining together in an offensive and defensive alliance against any enemy. The number of these savages at the end of 1933 was 146,924, of whom 73,756 were male and 73,168 female. They lived in 24,480 houses in 595 villages. Their population in 1932 and 1933 was:

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Tribes	1933	1932	Increase
Taiyal	34,333	34,005	328
Saiset	1,417	1,394	23
Tsuwo	2,367	2,161	206
Bunun	18,081	17,898	183
Paiwan	42,263	41,989	274
Ami	46,300	45,120	1,180
Yami	1,702	1,702	same
Others	461	34	427
Total	146,924	144,303	in. 2,621

The Four Tribes The savages of the Taiyal and Bunun tribes are known as the most ferocious of all. Occasionally they quarrel with and even kill their own comrades. The Tsuwo tribe abolished the custom of head-hunting many years ago. The Saiset tribesmen are the gentlest of all, and are quickly losing their savage proclivities. The Japanese authorities have cudgelled their brains how to bring these wild people under control. When Holland occupied the south of Taiwan and Spain the north, they tried to pacify them principally through the medium of religion and medicine. During the time when the Cheng family from south China ruled the island, force and conciliation were adopted in turn, but the results were not satisfactory. Conciliation has dominated Japan's policy toward these savages in the island since her occupation of Taiwan. When the campaigns against rebels came to an end in 1902, attention was given to the aboriginal control policy. Owing to the stubborn resistance offered by the savages, the Governor-General, General Viscount Samata Sakuma, drafted a five-year plan for dealing with the aborigines and established the campaign headquarters in the Government-General in 1909 to start the enterprise on an elaborate scale. The fundamental policy was based on conciliation, and training the savages to become law-abiding people on the one hand, and chastisement of the insubordinate on the other. The confiscation of their arms was one of the important tasks. All arms were given up to the Japanese authorities by the northern aborigines in 1914. This completed the task of aboriginal pacification in January, 1915. Occasional raids on police stations and head-hunting of innocent people were committed after that, owing to the instigation of malcontents. The worst outbreak that took place was the Musha Incident in October, 1930, which culminated in the sending of troops. Many of them are engaged in farm work and pay taxes. Some of them receive special education. Policemen are stationed at various points of vantage in the savage districts and peace maintenance, job-finding, education, medical care, traffic, public works and sundry other affairs are being looked after by them. Since the occupation of Taiwan to the end of 1933 rifles confiscated numbered 29,772, of which 14,286 rifles were confiscated in 1914, when the five-year campaign plan came to an end. Spades replaced rifles. During the 38 years which ended in 1933, 7,081 people lost their lives at the hands of savages and the largest number of them in a single year was 761 in 1912. In 1930, 158 deaths were reported. This is due to the Musha Incident. Of the total of 7,081 victims during those 38 years, those of police, Japanese and native, numbered 2,667 and those of civilians 4,414. During the same period 4,099 were wounded in connection with the campaign against savages. A change, however, is beginning to be made in the lives of these people in recent years. They are emerging from their primitive condition into an economic existence. They are glad to work on paddy fields and take up other sorts of labour. They are now pretty well initiated into money-saving habits. Their postal savings deposits

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at the end of 1933 amounted to ¥345,615, representing 19,016 depositors, the highest single deposit being ¥5,230 and the average deposit ¥18.17 per head. At present the aboriginal administration consists mainly in finding work for the aborigines and giving them education.

Occupations of Aborigines The work in which the aborigines are mainly engaged is cultivation of paddy fields, stock-raising, sericulture and other kinds of farming. They raised 23,357 koku of unhulled rice in 1933 (one koku being 5.1116 bushels), showing a gain of 1,990 koku over 1932. The authorities also encourage stock-raising. At the end of 1933 the natives had 32,871 pigs, 6,346 buffaloes, 3,373 cattle, and 3,601 sheep. The value of their cocoon crop for 1933 totalled ¥38,511. They also raised sundry other farm products valued at ¥57,860 for the same year. Education is gradually spreading among the aborigines. At the end of 1933 there were 7,414 aboriginal children attending 182 schools maintained at the expense of the Government-General specially for these tribes. In addition, the number of the people attending other kinds of school was 8,628 at the end of 1933. The Government-General authorities also are directing their energy to cultural enterprises for them. The aborigines have their own social organizations, such as the chiefs' societies, women's societies, young men's associations, school children's patron societies, and others. Members of these societies numbered 38,868. Also there were about 32,246 at the end of 1933, who were able to understand Japanese fairly well. Superstition is being gradually eradicated from among the aborigines, as medical attention is being increasingly given them. Free dispensaries provided exclusively for them numbered 224 at the end of 1933. The Government-General established 101 "exchange" houses for them to sell their products. The sales at these houses at the end of 1933 totalled ¥475,144.

Police and Judicature

The Police The Taiwan police consist of men appointed from among Japanese, natives and semi-civilized aborigines. Their services are divided into the ordinary service and aboriginal police service. The police in aboriginal districts are reenforced by police assistants appointed mostly from among natives. These are features of the police services of Taiwan. What is known as the tithing system of Taiwan provides a feature of peace preservation in the island. This system is of Chinese origin and was first adopted as an auxiliary to the police system in 1898. Owing to the satisfactory results attained, it also was extended to the lower grades of the administration in 1909. One tithing group consists of 100 houses and it looks after the peace of the group. In case these groups organize an association, the matter has to be sanctioned by provincial governors or district superintendents. Each group has its chief, who is elected and sanctioned by governor or superintendent. His duty is to maintain peace and order in his tithing district. Members of groups consist of men ranging from 17 to 50 years old and must be of good character. They offer their services free. The number of groups involved in the tithing system of Taiwan was 5,360 at the end of 1933. Many pirates infest the coast of Taiwan, mostly coming from south China. They attack junks during the summer time. The police on duty against these sea raiders are attached to provincial or district governments.

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Judicature The judicature of Taiwan consists of two grades of courts, viz., the supreme court and three district courts, the latter having four branches in all—all under control of the Governor-General. The functions of the various courts are practically the same as those of the courts in Japan proper.

Religion and Education

Religion There are 24 Shinto shrines in Taiwan. The Taiwan Shrine is a first-class Government shrine and is the central shrine of worship for the Japanese people in the island. It is located in a suburb of Taihoku, the capital of the island, and is dedicated to Okuninushi, Oanamuchi and Sukunahikona, all legendary leaders of the early Japanese race, and to His Imperial Highness General Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa, who died in the island when commanding the Japanese expeditionary force in Taiwan during the Sino-Japanese War. Shintoism, Buddhism and Christianity have been propagated by the Japanese since 1895. Confucianism is observed among the natives and Chinese people in the island.

Education The continuous efforts of the Government-General have been rewarded to such an extent that the natives have been receiving education since 1922 together with Japanese in the classes of middle-school grade and in higher institutions, although the elementary education is still given both in the vernacular and Japanese languages. Besides numerous elementary schools, Taiwan had at the end of April, 1934, 10 middle schools, 13 girls' schools, 5 special schools of middle school grade, 4 normal schools, 4 colleges and 1 Imperial University. The Taihoku Imperial University was founded in March, 1928. It consists of two departments, one literature and politics and the other physics and agriculture. The educational expenses for the last five years are:

	Total amount	State expenses	Provinces and districts	Cities, towns and villages
		(In ¥1,000)		
1930	16,916	5,638	7,707	3,570
1931	17,074	5,428	7,709	3,936
1932	16,289	4,820	7,842	3,627
1933	16,723	4,895	7,842	3,985
1934	18,026	5,042	8,391	4,593
Average	17,006	5,164	7,898	3,942

Agriculture

Agriculture is the most important industry of Taiwan. Since the island came under Japan's control, it has made a rapid development and the total farm production in 1933 was warth ¥238,000,000, composing about 50 per cent. of all the industrial production of the island. The area under cultivation in 1900 was 363,290 ko (one ko being 2.377 acres or 2,934 tsubo). It increased to 845,479 ko at the end of March, 1933, more than double that of 31 years ago. The cultivated land is more than 20 per cent. of the island's total area. The area of cultivated land since 1900 has been as follows:

Year	Paddy fields	Dry land	Total
	(In 1,000 ko)		
1900	211	151	363
1908	328	345	673
1912	346	364	710
1917	330	412	742
1922	376	397	773
1927	399	422	821

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Year	Paddy fields (In 1,000 ko)	Dry land	Total
1928	403	425	829
1929	406	423	829
1930	408	428	836
1931	411	424	835
1932	439	400	839
1933	482	362	845

People engaged in agriculture are about 52 per cent. of the total population. At the end of 1933 their number was 2,638,142, of whom tenant-farmers were 998,917, landed farmers 839,181, and landed tenant-farmers 800,044.

Rice Crops The climate is very well suited to rice cultivation especially in the western district, where crops are harvested twice a year. The production in 1933 was about 8,300,000 koku with a value of over ¥120,000,000. Rice forms the chief of the three most important farm products of Taiwan, that is, rice, sugar cane and potatoes. Rice known as Hōrai rice is grown heavily in recent years. Its plantation area for 1933 totalled 240,000 ko and the crop amounted to 3,400,000 koku for two crops a year. The plantation areas and rice crops since 1900 follow:

	Plantation areas (In ko)	Crops (In koku)
1900	360,922	2,052,970
1908	486,274	4,512,143
1912	495,128	4,046,611
1917	480,642	4,833,813
1922	527,096	5,445,814
1927	603,153	6,898,672
1928	603,058	6,795,005
1929	579,274	6,480,762
1930	633,444	7,370,516
1931	653,380	7,479,846
1932	684,928	8,949,216
1933	696,423	8,361,839

Sweet Potatoes Sweet potatoes also are extensively produced almost everywhere and all through the year in the island. The chief producing centres are Tainan, Taichu and Takao provinces. Potatoes serve as fodder for cattle besides being used as ordinary foodstuff. Dried potatoes are shipped to Japan as material for producing alcohol and starch. The export value of dried potatoes for 1931 totalled 43,571,775 kin (one kin being 1.3 pounds), worth ¥748,961. The crop of sweet potatoes for 1902 amounted to 501,160,292 kin and the amount has been increasing yearly since. The 1933 crop totalled 2,355,780,992 kin. The plantation area of 63,147 ko for 1902 increased to 138,060 for 1933.

Tea Tea is one of the principal exports of Taiwan. The export value totals about ¥9,000,000. The tea production amounted to 20,808,765 kin (in plantation area of 28,308 ko) for 1902 and that for 1933 amounted to 15,544,877 kin (in the area of 45,298 ko). Tea plantation was introduced there by immigrants from China. In 1868 some amount of tea roughly made in Taiwan was exported to Amoy, where it was refined, but later the Taiwan producers, bringing tea operators from Amoy and Foochow, began to export refined tea, and in 1869 as much as 280,000 pounds of refined tea were exported to New York. This was the first export of Taiwan tea to America. Then tea production developed considerably year after year. Export tea is classified into four varieties, viz., Oolong, Pouchong, green and black. Oolong and Pouchong teas are most abundantly produced; the former, appreciated by Americans, and the latter, preferred by the people of the South Sea Islands, is exported to Java and Siam. Black tea is extending its markets, and, although not as good as Ceylon tea, it is better in quality than Japanese black tea.

Other Products Other agricultural products are peanuts, beans, wheat, sesame, longan, (otherwise known as "dragon's eye") and vegetables. The yielding areas and production of these farm products for 1933, as compared with those for 1900, follow:

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	Yielding area (In ko)		Production (In koku)	
	1900	1933	1900	1933
Peanuts	11,958	30,724	120,838	475,512
Beans	11,365	19,130	50,281	73,313
Barley	1,479	539	11,460	3,689
Wheat	1,857	667	11,282	5,283
Sesame seeds	6,889	3,900	36,279	11,550
Jute	1,155	3,005	1,481,548 (kin)	8,794,988 (kin)
Hemp	1,654	1,295	1,022,063 ,,	1,424,787 ,,
Tobacco	240	801	363,900 (kg)	1,535,688 (kg)
Oranges	317 (1905)	4,057	2,025,965 (kin) (1909)	49,280,291 (kin)
Pineapples	—	6,626	—	86,800,448
Longan	—	504,025 (trees)	—	8,282,393 (kin)
Vegetables	—	—	—	¥10,000,000

The export of pineapples for 1933 totalled ¥159,444 and that of canned pineapples ¥5,149,572.

Bananas are Taiwan's representative fruits. They are planted everywhere in the island, but are produced most heavily in Taichu province, where 52 per cent. of the total production is got. They occupy the third position in the export list of the island, the first being rice and the second sugar. Bananas exported during 1933 totalled 2,813,558 baskets, worth ¥11,894,123. In 1909 the plantation acreage was 560 ko with a crop of 10,536,062 kin, which increased to 19,228 ko with a crop of 292,555,667 kin.

Live-stock The live-stock raising industry in Taiwan is flourishing. The number of cattle at the end of 1933 was 366,270, of which buffaloes numbered 302,249. Buffaloes play the most important rôle in agriculture. Hog-raising industry is widely maintained and hogs are kept by almost all native farmers. Their number at the end of 1933 was 1,806,489, having increased three-and-half times since the cession of the island to Japan. Poultry consists of chickens and geese, their total number at the end of 1933 being 7,573,504. It was in 1912 that sericulture was started in the island. Before that year no sericulture existed there. It took nearly 10 years before native farmers appreciated it as a side-line. This industry is becoming important among farmers. In the first year the cocoon crop amounted to only 84 koku and it increased to 1,990 koku in 1933. One of the unique features of sericulture in Taiwan is that silkworms can be raised at any time of the year, since even during the winter-time mulberry leaves are grown. Moreover, no insect ravage is experienced in the island. The cost of production is scarcely half of that in Japan.

Agricultural Equipment The Taiwan Government-General has taken every possible measure to encourage the rice cultivation and improve the quality of rice. "Hōrai rice" is a Japanese variety, and after many years' experiment the island succeeded in raising rice of good quality. The inspection of rice has been made under control of the Governor-General since July, 1926. Silkworms are raised and distributed by the Sericultural Experimental Station of the Colonial Development Bureau in the Government-General. The Government-General also is adopting all possible steps for improvement of tea cultivation and for this purpose is training tea-raising experts at its Tea Institute. The Pineapple Experimental Station is maintained under control of the Government-General for promotion of this indus-

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try. Agricultural warehouses, numbering 36, are doing business upon Government subsidy. The immigration of Japanese into Taiwan so far has failed to realize satisfactory results. Farm settlers from Japan proper numbered 3,526 at the end of 1933. They maintain an area of paddy fields covering 1,148 ko and farms covering 1,582 ko. Fundamental farm investigation is being constantly carried on by the authorities. The investigation involves that of land management, tenancy, farm economy, farm production, demand and supply of products and fertilizers, land utilization, farm labour, market prices of farm products, etc. Irrigation work also is pursued on an approved plan. The Landlord and Tenant-Farmers Harmonization Society was established in 1927 under government aid for the improvement of relations between landlords and tenants.

Sugar Industry

Taiwan is the centre of the sugar industry of Japan. The industry has existed since the coming of the Han race to the island and, when the Dutch occupied the island in 1624, sugar had already become one of the staple products of the island. It has maintained the topmost position of Taiwan's industries. At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan the annual output was only about 80,000,000 kin, one kin being 1.323 pounds. Japan proper consumed more than 300,000,000 kin of sugar, most of which had to be imported from abroad.

Dr. Nitobé's Plan Alive to this situation, the Taiwan Government-General concentrated its energy on the increased production of sugar by means of business improvement and expansion, and this has resulted in the present industrial prosperity. Not only has this prevented the import of foreign sugar, but it has contributed a great deal to the exploitation of natural resources and the financial and industrial development of the island. The late Dr. Inazo Nitobé was engaged by the Government-General to work out a sugar-industry development plan. He proposed several measures for industrial development, namely, the improvement of kinds of sugar cane and their cultivation, improvement of pressing and manufacturing methods, the application of artificial irrigation, increased land cultivation and expansion of sugar plantations, the establishment of sugar experimental stations, and the organization of sugar production guilds, as well as other measures. These formed the basic policy of the Taiwan sugar industry. The sugar encouragement regulations were issued in June, 1902. According to these regulations, the Government-General would give a subsidy to sugar-cane planters or sugar manufacturers for cane plantation, fertilizers, cultivation, irrigation, and manufacturing machines, or, if necessary, implements will be lent or given. The subsidies given in this connection up to the end of the fiscal year of 1931-32 totalled ₹12,908,698. The Government-General is adopting a policy of reducing the subsidy with the progress of the sugar industry. With the establishment of sugar mills the competition for the acquisition of canes became severe.

Upon Consolidated Basis In order to prevent evils arising out of this competition, the authorities issued regulations restricting the spheres of cane plantations in 1905. This caused sugar-makers to work on a consolidated basis yearly. As it was impossible for sugar manufacturers to get material from districts other than those designated for them by

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regulations, the makers took great care of the planters working on their fields. Planters also were placed on a definite basis of economy by the regulations, because the canes raised by them could be sold to the mills to which they belonged. When the sugar policy was established, the Extraordinary Taiwan Sugar Affairs Bureau was organized, but it was later replaced by the Sugar Refinery Section of the Colonial Development Bureau. The Government-General first established the Young Cane Seed Experimental Station in Taichu province in 1913. Seeds raised there were distributed to intermediate experimental yards, where they are further grown. Manufacturing companies are bound by duty to distribute these seeds free to farmers within their plantations. Thus the improvement of canes was realized. Young plants distributed till the end of March, 1933, totalled 548,936,040.

The Sugar Experimental Station The Taiwan Government-General Sugar Experimental Station was reorganized and was founded in Tainan city in March, 1932, as the central organization for the promotion of sugar plantation. At first, the Hawaiian "rose bamboo" canes were adopted for the Taiwan sugar cultivation and canes of this kind occupied 96 per cent. of all grown in 1913. Due to lack of adequate measures to keep the quality unchanged, and also to the fact that these canes had little power of resistance against storms they finally deteriorated. Then they were replaced by Java canes. Irrigation is the most important item in a sugar plantation. At the end of March, 1932, the land under irrigation totalled 112,416 ko. The following are figures showing the area of sugar plantations and crop per ko since 1902:

Fiscal year	Plantation area (In ko)	Cane crop (In kin)	Crop per ko (In kin)
1902–03	16,526	683,157,902	41,338
1905–06	35,158	1,690,206,794	48,078
1908–09	39,035	2,219,471,541	56,858
1910–11	75,329	3,159,598,569	41,944
1914–15	85,150	3,933,805,780	46,199
1917–18	150,450	6,817,535,709	45,314
1919–20	108,376	4,382,506,262	40,438
1920–21	142,032	6,752,838,826	47,544
1921–22	123,233	7,793,688,518	63,243
1923–24	130,480	8,825,841,621	67,641
1925–26	123,426	8,615,430,295	69,802
1926–27	101,531	7,411,962,535	73,002
1927–28	108,318	9,697,644,651	89,529
1928–29	120,046	12,291,944,205	102,394
1929–30	109,397	11,618,358,936	106,204
1930–31	99,094	10,944,669,505	110,447
1931–32	109,496	13,415,197,477	122,518
1932–33	83,690	8,782,001,849	104,835

The Refining Industry

The sugar industry at the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan was very primitive. Out of about 1,100 sugar mills, not a single mill had adopted the modern mechanical method of manufacturing, and all of them used animal power. Owing to insufficient pressing power, a large percentage of sugar-substance was wasted during the manufacturing process and, moreover, the product was inferior. By 1934 there were only 92 mills of this kind, as the majority of them were gradually eliminated. In these primitive mills two stone wheel cars or three metal wheel cars are employed for grinding by animal power. Improved mills use pressing machines and motors. Brown sugar is also manufactured. Such mills number only eight, with a total productive capacity of only 910 tons for 1934. The modernly-equipped mills have pressing capacity ranging from 300 to 3,000 tons a day and are able to produce in great quantity. The Taiwan Sugar Manufacturing Company founded in 1901 was the first of its kind. During the financial boom following the Russo-Japanese War many sugar-manufacturing concerns

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were established, and Japan finally leaped into a prominent position among the world's sugar-producing countries. In 1933 there were 49 mills with the daily productive capacities of 28,150 British tons and 13,400 American tons. Most of them produce crude sugar known as centrifugals. Some of them turn out white sugar by a change of milling operation. Sugar-cane pressing capacity and production of white sugar follow:

Companies	Cane pressing capacity (In tons)		Production of white sugar 1929 (In kin)	1933 (In kin)	1934 (In kin)
Taiwan Sugar's Taihoku mill	Brit.	500	7,143,743	4,273,350	3,636,964
Taiwan Sugar's Sharokan mill	Amer.	1,200	30,310,350	28,410,043	22,807,603
Taiwan Sugar's Kibi mill	Brit.	1,200	18,973,300	23,210,074	22,063,274
Meiji Sugar's Shoryu mill	,,	750	—	—	—
Meiji Sugar's Nansei mill	,,	1,000	6,124,800	18,015,650	15,467,001
Meiji Sugar's Ujurin mill	,,	750	13,875,200	11,984,408	11,358,024
Dai Nippon Sugar's Toroku mill	,,	500	10,000,000	16,258,400	16,000,000
Ensuiko Sugar's Shinei mill	,,	1,000	38,383,450	26,193,100	29,090,444
Ensuiko Sugar's Kishinai No. 1 mill	,,	550	25,473,700	27,812,400	37,679,436
Kishinai No. 2 mill	,,	700			
Total	,,	6,950	150,284,543	156,157,425	158,102,766
	Amer.	1,200			

No refined white sugar was produced from Taiwan crude sugar for 1934. Crystallized sugar is produced from the material of white sugar or refined sugar. It is manufactured at the Takao mill of the Ensuiko Sugar Manufacturing Company. The amount totalled 116,900 kin in 1926, but since 1927 the production has been suspended. Molasses is a by-product in making centrifugal sugar. This is used as material for making alcohol and also for fodder, fertilizer and other purposes. The 1934 output totalled 149,216,000 kin.

Summary Summarizing the status of the sugar industry, the cane-plantation area at the beginning of 1902 was 26,167 ko, and there was only one mechanically-operated mill with a daily capacity of 200 tons and capitalization of only ¥1,000,000. In 1927 such mills numbered 45 with a daily productive capacity of 39,414 American tons and total capitalization of ¥290,520,000, although this dropped to ¥245,776,600 in 1933, owing to mergers or readjustment of business. But the capacity increased to 44,928 American tons for 1934. The total production in 1902 was only 90,000,000 kin, but in 1927 it rose as high as 1,315,540,000 kin and further to 1,648,440,000 kin in 1932. It decreased to 1,078,310,000 in 1934 due to curtailment of production as agreed upon among sugar companies.

Companies	Head offices	Capital Subscribed (In ¥1,000)	Capital Paid-up (In ¥1,000)	No. of mills	Daily pressing capacity of canes (American tons)
Taiwan Sugar	Heito, Takao province	63,000	43,080	13	11,814
Shinko Sugar	Tairyo, Takao province	1,200	1,200	1	952
Meiji Sugar	Mato, Tainan province	48,000	39,100	7	8,520
Dai Nippon	Sunamachi, Tokyo city	51,416	45,779	6	7,638
Ensuiko Sugar	Shinei, Tainan province	29,250	17,437	6	5,880
Niitaka Sugar	Wami, Taichu province	28,000	10,750	3	3,284
Teikoku Sugar	Taichu city	18,000	16,195	5	3,234
Showa Sugar	Goketsu, Taihoku province	7,000	7,000	3	1,758
Taito Sugar	Taito	1,750	1,750	2	560
Sango Sugar	Nirinsho, Taichu province	3,350	3,350	1	392
Total		250,966	185,742	49	44,928

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Production of sugar for the 1933-34 fiscal year follows:

Companies	Materials used (In kin)	Sugar production	Production of molasses
Taiwan Sugar	1,902,242,800	286,499,873	36,239,049
Shinko Sugar	88,929,120	12,468,702	2,578,276
Meiji Sugar	1,216,881,480	170,642,359	24,822,798
Dai Nippon Sugar	1,698,987,580	236,367,346	33,104,476
Ensuiko Sugar	1,202,857,600	163,570,965	22,766,558
Niitaka Sugar	363,556,680	50,547,100	7,658,746
Teikoku Sugar	584,462,960	81,494,653	13,306,232
Showa Sugar	217,401,060	30,276,718	4,505,477
Taito Sugar	114,066,690	16,409,280	2,598,111
Sango Sugar	75,308,930	9,061,556	2,044,218
Total	7,463,694,900	1,057,338,552	149,123,941
Improved mills	53,529,571	7,869,235	—
Primitive mills	132,920,527	13,178,332	—
Grand total	7,650,144,998	1,078,386,119	149,123,941

Sugar production in Taiwan since | 1905 has been as follows:

Year (Nov.-Oct.)	Mechanically-operated mills	Improved mills	Primitive mills	Total
		(In kin)		
1905	7,558,418	641,533	74,432,707	82,632,658
1908	28,650,648	21,548,814	59,002,565	109,201,527
1911	323,746,074	67,923,183	58,895,441	450,564,698
1913	105,047,715	7,266,608	6,834,921	119,149,244
1915	313,064,988	18,609,895	15,771,514	347,446,398
1917	681,942,099	44,267,832	37,280,842	763,490,273
1919	435,905,228	17,226,885	33,224,850	486,356,963
1921	401,948,211	8,695,462	10,579,932	421,223,605
1923	581,460,227	3,766,752	7,093,274	592,320,253
1925	778,774,392	8,040,111	12,418,544	799,233,047
1927	671,018,437	5,571,867	8,643,715	685,234,019
1928	952,868,631	6,475,108	7,517,395	966,861,134
1929	1,296,552,378	9,627,008	9,368,152	1,315,547,538
1930	1,330,505,897	11,750,135	8,549,854	1,350,805,885
1931	1,311,805,429	9,534,794	7,458,389	1,328,798,612
1932	1,628,738,003	11,240,564	8,467,753	1,648,446,320
1933	1,028,051,024	16,784,410	11,356,898	1,056,192,332
1934	1,057,338,553	7,869,235	13,178,332	1,078,386,119

Forestry and Afforestation

The surface of Taiwan is covered by mountains to the extent of almost two-thirds of its entire area, and the island is rich in thick forests of immense depth. Forest protection and afforestation are done on an approved system by the Government-General. The great mountain ranges running north to south with numerous peaks provide vegetation peculiar to temperate as well as to tropical and sub-tropical regions. The most renowned of the natural forests of Taiwan are those on the mountains in the central ranges, from Taibysan in the south to the peninsula of Koshun; those on famous Mt. Arisan; those on Mt. Rokujodaisan in the north; and those on Mt. Seiran. Besides these, there are also extensive forests in the valleys of the River Dakusui and in some districts of Karenko. The total forest area in Taiwan is estimated approximately at 2,960,822 acres, 76,669 acres of government forests, 266,963 acres of protected forests, and 299,427 acres under afforestation. Building-timber, sleepers and other forest products turn-

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ed out from the government forests amount to the annual value of ¥250,000. When the Portuguese first discovered the island, they were impressed with the immense expanse of forests and cried "Formosa!" signifying "beautiful." Reckless cutting of trees was done by Chinese immigrants and this, combined with the lack of adequate forest administration of the Manchu Dynasty, resulted in the devastation of forest districts. The Forest Bureau was established in 1915 and since then forest protection has been carried on in an approved manner by the Government-General.

Timber Industry The timber industry of the Arisan group is controlled by the Government-General. This famous mountain group is located east of Kagi in Tainan province and is on the Tropic of Cancer. It stands 9,240 feet high. It is covered with red cypress, Mongolian oak and hemlock. The former two kinds of wood are highly valued. There are many trees aged more than 3,000 years. Even the Imperial forest at Kiso in Nagano prefecture has few oaks of such great age. Timber used for the building of important shrines such as the Kashiwabara Shrine, dedicated to the memory of Jimmu Tenno, the first Emperor of Japan, the Imperial Mausolea at Momoyama for the Emperor Meiji and Empress Shoken, and the Meiji Shrine was grown on these mountains. The two great pillars constituting the torii of the Meiji Shrine are estimated to be 1,900 and 1,090 years old respectively. Both came from these mountains. The number of these valuable trees at the end of 1933 was 1,112,186. The Government-General spent ¥4,898,212 as initial outlay for the five years ending in 1912. This included ¥2,643,015 for railway construction, ¥1,200,000 as subsidy for Fujita Gumi, Osaka, which temporarily undertook the enterprise for the Government-General, ¥1,052,869 as general expenses, and ¥2,327 for other purposes. Lumbering work started in 1912. Sales of lumber amounted to ¥1,586,458 for 1929; ¥1,366,296 for 1930; ¥1,210,274 for 1931; ¥1,061,852 for 1932 and ¥1,139,310 for 1933. The total amount of timber on Mt. Arisan is estimated at 6,073,970 cubic metres which may be divided into 2,948,590 c. m. of coniferous trees and 3,125,380 c. m. of broad-leaved trees. The lumber industry of Mt. Arisan also is noteworthy. This mountain is not far from Toyohara in Taichu province. Pine and spruce as well as cypress, hemlock, oak and other trees are produced there. Due to its dangerous location in the so-called savage district, the lumber industry on the mountain was undeveloped before the campaign against the aborigines was completed. The lumber industry on Mt. Taihei near Rato town in Taihoku province is considered one of the most promising of all in the island. Until 1913 the mountain was not exploited, because it was a stronghold of the most savage aboriginal tribe. The quantity of timber on the mountain is estimated at 14,159,000 cubic metres, nearly four times that of Mt. Arisan. Work started in 1915 and has so far realized satisfactory results. Sales of lumber totalled ¥1,327,865 for 1929; ¥1,135,780 for 1930; ¥1,038,067 for 1931, ¥905,705 for 1932 and ¥1,024,507 for 1933.

How Disposed Taiwan wood is not only used for shrine and temple construction, but for building of warships and merchant-ships. Demand from naval arsenals and dockyards is yearly increasing. Taiwan wood is exported to Japan proper, Korea, China, British India, South Africa, Australia and other places. Sales to the market in the island, Japan

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proper and foreign countries from 1916, when the sales began, to 1933, follow :

	Amount (In cubic metres)	Value (In yen)
1916		
Sales in island	42,296	835,098
Sales to Japan	17,728	385,900
Sales abroad	911	24,556
Total	60,935	1,245,554
1929		
Sales in island	67,934	2,435,373
Sales to Japan	22,582	1,125,117
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	90,516	3,560,490
1930		
Sales in island	67,414	2,140,650
Sales to Japan	19,653	955,681
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	87,067	3,096,331
1931		
Sales in island	75,540	1,928,817
Sales to Japan	21,101	1,002,895
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,641	2,931,712
1932		
Sales in island	78,130	1,833,816
Sales to Japan	18,269	699,575
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	96,399	2,532,891
1933		
Sales in island	86,408	2,002,383
Sales to Japan	21,560	769,037
Sales abroad	—	—
Total	107,968	2,771,420

Aquatic Products

The seas about Taiwan are rich in various kinds of fish and shellfish, and the catches are especially abundant in spring and autumn. Fishing is to a great extent still conducted in a primitive manner. There are, however, now 25 fishing companies having their headquarters in the island with an aggregate capitalization of ¥5,217,000 and four having their headquarters in Japan proper with a total capitalization of ¥56,050,000. There were 88 fish markets in the island at the end of March, 1933, and the total fish sales there during the year ending March 31 amounted to ¥10,269,000 and showed an increase of ¥1,560,000. The Takao Fish Market led the list. The Taiwanese are a fish-eating people, but the annual catch is so great that a large quantity is exported to Japan proper and other countries. Taiwan's marine product trade for 1933 amounted to ¥12,196,568, exclusive of salt, showing an increase of ¥507,943 over the previous year. Trade figures include exports abroad totalling ¥1,303,368, imports from abroad totalling ¥339,292, exports to Japan proper totalling ¥2,588,266 and imports from these districts totalling ¥7,965,642. The making of dried bonito is the largest marine products industry. The annual output of dried and canned marine products is worth about ¥1,900,000, half of which goes to the dried bonito production. The marine production of Taiwan follows :

	Catches	Manufacturing	Cultivated fish production	Total
		(In yen)		
1921	5,943,217	1,665,125	2,153,856	9,762,198
1923	9,030,651	3,303,756	1,943,565	14,277,972
1926	10,225,692	2,822,618	3,326,298	16,374,608
1927	10,822,119	2,505,311	3,920,591	17,248,021
1928	12,670,180	2,706,623	3,401,779	18,778,582
1929	14,446,265	2,775,420	3,734,684	20,956,369
1930	11,771,144	1,793,273	3,142,981	16,707,398
1931	8,482,776	1,524,869	3,047,254	13,054,899
1932	9,197,468	1,545,164	3,130,800	13,873,432
1933	10,806,670	1,908,982	3,223,832	15,939,484

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Mineral Products

The principal mineral products of Taiwan are gold, silver, placer-gold, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, zinc, coal, petroleum, sulphur and phosphorus. The mine-lots at the end of March, 1933, numbered 593 with a total area of 173,596,842 tsubo, one tsubo being six feet square. Mines in operation numbered 168 covering an area of 78,474,656 tsubo. Of these 168 mines, 2 were gold mines, one gold-copper mine, 10 placer-gold mines, 132 coal mines, 11 sulphur mines and 13 oil fields. The mineral production for 1932 totalled ¥13,950,889, showing an increase of ¥613,099 over 1931. The mineral production in 1897 and during the last five years follows :

	1897	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
			(In yen)			
Gold	—	377,362	625,422	636,486	722,733	1,681,592
Gold-copper ores	—	1,489,899	3,136,877	3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157
Placer-gold	8,805	10,497	11,047	9,421	11,611	57,017
Silver	—	13,879	12,997	10,790	10,003	16,632
Copper	—	88,398	67,655	154,799	174,419	294,388
Gold ores	—	—	69,551	81,401	70,750	—
Quicksilver	—	—	7,572	—	2,488	—
Coal	103,078	13,547,784	10,064,568	9,613,416	7,164,598	6,571,195
Sulphur	—	54,221	33,670	33,217	51,290	37,148
Phosphorous ores	—	—	—	2,448	648	—
Petroleum	—	730,021	434,735	381,804	263,631	245,944
Gasolene	—	201,240	382,598	760,729	1,797,275	994,003
Carbon black	—	—	—	—	43,552	205,527
Total	111,883	16,513,801	15,090,613	15,141,198	13,337,790	13,950,888

The Government-General conducted a mineral and geological investigation for eight years over the island following the introduction of civil administration in 1896. As a result, oil distribution was found almost all over the island. Subsidies were granted to those who had proper equipment for boring for oil to a depth of more than 2,000 feet. The subsidy was given from 1901 to 1924. It was then suspended, owing to financial reasons, but was resumed in 1930. Metal ores are found exclusively in the extreme north and the eastern district, coal in the northern and central parts and oil all over the island, especially in the central and southern districts. The mineral production in 1897 was only ¥112,000, but in 1907 it increased to ¥2,255,000, and in 1933 to as much as ¥13,950,888. Of this more than 50 per cent. was coal, gold-copper ores 23 per cent. ; gasolene 13 per cent.; gold 5 per cent.; other minerals in smaller amounts in the following order : petroleum ; copper, gold ores, sulphur, silver, placer-gold and phosphorous ores.

Gold and Silver Placer-gold was first discovered by Japanese invaders in Taiwan over 400 years ago, when Japanese pirates infested the neighbouring coasts of China. It was then got at Takkiri Gorge in Karenko district. In later years placer-gold was found in several localities, but at present the mining is conducted along the Keelung and other rivers. When the mining was most prosperous in 1903, the annual output reached 161 kan, one kan being 8.267 lb., valued at ¥610,000, but since then the industry has been sinking. The 1931 output was only 3.165 kan. A gold vein was first discovered at Mt. Kubu in 1893. In the following year gold deposits were found at Kinkwaseki and in

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1891 another vein was discovered at Butanko. The gold mining interests at Butanko and Kinkwaseki was merged in 1913. The mining operation is done at Zuiho and Kinkwaseki. The Kinkwaseki mine is located about 10 miles east of Keelung. It is managed and operated by the Tanaka Mining Company, Ltd. The mining area at the end of 1931 was 4,053,000 tsubo. It has its own refinery.

Production at the mine for three years ending 1932 follows:

		1930	1931	1932
Gold:	Output	233,681 grammes	226,534	208,844
	Value	¥310,717	301,043	433,241
Silver:	Output	383,700 grammes	96,199	426,639
	Value	¥8,591	7,961	11,858
Gold-copper ores:	Output	132,200 metric tons	95,476	108,809
	Value	¥3,457,187	3,027,792	3,709,157
Gold ores:	Output	1,249 metric tons	1,345	1,157
	Value	¥81,401	70,750	78,982
Precipitated copper:	Output	721,680 kilogrammes	1,383,709	1,620,124
	Value	¥154,799	174,419	294,388
Total Value		¥4,013,107	¥3,582,945	¥4,527,626

Fujita Gumi, Osaka, first operated the Zuiho Mine in 1898, but the enterprise was transferred to the Taiyo Mining Company in 1920. Business has failed to realize satisfactory results. Its gold and silver output for three years follows:

		1930	1931	1932
Gold:	Output	281,828 grammes	315,518	569,749
	Value	¥325,769	420,690	1,238,051
Silver:	Output	87,911 grammes	119,235	180,968
	Value	¥2,209	2,062	4,774
Total value		¥327,978	422,753	1,242,825

Other Minerals The output of sulphur in Taiwan for 1932 amounted to ¥37,148 and that of quicksilver for the first six months of 1931 amounted to ¥2,488, but since then the mining operation has been at a standstill. The coal output for 1932 amounted to 1,354,995 tons, worth ¥6,571,195, showing a drop of ¥593,403 from 1931.

Oil Oil in Taiwan was discovered by a Chinese about 80 years ago at Shukotan, near the Koryu valley, over an area covering 599,670 tsubo. Since 1905, 71 oil wells have been sunk. Well No. 18 is the best of all. From 1913 to 1925 the oil output from this well totalled 53,205 koku, by the Nippon Sekiyu Kaisha (Japan Oil Company, Ltd.). Owing, however, to the concentration of energy on the exploitation of the Kinsui Oil Field by the company, the output has gone off from the daily output of 300 koku. Lamp oil, gasoline, light oil and paraffin are manufactured from crude oil obtained here. The oil refinery is in Byoritsu.

The production from the crude oil is gasoline, 5 per cent., lamp oil 85 per cent., heavy oil 8 per cent. and wax.

The Kinsui oil field is the most important one in Taiwan. It is operated by the Japan Oil Company. A government subsidy was paid to exploit wells No. 1 to No. 5. It took eleven years for well No. 5 to realize satisfactory results. Well No. 10 produced an enormous out-

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put of 30,000,000 cubic feet a day in March, 1930, and a gasolene plant was installed there in November of the same year. When the capacity of the gasolene plants is fully developed, the daily output of gasolene will be 1,000 koku.

Other Industries

Prior to the World War, industries other than sugar and tea developed very little in the island. Since the War, however, chemical, spinning, machinery and other miscellaneous industries have developed to a considerable extent. The more important of them for 1933 follow:

	Yen
Metal Industry:	
Tin plates	1,469,000
Gold and silver works	1,688,000
Machinery Industry:	
Sugar refining machinery	3,464,000
Agricultural implements	1,123,000
Ceramics Industry:	
Tiles	2,172,000
Cement	3,870,000
Chemical Industry:	
Alcohol	4,277,000
Mineral oil and wax	1,282,000
Vegetable oils	1,211,000
Refined camphor	1,296,000
Mixed fertilizers	3,689,000
Food Stuff Industry:	
Soy sauce	1,843,000
Flour	2,057,000
Sugar	127,119,000
Confectioneries	4,658,000
Canned pineapples	6,173,000
Macaroni	2,635,000
Ice	1,261,000
Polished rice	1,038,000
Miscellaneous Industries:	
Woodworking	4,000,000
Hats	4,552,000
Others and total	207,700,000

Of the total 1932 industrial production amounting to ¥207,700,000, the foodstuff industry totalled ¥154,000,000, or 74 per cent., the chemical industry ¥18,000,000, or 9 per cent., other industries ¥15,000,000, or 7 per cent., the ceramic industry ¥8,000,000, the mechanical and tool industry ¥5,400,000, the metal industry ¥4,000,000, and the spinning industry ¥2,700,000.

Overseas Trade The overseas trade of Taiwan, although it has experienced temporary set-backs from time to time, has made remarkable progress in recent years. The bulk of overseas trade is, however, with Japan proper, the rest being chiefly done with China, the United States, the Straits Settlements, the Dutch East Indies, the United Kingdom, Germany, British India, the Kwantung Leased Territory and Hongkong. The trade is carried on principally through the four large ports of Keelung, Tamsui, Anping and Takao. As Keelung is the most important port of trade in the north, so is Takao in the south. The trade volume for 1898 amounted to ¥30,000,000 which increased to ¥50,000,000 in 1906, and, owing to the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry and import of sugar milling machinery, the amount went up to more than ¥100,000,000 in 1910. In 1917 the amount recorded a further gain to ¥234,000,000, due to active trade in sugar, alcohol and rice and heavy transit trade with China. An all-time record of ¥476,803,950 was made in the trade volume for 1929, but the amount declined sharply the following year, because of the universal economic depression, and in 1931 it went off still more though it somewhat regained in 1932. Taiwan's overseas trade since 1897 has been as follows:

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OVERSEAS TRADE VOLUME

	Exports abroad and exports to Japan proper and its colonies	Imports from abroad and imports from Japan proper and its colonies (In yen)	Total	Index
1897	14,856,848	16,383,020	31,239,868	100
1902	21,131,769	19,335,822	40,467,591	130
1906	28,038,612	28,371,801	56,410,413	181
1910	59,962,255	48,923,289	108,885,544	349
1913	62,791,679	62,632,416	125,424,095	401
1916	112,347,948	65,021,600	177,369,548	568
1921	152,488,500	133,954,458	286,892,958	916
1925	263,214,651	186,395,340	449,609,991	1,439
1926	251,425,070	183,412,450	434,837,520	1,392
1927	246,676,284	186,948,387	433,624,671	1,388
1928	248,417,285	190,653,933	439,071,218	1,406
1929	271,893,266	204,910,684	476,803,950	1,526
1930	241,441,304	168,258,310	409,699,614	1,311
1931	220,872,866	145,622,123	366,494,989	1,173
1932	240,727,988	164,497,770	405,225,758	1,298
1933	248,413,329	185,388,938	433,802,267	1,389

TAIWAN FOREIGN TRADE

	Exports	Imports (In yen)	Total	Excess of imports
1901	8,234,097	12,809,975	21,044,072	4,575,878
1905	10,629,607	10,963,877	21,593,484	334,270
1909	11,687,576	12,591,470	24,279,046	903,894
1911	14,960,228	19,307,126	34,267,354	4,346,898
				(export excess)
1916	31,652,474	15,430,037	47,052,511	16,222,437
1921	23,541,621	40,433,290	63,974,911	16,891,669
1925	47,965,844	56,489,060	104,454,904	8,523,216
1926	49,315,487	62,007,666	111,323,153	12,692,179
1927	44,597,707	65,840,396	110,438,103	21,242,689
1928	33,895,688	58,335,729	92,231,417	24,440,041
1929	33,187,977	64,541,012	97,728,989	31,353,035
1930	22,807,963	45,131,193	67,939,159	22,323,230
1931	19,448,759	30,858,816	50,307,575	11,410,057
1932	18,045,250	31,040,823	49,086,073	12,995,573
1933	17,666,418	35,142,961	53,142,961	17,810,125

LIST OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Oolong tea	Pouchong tea	Camphor	Coal	Sugar	Cotton textiles	Matches
1901	2,996	505	789	134	1,031	382	14
1905	5,341	892	2,051	112	25	502	37
1909	4,301	1,506	4,377	92	2	342	57
1912	4,057	2,563	4,409	117	1,719	379	117
1916	3,936	2,323	4,669	400	11,327	419	1,910
1921	3,534	4,386	280	6,582	2,068	435	545
1925	5,220	6,172	3,609	7,448	5,887	497	518
1926	5,407	6,771	1,949	8,437	3,177	499	176
1927	5,102	6,454	1,895	6,174	2,550	496	458
1928	4,315	5,493	3,215	3,964	1,252	314	383
1929	3,423	5,765	1,653	3,308	453	280	231
1930	2,608	5,785	1,085	2,872	67	111	34
1931	2,350	4,489	1,586	2,295	2,356	80	155
1932	2,802	1,886	1,547	1,315	3,174	1,054	188
1933	2,894	1,816	2,962	1,530	563	363	210

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Of the above, tea deserves special mention. In 1931 production of unrefined tea amounted to 16,037,678 kin, worth ¥3,228,822, and that of refined tea 14,959,584 kin, worth ¥8,323,837. Refined tea included ¥2,845,069 of Oolong tea, ¥5,071,499 of Pouchong tea, ¥392,165 of black tea, and ¥15,104 of green tea. The tea is almost exclusively produced in Taihoku and Shinchiku provinces. Oolong tea is appreciated by Britishers and Americans. The largest amount goes to the United States and the second largest amount to Great Britain. Pouchong tea is shipped to the South Sea islands. Tea exports for 1933 follow :

	Exports abroad		Exports to Japan proper and colonies		Total	
	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)	Quantity (In kin)	Value (In yen)
Oolong	6,664,677	2,894,245	8,493	8,604	6,673,170	2,902,849
Pouchong	3,672,614	1,816,576	375,382	116,521	4,047,946	1,933,097
Black tea	845,409	557,963	526,388	623,847	1,371,797	1,181,810
Green tea	471,463	97,598	—	—	471,463	97,598
Total including others	12,214,569	5,446,499	1,651,691	942,961	13,866,260	6,389,460

LIST OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

(In ¥1,000)

	Opium	Leaf tobacco	Lamp oil	Gunny bags	Lumber	Matches	Bean cake
1901	2,310	242	841	21	430	74	74
1905	2,927	522	670	218	410	166	84
1909	2,379	650	785	307	428	346	422
1912	3,093	890	756	100	608	496	1,962
1916	3,724	460	554	448	330	746	3,073
1921	1,504	821	1,947	395	2,119	574	6,352
1925	2,816	810	1,307	2,794	1,711	1,233	16,777
1926	987	754	1,107	2,485	2,332	897	13,744
1927	837	910	1,395	2,411	2,692	596	12,289
1928	451	845	1,180	2,050	2,978	524	12,526
1929	1,081	283	1,484	2,884	2,946	689	12,757
1930	1,122	343	1,014	2,407	1,499	511	10,252
1931	1,128	275	636	1,652	1,103	527	7,354
1932	707	318	669	1,327	556	488	10,342
1933	148	582	534	2,718	283	501	11,593

TAIWAN'S TRADE WITH JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In yen)

	Exports	Imports	Total	Balance
1902	7,407,498	9,235,290	16,642,788	1,827,792
1906	18,259,528	15,634,341	33,893,869	2,625,187
1909	36,309,500	24,006,803	60,316,303	12,302,697
1912	47,831,451	43,325,290	91,156,741	4,561,161
1916	80,695,474	49,591,563	130,287,037	31,103,911
1920	181,091,635	112,070,364	293,161,999	69,021,271
1921	128,896,879	93,521,168	222,418,047	35,375,711
1925	215,248,807	129,906,280	345,155,087	85,342,527
1926	202,109,583	121,404,784	323,514,367	80,704,799
1927	202,078,577	121,107,991	323,186,568	80,970,586
1928	214,521,597	132,318,204	346,839,801	82,203,393
1929	238,705,289	140,369,672	379,074,961	98,335,617
1930	218,633,341	123,127,117	341,760,458	95,505,224
1931	201,424,107	114,763,307	316,187,414	86,660,800
1932	222,682,738	133,456,947	356,139,685	89,225,791
1933	230,746,911	149,912,395	380,659,306	80,834,516

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LEADING EXPORTS TO JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Rice	Sugar	Canned pineapples	Camphor	Camphor oil	Alcohol	Bananas
1902	1,608	3,172	—	869	921	—	—
1906	7,133	8,506	18	600	1,190	—	—
1909	8,779	33,001	—	—	1,610	111	155
1912	10,260	28,134	—	1,008	1,561	1,502	336
1916	6,960	51,685	—	1,602	2,313	7,686	1,054
1920	19,294	84,709	—	1,517	1,976	5,801	4,156
1925	72,110	105,651	—	2,087	2,468	3,854	9,096
1926	63,092	98,375	—	1,618	2,976	4,081	10,900
1927	67,885	96,430	3,145	1,078	1,887	3,616	8,616
1928	58,229	121,413	2,604	1,572	1,757	3,602	8,614
1929	49,320	142,601	4,407	2,612	3,040	3,505	8,419
1930	38,695	141,865	3,481	1,255	2,422	2,592	8,369
1931	41,097	120,475	4,157	766	1,824	3,054	8,329
1932	63,074	121,718	5,151	963	2,062	2,975	6,982
1933	64,627	118,614	4,791	1,174	1,554	5,455	7,899

LEADING IMPORTS FROM JAPAN PROPER AND ITS COLONIES

(In ¥1,000)

	Wheat flour	Dried and salt fish	Iron	Cotton and silk tissues	Paper	Lumber	Fertilizers
1902	57	98	235	1,065	223	705	8
1906	—	324	—	2,121	384	1,131	59
1909	—	1,567	—	2,586	492	1,692	1,060
1912	—	3,053	—	5,016	838	2,939	1,524
1916	—	3,667	—	5,775	1,157	1,158	3,990
1920	—	4,920	—	7,736	2,868	3,066	4,355
1925	—	5,905	—	15,708	3,422	2,194	6,691
1926	—	6,056	5,764	19,805	3,065	3,395	4,745
1927	2,983	6,135	8,126	14,942	2,989	4,044	4,138
1928	2,985	5,498	8,695	15,077	3,237	4,822	4,692
1929	3,126	6,547	9,087	16,873	3,567	5,807	5,170
1930	2,374	4,032	7,901	13,394	3,254	4,535	5,832
1931	2,011	3,412	7,343	13,596	3,233	4,216	4,319
1932	2,716	3,253	8,013	13,358	3,470	5,491	7,745
1933	2,710	3,535	10,458	15,105	3,970	6,276	11,225

Finance

The Bank of Taiwan is invested with authority to issue notes. This bank was founded in September, 1899, replacing the Taiwan Agency of the Bank of Japan. The bank was capitalized at ¥5,000,000 when it was founded. After 1920 its capitalization was increased to ¥60,000,000, but in September, 1925, it was cut to ¥45,000,000 and further to ¥15,000,000 in November, 1927, due to its readjustment following the great financial panic of the spring of 1927. The head office is in Taihoku and it has 31 branches and one agency in Japan and abroad. The Japan Hypothec Bank maintains its real estate business in Taiwan and the outstanding balance of its loan in the island at the end of 1933 amounted to ¥79,890,000. The aggregate capitalization of banks having their head offices in the island at the end of 1933 was ¥28,300,000, of which ¥20,670,000 was paid up. The balance of deposits at the end of 1933 was ¥132,260,000, of which savings deposits totalled ¥9,410,000, and the outstanding balance of loans totalled ¥246,690,000. Exchange deals for the 1933-34 fiscal year totalled ¥843,940,000 for income and ¥779,420,000 for payment. The balance of note issue of the Bank of Taiwan at the end of 1933 totalled

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¥48,990,000, of which excess issue was ¥5,220,000.

Government-General Finance The finance of the Taiwan Government-General has become independent from subsidization by the general accounts of the Central Government since the 1905-06 fiscal year, owing to favourable income following the Russo-Japanese War. In 1897 the revenue was about 11 million yen. In 1907, 10 years after the establishment of special accounts in Taiwan, the revenue increased to three times that amount; in 1917, after 10 more years, to six times; in 1927, to 12 times; and in 1929 to 13 times the first figure. Revenue and expenditure follow:

	Revenue (In yen)	Expenditure
1897	11,283,265	10,487,610
1907	35,295,772	27,709,751
1917	65,425,496	46,166,558
1927	138,626,830	101,533,285
1929	150,420,607	122,295,326
1930	129,757,760	109,970,881
1931	115,972,147	99,060,013
1932	120,303,279	97,240,295
1933	130,812,152	102,220,615
1934 (budget)	110,821,261	110,821,261

Bonds Expenses required for enterprises such as the railway construction, land investigation, Keelung harbour construction, building of government offices, river work, Takao harbour construction, and purchase of private railways were raised by bonds. The outstanding balance of bonds in 1900 was ¥3,200,000, which increased to ¥34,465,399 in 1910, ¥94,213,038 in 1925, ¥106,946,733 in 1927 and ¥126,331,288 at the end of 1933.

Monopolies

The products of Taiwan, opium, salt, camphor, tobacco, and saké are placed under monopoly of the Taiwan Government-General.

Opium The Taiwan Chinese, mostly natives, were addicted to opium smoking when Japan assumed ownership of the island. It was found impossible to eradicate the habit at once, and in order to limit the use of the drug a government monopoly, controlling the manufacture, sale and retail distribution of opium, was established. Smokers are registered and have to obtain a licence to buy the drug. In this way and also through education of the rising generation the vice is being gradually eliminated. The total names registered in September, 1900, reached 169,064, of those to whom the licences were granted. The number of licenced smokers at the end of 1932 had decreased to 19,532, of whom 16,532 were males and 3,254 females. The Chinese people who smoke opium on licence at the end of 1932 numbered 191, of whom 174 were males. Japan, in conformity with the spirit of the League of Nations' International Opium Treaty, has been endeavouring to stamp out the bad habit of opium smoking and has realized satisfactory results so far.

There are two forms of opium, viz., "treacle-opium" for smoking, and powder; the latter is sold only for medicinal purposes. Raw material obtained from poppies is imported from British India, Persia and Turkey. The Persian products are widely used now. Sales to licensed smokers are made by the Monopoly Bureau to specially designated wholesalers through provincial and district governments. The sales price to these wholesalers is ¥1.61 per 15 grammes, that from wholesalers to retailers is ¥1.63 and that from retailers to consumers is ¥1.77. 15 grammes is the maximum amount that one smoker is permitted to buy at one time: this must last him for three days.

Sales have been decreasing yearly as follows:

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	Quantity	Total sales
1902	130,723,125 grammes	¥3,008,386
1906	87,690,750	4,359,497
1910	80,320,875	4,844,534
1913	86,326,500	5,289,495
1918	76,326,750	6,650,764
1922	51,558,000	5,449,345
1930	88,095,125	4,010,655
1931	31,585,625	3,320,071
1932	26,136,075	2,819,388
1933	21,553,200	2,350,363

Salt This was monopolized in 1899 by the Government-General. In former days the fields were only 197 ha. producing about 10,800,000 kg. a year, but in 1933 they were increased to 1,878 ha., producing 191,000,000 kg. Sales of salt in 1905 were only ¥557,876, which increased to ¥2,718,840 for 1933.

Camphor Taiwan maintains a monopoly on the cutting, distillation and selling of camphor. The island is rich in camphor trees, particularly in what are known as the "savage districts", and is the greatest camphor-producing country in the world. For many years after it came into Japan's possession, the production of camphor was a free industry, but the necessity of improving the quality compelled the Government-General to assume monopoly in 1899. The camphor production amounts to about 3,000,000 kilogrammes a year, which represents 70 per cent. of the world's production. The manufacturing of camphor and camphor oil used to be entrusted to the Taiwan Seino Kaisha, but in July, 1934, the Government-General purchased it and now places the production and sales of their articles under its direct control. The improved B-quality camphor is sold by the monopoly bureau as material for refined camphor or celluloid. Refined oil is directly sold by the bureau in Taiwan, but in Japan it is sold to industrialists through the Japanese Government Monopoly Bureau. It is exported abroad on consignment mostly to the United States, Great Britain and other countries. The United States is the largest consumer. The sales price of improved B-quality for 1932 was ¥145.50 per kilogramme f.o.b. Taihoku and ¥148 f.o.b. Kobé. By-products are widely used for making insecticides. As the demand for camphor increases yearly, the Taiwan Monopoly Bureau is carrying out a camphor-tree plantation plan covering an area of 135,246 acres, for the production from natural-grown trees is expected shortly to become too small to meet the future demand. The annual proceeds from the camphor monopoly average nearly ¥12,000,000. The United States used to buy about ¥2,400,000 of camphor a year, but the export amount has decreased somewhat in recent years, owing to the invention of synthetic camphor.

Tobacco The tobacco monopoly in Taiwan dates from 1905. At the beginning of the monopoly the quality of tobacco grown in Taiwan was so poor that the leaves had to be imported from China. Efforts were made by the authorities for the improvement of native-grown leaves. Now tobacco cultivated in Taiwan is not inferior to Chinese tobacco. In addition to the Chinese variety, a successful experiment has been made in the cultivation of an American yellow variety for cigarettes, and another for cigars. The area of tobacco plantation in Taiwan was about 776 ha. in 1933 and the crop of leaves about 1,535,689 kg. The proceeds of tobacco monopoly for the fiscal year 1906-07 totalled ¥1,492,284, which increased to ¥11,531,850 for the year 1921-22, ¥16,275,916 for the year 1929-30, but declined to ¥14,465,962 for the year 1931-32, advancing to ¥15,247,299 for the 1932-33 year.

Saké and other drinks These have

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been placed under monopoly since 1922. The sales of saké and other alcoholic drinks under the monopoly are not restricted to those made in Taiwan only, but include all drinks imported from Japan proper and other countries. Drinks now brewed in Taiwan are of 31 kinds besides saké. The saké monopoly furnishes a large source of revenue for the Government-General and brings in about ¥5,000,000 a year, of which the tax on alcohol totals ¥2,000,000 and that on alcoholic drinks ¥3,000,000.

Railways

At the time of Japan's occupation of Taiwan there was a 62-mile railway between Keelung and Shinchiku. Railway construction was undertaken by the Government-General subsequently and now the total mileage is 881 km. The railway receipts are as follows :

Fiscal year	Passenger fares	Freight receipts (In ¥1,000)	Others	Total	Indices
1900-01	214	127	1	342	100
1906-07	1,062	1,138	9	2,209	648
1916-17	2,575	3,544	44	6,163	1,455
1922-23	5,616	6,541	—	12,157	3,540
1926-27	7,488	9,711	—	17,199	5,008
1927-28	8,002	10,644	—	18,646	5,428
1928-29	8,277	11,420	—	19,697	5,735
1929-30	8,349	11,915	—	20,264	5,900
1930-31	7,720	11,391	—	19,111	5,564
1931-32	6,897	11,367	—	18,264	5,317
1932-33	7,109	11,742	—	18,851	5,488
1933-34	7,468	11,862	—	19,331	5,628

PRIVATE RAILWAY STATISTICS IN TAIWAN

Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (in ¥ 1,000)	Freight receipts	Others & total	Indices for income
1707-08	120	50,120	34,900	85,194	100
1922-23	478	779,567	1,274,828	2,067,510	2,428
1926-27	525	986,557	2,060,641	3,089,685	3,627
1928-29	551	993,761	2,302,948	3,326,098	3,904
1929-30	554	929,023	2,345,612	3,308,648	3,884
1930-31	542	775,164	2,168,499	3,001,102	3,534
1931-32	530	544,704	1,752,781	2,332,097	3,737
1932-33	534	460,706	1,913,548	2,406,931	2,825
1933-44	502	453,595	1,499,054	1,998,246	2,346

Light Railways

	Mileage (in km.)	Passenger fares (In ¥1,000)	Freight receipts	Total	Indices for income
1907-08	267	—	—	—	100
1922-23	880	807	1,223	2,030	608
1926-27	1,022	962	1,543	2,505	751
1928-29	1,162	945	1,652	2,597	778
1929-30	1,329	867	1,551	2,418	727
1930-31	1,327	688	1,357	2,045	613
1931-32	1,367	562	1,096	1,658	497
1932-33	1,325	520	1,049	1,569	470
1933-34	1,247	521	1,129	1,650	494

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Electricity

The Taiwan Electric Power Company, Ltd., was established in April, 1919, under ordinance of the Taiwan Government-General. The Government-General appraised all of its electric assets at ¥12,000,000 and offered them to the company. The Government-General owns the company's shares to that amount, being the largest shareholder. The company started a gigantic power-generating undertaking, utilizing the water of Lake Jitsugetsutan, in August of the same year, but, owing to the subsequent financial depression, the work was suspended. In 1929 the resumption of work was decided on and the necessary amount, $22,800,000 (¥45,737,211) was raised in America in July, 1931, on Government guarantee. Work was actually resumed in October of the same year on a three-year plan. Taiwan's electric enterprises at the end of 1933, are summarized as follows:

Companies	Capitalization	Lamps fitted	Powers supplied kw.	Fans fitted
Taiwan Electric Power	¥34,495,000	578,657	19,301	27,857
Taiwan Electric Light	1,500,000	67,418	1,903	1,823
Taiwan Godo Electric	2,000,000	26,297	564	369
Karenko Electric	1,240,000	11,125	445	209
Koshun Electric	100,000	1,241	—	—
Nansho Electric	8,500	154	—	—
Total	39,343,500	684,892	22,213	30,258

Principal Cities

Taihoku Taihoku is the capital city of Taiwan. It is situated on the Tamsui River, near the northern extremity of the island. Formerly it consisted of three districts, Jonai, Daitotei and Manka, but with the introduction of the municipal system in 1920, all the surrounding villages were included in the greater Taihoku, and at present the city covers an area of about 15 square miles, embracing a population of 196,000, including 54,000 Japanese, 128,000 natives and 13,000 foreigners, mostly Chinese residents. In Jonai are found the important public buildings, such as the official residence of the Governor-General, and many governmental buildings. Most of the Japanese residents live in this district. Daitotei is the commercial centre. It is inhabited by more than 63,000 people and is renowned for its tea trade. Manka is situated close by the Tamsui River, west of Jonai. This district was formerly the most flourishing part of the city. During the Manchu Dynasty its commercial supremacy was transferred to Daitotei. This district is populated by 37,000 inhabitants. There are many places of interest in and around Taihoku, of which the more famous are:

TAIWAN SHRINE This shrine is situated at a point two miles east of Taihoku. The sanctuary is built in the old Japanese style. In the neighbourhood is the noted Maruyama park commanding a very fine view.

THE RAPIDS OF SHINTEN KEI Situated at a point about 8 miles from Taihoku and at the confluence of the two rivers of Shinten-Kei, the rapids are among the chief attractions for visitors to Taiwan. On both sides stand out precipices. Shooting the rapids by boat affords a favourite pastime.

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Tamsui This is one of the four great ports of trade. It is located 13 miles north of Taihoku. About one mile west from Tamsui station lies the ruins of an old Khomoh castle, built by the Spaniards in 1626.

Keelung This is the starting-point of the railway which runs from north to south throughout the whole length of the island. The city with its 62,000 inhabitants extends as far as Taihoku covering a distance of 18 miles. Keelung is not only a port for liners from Japan proper, but is an important port for those sailing to and from south China and the South Seas. Keelung was once occupied by Spaniards and afterwards by the Dutch, and was under the control of the Manchu Dynasty. About 1.5 miles distant from Keelung is located the famous Courbet Beach, where the French Admiral Courbet, in command of the French Asiatic Squadron consisting of 15 warships, landed during the Franco-Chinese War in 1884. This admiral was one of the victims of infectious disease, which claimed a heavy toll among his men. He died on Boko Island where his tomb still stands.

Taichu Located about 100 miles south of Taihoku in the centre of rice production. It is the seat of the provincial government of the same name, with a population of 42,000. Lake Jitsugetsutan is in this province.

Kagi Kagi has a population of 44,800 and is situated 163 miles south of Taihoku. Kagi is the starting point for climbers of Mt. Arisan.

Tainan Tainan has a population of 85,000, being the second largest port of Taiwan. Kaizan Shrine is dedicated to the spirit of Chen Cheng-kung, a loyal subject in the last days of the Ming Dynasty, who came over to this island, drove out the Dutch settlers, and opened war against the Manchu Dynasty, but failed.

Takao Takao has a population of 45,000. Terminus of the central railway line, situated at a distance of 229 miles from Taihoku, this port is as important in the south as Keelung is in the north.

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CHAPTER XLII

KARAFUTO (SAGHALIEN)

General Survey

Geography Karafuto is a long island situated in the extreme north of the Empire of Japan along the Maritime Province of Siberia, and separated from it by the Mamiya Straits. The eastern coast is washed by the cold waters of the Sea of Okhotsk, which is bordered by the mainland of Siberia on the north, the Kamchatka Peninsula on the east, and the Chishima Islands (the Kuriles) on the south-east. Japanese Karafuto is the southern half of Saghalien Island, the dividing line being the 50th parallel of latitude; the northern half of the island is under the jurisdiction of Soviet Russia.

At the extreme southern end of the island lies Cape Nishi-Notoro. On the east or opposite side of it, across the Aniwa Gulf, is Cape Nakashirutoko, and embraced by these two capes is the port of Ohtomari at the northern extremity of the Gulf, which is an important port connecting with Wakkanai the extreme northern port of Hokkaido, across the Soya Straits. The traffic connection between Ohtomari and Wakkanai is maintained by freight boats run by the Imperial government railways.

Beyond Cape Nakashirutoko lies Taraka Bay, on the farther side of which Cape Kitashirutoko runs out to the north-east. Thus, Karafuto is deeply indented by the two large gulfs, Aniwa and Taraka, the latter lying to the north-east of the former. The island has two mountain ranges running parallel from north to south with the plains hemmed in between. The total area of Karafuto is 36,090.3 sq. km., the length being 455.6 km. and the breadth from 27.5 at the narrowest to 157 km. at the widest.

Climate The months which enjoy an average temperature above the freezing point are the seven months from April to October. The coldest month is January and the warmest August. The temperature rises suddenly as the thawing season approaches and falls abruptly when the snows set in. The western coast is warmer than the eastern owing to the warm ocean current. The island is, as a whole, high in humidity on account of the frequency of sea fogs, except for the southern point of the western coast, but in both spring and autumn it decreases. Rainfall is most abundant in the summer and autumn seasons.

Population The great majority of the population of Karafuto is Japanese. The following table shows the racial distribution at the end of 1933:

POPULATION BY RACE OR NATIONALITY

Japanese	Korean	Ainu	Other Natives	Chinese	German	Polish	Russian	Total
293,168	5,048	1,354	483	59	2	16	173	300,298

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POPULATION IN CHIEF TOWNS
(Dec. 31, 1933)

Toyohara	33,474	Shirutoru	18,877	Hontocho	10,590	Tomarioru	10,459
Ohtomari	30,561	Esutoru	21,043	Maoka	16,161	Rutaka	10,168
Shikuka	17,567	Ochiai	17,567				

Administration The chief administrative office of Karafuto is the Karafuto government and the governor is under direct control of the Minister of Overseas Affairs, but the powers of the former are far wider than those of a governor in the home land, as it extends over mining, forestry, taxation, railways and the postal service. The governmental work of Karafuto is subdivided into four main offices, i. e., Secretariat, Interior Bureau, Forestry Bureau and Police Bureau. The revenue budget of 1934 amounted to ¥25,929,056, of which ¥21,392,488 was from taxes and others, and the rest from various government undertakings and loans to the extent of ¥3,500,000.

Finance

The revenue of the Karafuto government is derived from taxes and other sources of income as well as an annual replenishment from the ordinary account of the national treasury. The principal taxes are :— the town homestead tax, income tax, business profit tax, liquor-brewing tax, liquor-export tax, consumption tax, mining business tax, and fishery tax. The revenue from all these taxes was, in the 1932-33 budget, estimated at ¥1,401,871. The revenue, other than from taxes, consists of receipts from the sales of stamps, railway traffic and freight charges, medical treatment charges at governmental hospitals, charges receivable at the Central Experiment Station, receipts from the sales of trees felled in the state forests, rents of homesteads and various Government buildings and loans. Below is given a brief fiscal history of the Karafuto government :

REVENUES (Yen)

	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1907	1,037,046	629,406	—	—	1,666,452
1908	763,542	629,406	454,464	—	1,847,412
1909	1,061,424	500,500	277,956	—	1,839,381
1910	1,229,705	544,714	260,524	—	2,034,943
1911	1,369,045	570,657	137,479	—	2,077,181
1912	1,534,991	591,819	169,949	—	2,296,759
1913	2,062,574	389,291	219,082	—	2,670,947
1914	1,548,748	323,575	392,901	—	2,265,224
1915	1,495,046	323,575	191,191	—	2,009,912
1916	2,058,576	293,575	329,255	—	2,681,406
1917	2,619,315	323,575	829,563	—	3,772,453
1918	2,936,793	—	1,663,970	1,091,000	5,692,761
1919	3,570,658	800,000	2,720,110	1,178,500	7,764,269
1920	5,221,674	770,000	2,022,404	3,381,209	11,395,291
1921	7,057,103	1,483,000	3,109,807	4,173,290	15,775,205
1922	8,386,012	1,100,000	3,707,623	7,607,920	20,801,558
1923	12,436,861	1,786,000	2,753,969	4,475,436	21,452,266
1924	15,772,056	1,000,000	2,168,245	416,218	19,357,520
1925	16,000,305	900,000	78,454	1,700,000	18,678,760
1926	18,339,308	1,577,343	618,814	1,786,562	22,322,027
1927	18,414,702	2,029,635	4,587,927	1,845,052	26,877,316

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	Taxes and non-tax elements	Replenishment from national treasury	Sum brought forward	Loans	Total
1928	21,963,835	2,029,635	6,894,976	1,857,924	32,646,370
1929	22,280,159	3,100,000	6,955,100	4,569	32,339,827
1930	21,192,064	1,600,000	3,752,468	—	26,544,532
1931	22,944,655	1,600,000	79,281	1,500,000	26,123,936
1932	19,001,609	1,600,000	826,744	1,000,000	22,428,353
1933 (estimates)	17,679,022	1,600,000	787,646	3,500,000	23,566,668
1934 „	21,392,488	1,000,000	36,568	3,500,000	25,929,056

EXPENDITURES

1907	1,211,968
1908	1,569,455
1909	1,578,857
1910	1,897,465
1911	1,907,231
1912	2,077,677
1913	2,278,046
1914	2,073,933
1915	1,680,657
1916	1,851,843
1917	2,108,483
1918	2,972,651
1919	5,741,865
1920	8,285,484
1921	12,065,581
1922	18,047,589
1923	19,284,026
1924	19,279,065
1925	18,059,946
1926	17,734,099
1927	19,982,340
1928	25,691,270
1929	28,587,359
1930	24,629,293
1931	26,123,936
1932	22,428,353
1933	23,566,668
1934	25,929,056

Monetary Organs

The principal monetary organs in the island are the Hokkaido Colonial Bank and the Karafuto Bank. The former is represented by its branches at Toyohara, Ohtomari, Maoka, Honto, Noda, Tomarioru, Ochiai, Shirutoru, Shisuka and Rutaka ; its head office being located at Sapporo, Hokkaido. The business operation of the bank in the island at the end of June, 1933 showed deposits amounting to ¥16,585,702 and loans advanced to ¥15,390,225. The Karafuto Bank is the only one having its head office in the island, its deposits totalling ¥2,150,869 and loans advanced ¥3,496,138 on the same date. The bank came into existence in May, 1914, with a capital stock of ¥500,000 which was increased to ¥2,000,000 in March, 1919. The Karafuto Bank has its head office at Ohtomari and a branch at Maoka. The two banks are doing good work for the development of the island. Beside these banks there is a special bank which has a branch at Toyohara, and that is the Hokumon Savings Bank. This savings bank branch was opened on April 1, 1922. Its local business operation showed at the end of June, 1933, advances figured at ¥183,221 and deposits at ¥677,578.

Military Training Camps

The military training camps ordinance was promulgated in April, 1926, providing for the establishment of camps for the military drilling of youths below the conscription age. The ordinance, however, was not promulgated in the oversea territories, the only exception being Karafuto, where the local authorities in view of the almost complete lack of nationalistic social work in operation and of the smallness in the number of non-Japanese elements in the population, issued an order in May of the same year, making possible the growth of the military drilling work for the youths. Below is shown the present status of the work so far carried on :

MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

Town	Number of Camps	Attendants
Toyohara	8	238
Ohtomari	7	249
Honto	5	146
Maoka	7	351
Tomarioru	7	164
Motodomari	3	115
Shisuka	4	81
Total	41	1,344

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Overseas Trade

The history of the overseas trade of Karafuto since 1905 is a history of steady expansion, though it underwent a frequent recession in the course of those 27 years. The table below illustrates the trend in a more graphic way:

Year	To Foreign Countries (Yen)	To Japan proper (Yen)	Total (Yen)
1927	755,135	90,193,622	90,948,757
1928	937,710	97,000,380	97,938,090
1929	2,042,652	103,034,631	105,077,283
1930	2,335,126	82,140,506	84,475,632
1931	841,655	80,233,395	81,075,050
1932	274,447	92,626,343	92,900,790

SHIPMENTS TO AND FROM JAPAN PROPER

Year	Outward-bound (Yen)	Inward-bound (Yen)	Total (Yen)	Excess of Outward-bound (Yen)
1927	48,740,382	41,453,240	90,193,622	7,287,142
1928	50,915,329	46,085,051	97,000,380	4,830,278
1929	56,388,752	46,645,879	103,034,631	9,742,873
1930	46,812,144	35,328,362	82,140,506	11,483,782
1931	50,984,860	29,248,535	80,233,395	21,736,325
1932	63,510,076	29,116,267	92,626,343	34,393,809

Principal shipments to Japan proper in 1933 consisted of pulp, lumber, paper, marine fertilizer, salt-salmon, salt-codfish, dried herring, dried codfish, fish oil, edible seaweed and canned crabs. Principal shipments from Japan proper during the same year consisted of rice, cotton goods, oils, beer, saké, oats, peas and beans, salt, sugar, soy (Japanese sauce), miso (bean paste), tobacco, fish and shellfish, vegetables, fruits, and mineral products.

Trade with Foreign Countries

The ports open to foreign trade in Karafuto are Ohtomari and Maoka. The countries with which Karafuto entered into trade relations first were Chosen, China, and Eastern Russia. In 1923 the Kwantung Province was brought into trade contact with the island. Two years later there grew up commercial intercourse with Britain, America and Germany, and then in 1926 Spain, Belgium, the Dutch Indies and Egypt became customers of Karafuto. In 1910 the total exports amounted to ¥106,809 and the total imports to ¥307,979. The exports, however, gradually diminished until in 1917 they very nearly ceased. That year saw the same shrinkage in imports also, so that the returns in that year for both the export and import trade showed only ¥68,059. From that point, however, the tide ceased to ebb. A gradual improvement set in after 1918 and the flowing tide recorded a sudden increase in 1919 which reached ¥879,828 in 1921. The imports in that year were only ¥44,725. For some years after, however, somewhat adverse results were recorded. In 1926 the imports were ¥986,914 and the exports ¥2,612, but this adverse tide was increasingly reversed and readjusted as the years went on and the turning point was reached when, in 1929, the exports made a big stride to ¥1,323,407 as against ¥719,245 for imports. In 1930 the exports were ¥1,987,608 and the imports ¥347,518 and in 1931 the exports amounted to ¥635,660, as against the imports which amounted to ¥205,994. The following table contains further detailed information.

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EXPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	81,834
Soviet Russia	155	—	—	—	—	8,000
China	82,075	943,708	1,739,906	635,650	898	—
Kwantung Province	116,978	374,699	247,540	10	4,347	18,049
America and European Countries	—	—	162	—	212	—
Total	199,208	1,323,407	1,987,608	635,660	8,558	107,883

IMPORT TRADE OF KARAFUTO

	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
Manchoukuo	—	—	—	—	—	1,340
Soviet Russia	1,599	5,961	54,553	2,851	192	5,413
China	27,278	32,318	1,781	—	76	—
Kwantung Province	259,135	208,748	91,176	97,121	76,679	126,069
America and European Countries	450,490	472,218	200,008	106,022	188,267	126,293
Total	738,502	719,245	347,518	205,994	265,889	259,205

EXCESS OF IMPORTS OVER EXPORTS

1926 (Yen	1927 (Yen)	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
984,303	702,431	539,294	—	—	—	257,331	—

EXCESS OF EXPORTS OVER IMPORTS

1926 (Yen)	1927 (Yen)	1928 (Yen)	1929 (Yen)	1930 (Yen)	1931 (Yen)	1932 (Yen)	1933 (Yen)
—	—	—	604,162	1,640,090	429,666	—	—

Agriculture

There was practically no agriculture in Karafuto prior to its cession to Japan in 1905. No sooner had it passed into Japan's possession than vigorous steps were taken for the reclamation work of all arable lands. Today the annual farm production reaches approximately ¥3,000,000, farm workers 46,364 and arable lands over 400,000 hectares. Yet the lands under actual cultivation cover only 30,000 hectares, which shows that there is still room to accommodate more farming inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are grains, peas and beans, potatoes and green vegetables, and of the grains oats and rye are most abundantly produced. Keeping livestock goes hand in hand with agriculture in the island, for it is by pasturing that the livelihood of the agricultural settlers is made more stable. Every assistance is, therefore, being given by the Karafuto government to live-stock raising. Cattle, horses, swine and foxes are the principal animals kept, with some sheep, rabbits, chickens, ducks, etc. In 1931 the total live-stock product amounted in money value to ¥1,020,203, just one-half of the entire value of farm products.

Mineral Products

Coal The most important mineral product in the island is coal and next to it comes petroleum. The coal producing centres are divided into the northern, southern and central districts. The coal bed is of the tertiary formation consisting of up-

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per, middle and lower measures. Of the three coal districts the central is the largest and belongs to the lower measure. It runs for 100 kilometres from north to south and has a breadth of from 2 to 5 kilometres. A portion of the southern coal field along the western coast and the greater portion of the northern and eastern coal fields belong to the upper measure. On the northwestern coast there are several important coal fields belonging to the middle measure. The upper measure belongs to the Pliocene and the middle and the lower to the Eocene Period.

At the end of 1933 there were 14 coal fields under operation of an aggregate area of 97,915,360 square metres as against 6 coal-fields of a total area of 23,562,593 sq. metres in 1921. The following table shows the general trend of the increase :

Year	Number of coalfields	Area (sq. m.)	Quantity	Value (Yen)
1921	6	23,562,593	115,255	1,328,512
1922	6	23,562,593	114,547	1,238,198
1923	6	23,562,593	167,304	1,809,422
1924	9	32,030,708	199,385	2,255,713
1925	7	34,413,720	250,615	2,737,970
1926	11	36,982,649	245,220	2,712,289
1927	12	37,470,086	357,046	3,553,731
1928	12	49,626,496	539,481	4,887,989
1929	11	46,923,352	635,515	5,743,322
1930	14	97,915,360	644,963	5,622,177
1931	—	—	637,962	5,249,915
1932	—	—	677,389	5,200,889

Of all the coal mines that of Kawakami used to be the most productive, though now superseded by O-hira mine. Its annual output coming up to 175,875 metric tons in 1932 and 190,210 tons in 1933. The O-hira mine had an annual production of 204,277 tons in 1932 and 290,901 tons in 1933. The Kawakami Mine extends over about 800 hectares located at a distance of 32 km. from Toyohara and is owned and operated by the Mitsui Mining Company, Ltd. The O-hira Mine is operated by the Oji Paper Mills, Ltd. The mine is located at a point about 15 km. northeast of Esudori. Other large coal mines are the Shirutoru, Osakayé, Higashi-Shiraura, Kashiho, Amauchi, Naihoro, Estoru, Chitosé, Mita and Tokai. It is of interest to note from the figures below how the coal-mining work is gaining in importance in the island :

COAL PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION

(Metric tons)

	Production	Shipments from Japan proper	Imports	Exports to Japan proper and foreign countries	Local consumption
1926	275,819	79,327	20,000	6,200	368,946
1927	357,046	49,901	19,953	8,388	418,512
1928	539,481	28,389	8,000	1,530	574,340
1929	635,515	22,469	4,935	16,380	646,539
1930	644,947	12,687	—	12,646	644,988
1931	637,962	3,960	—	38,079	603,843
1932	677,389	241	—	51,833	625,797
1933	888,907				

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As shown above, so far as the supply of coal is concerned, Karafuto has now become practically self-supporting. Its entire coal reserves are said to be approximately 2,000 million metric tons. It must be remembered that the coal mining business in the homeland (Japan proper) is becoming increasingly difficult to run on a paying basis. The situation in Karafuto is different. There in the island most of the coal mines are worked out in unified and large-scale bases, and the reserves are so large that it insures the continuance of paying operation for many long years to come.

Petroleum Petroleum was first discovered at a point on the south-western coast of Karafuto in 1907 when an official investigation was conducted, after which oil strata were discovered in the neighbourhood of Hontocho, Konotoro, Karabutsu, Maruyama and several other places. In 1930 digging operations were conducted over a total area of 23,204,106 square metres as against 13,344,900 square metres in 1929 and 10,000,800 square metres in 1925. The following shows the annual production :

Year	Amount (Ton)
1920	154,293
1921	115,255
1922	114,549
1923	166,986
1924	199,385
1925	250,615
1926	275,823
1927	357,046
1928	539,481
1929	635,515

Fishery Products

The chief fishery products of Karafuto are herrings, salmon, codfish, trout, crabs, whales and fur-seals, the average yearly catches reaching as much as ¥10,000,000 to ¥20,000,000 in value. There are about 4,000 households dependent upon the fishery industry in the island, the number of fishing-boats in use being about 10,000. Of these varieties the herring comes first in importance, the annual catch being figured at approximately ¥9,000,000. Most of these fishery products are canned in the distributing centres in the island, which did a business of ¥2,119,427 in 1930, ¥1,509,969 in 1929, ¥1,036,744 in 1927 and ¥687,577 in 1926. Of all the canning centres Maoka ranks first, with the total production valued at ¥1,069,265 in 1930. Next comes Shisuka with ¥402,100 and then Tomarioru with ¥340,088 in the same year. Edible seaweed is obtained along all parts of the coast, but principally along the western coast and Aniwa Gulf, the annual production reaching ¥689,600 in 1930. The Seal Island located on the north-eastern edge of Taraka Bay is the only breeding spot of fur-seals in Japan. When the southern half of Saghalien came into Japan's possession in 1905, seal hunting in this small island was prohibited, and every possible protection was given to their breeding. In 1911 the hunting ban was alleviated, the annual number to be killed being limited to 550. In 1913 it became apparent to the supervisors that the number of landing fur-seals was decreasing, so in 1915 the ban was again imposed and was maintained until 1917. It was then withdrawn, with an annual permit to kill up to 550 head. In 1924 the hunting of old, non-breeding fur-seals was started. This increased the production in the year to 824 head and that in the following year to 942. In 1930 the total reached 1,715, and 1,704 in 1931. In accordance with the Fur-Seal Treaty concluded by Japan with the United States and Russia in 1911, Japan is paying 10 per cent. annually of the profit from this fur-sealing to the governments of these two countries.

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Whales are principally hunted by the ships of the Oriental Whale-Hunting Company which has a base for that purpose in Aniwa Gulf. The catches amounted to 39 head in 1927, 36 in 1928, 34 in 1929 and 36 in 1930. In 1931 none were hunted. The following shows the money value of the chief fishery products:

FISHERY PRODUCTS IN MONEY VALUE (Yen)

Kind	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Herrings	13,716,713	14,676,786	9,811,698	8,020,723	6,756,851	6,868,066
Trout	2,647,685	1,219,258	1,161,910	609,279	369,120	1,927,229
Salmon	334,397	232,904	328,340	194,625	115,885	210,498
Codfish	1,755,999	1,568,439	1,220,662	916,877	878,429	845,675
Sardines	—	129,582	96,481	19,273	136,945	215,284
Soles	153,652	161,235	98,770	52,634	65,296	153,940
Crabs	198,971	1,310,395	1,661,553	1,749,480	937,335	1,683,325
Seaweed	778,899	642,398	745,251	689,600	934,927	501,406
Whales	85,846	124,732	88,149	14	—	—
Sharks	13,105	14,852	4,263	1,990	6,004	4,216
Hypomesus japonicus	48,564	39,289	26,246	19,486	14,216	35,588
Shellfish	109,270	100,047	158,685	131,912	34,218	76,084
Others	694,280	661,293	507,067	344,526	388,842	674,039
Total	20,557,432	20,880,610	15,909,075	12,750,419	10,638,181	13,195,350

Timber Production

The island is so thickly and extensively covered with primeval forests that, according to an authoritative estimate, about 2,976,491 hectares, i. e., about 83 per cent. of the entire area of the territory, is forest land. In this estimate is included 833,333 hectares reserved for future growth and 79,365 hectares in use for the field work of the Imperial Universities of Tokyo, Kyoto, Hokkaido and Kyushu. There are about 49 species of trees and 73 of shrubs growing on the island, but those that have any commercial value are the Ezo-matsu (Picea ajanensis, Fisch), todo-matsu (Abies sachaliensis, Mast), gui-matsu, ichii (the yew, Taxus baccata), shirakaba (the silver birch, Betula alba), doroyanagi (a willow), hannoki (the black alder) tamo, and a few others. Their distribution is regular, according to district. In the low coastwise districts we find the yanagi, hannoki, tamo, etc.; on the higher levels grow the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu, and as we climb the slopes forests of the graceful silver birch mix with and replace the pines (matsu), growing thicker and thicker as the mountain peaks are approached. The gui-matsu (a pine species) grows principally in the lower, damper land. But the todo-matsu and Ezo-matsu are the species which predominate in nearly all parts of the island, occupying as much as 80 per cent. of the total forest land. The revenue from the forestry amounted to ¥1,982,221 in 1933.

Forest Administration In ancient times the entire island of Karafuto was nothing but thick forest and the natives seem to have had no rules to prevent them from felling trees whenever or wherever they chose; but they apparently felt no need to fell any large amount of standing trees. The land was almost as primeval as could be imagined when it was ceded by Russia to Japan in 1905. Moreover, during the earlier period of the new régime, devasta-

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tion by fire was not infrequent. On the other hand, the increased number of population in the island had the effect of increasing the demand for timber in various ways. The first task which confronted the Karafuto government in their forest administration was therefore how to protect the forests from devastation, how best to fell and how to re-stock. As a tentative re-stocking measure large amounts of seeds of todo-matsu, Ezo-matsu, Kara-matsu and silver birch were sown on a wide burnt patch of mountain-side in the neighbourhood of Ochiai in June, 1920. As the experiment was satisfactory, it was decided to make seeding the principal method to be applied for the re-stocking of lands with trees, and the decision was carried into effect on a tract of 15.47 hectares in 1921 and, further, on a tract of 50.01 hectares in 1922. This marks the first period in the re-foresting history of the island. The next period began when, in 1923, the seeding work was carried on over a total tract of 4,285.09 hectares and lasted for the following three years. In 1926 the third period dawned when the acreage was further extended to 11,272.60 hectares and at the same time supplementary sowings were made on 7,740.26 hectares. In 1927 seedings were carried on over a tract of 10,460.74 hectares and the supplementary sowings made on a tract of 2,569.68 hectares. Below more detailed figures are given:

Year	New Seeding (Hectares)	Supplementary Seeding (Hectares)
1921	15.47	—
1922	50.01	—
1923	4,285.09	—
1924	4,754.39	—
1925	7,259.07	—
1926	11,272.60	7,740.26
1927	10,460.74	2,569.68
1928	7,571.17	—
1929	8,442.45	—
1930	445.00	—
1931	—	—
1932	407.03	—
1933	85.10	—
Total	49,998.12	10,309.94

Seedling Work With the increased need of constantly re-foresting mountains specially with saplings, the seedling work has become quite important. In 1912 the first sapling-plantation was established at Toyohara. But it was since 1920 that its number began to increase, and now there are 17 sapling-plantations established throughout Karafuto producing annually about 6 million saplings. On this subject we have the following figures:

Location	Acreage (Hectares)	Date of Establishment
Toyohara	15.2110	5/1912
Shimisu	4.9500	5/1920
Tokobo	13.0485	5/1920
Tominaigishi	7.9467	,,
Tomarioru	4.6761	,,
Takarazawa	4.9889	,,
Kawakami	6.7287	,,
Otomari	4.9893	5/1926
Tamagawa	19.4040	5/1927
Yamashitagawa	6.1684	5/1927
Minaminazuki	5.3328	5/1929
Obara	6.8878	5/1929
Kitakotami	13.8217	5/1929
Towada	0.1530	5/1920
Onotoro	1.2500	5/1930
Nayori	7.4250	4/1931
Kamishisuka	14.9100	4/1931
Total	137.8869	—

Felling Work The present Government's felling work was started in May, 1927, on the estimated basis of an annual production of 535,743 cubic metres of timber. But, in view of the difficulty felt in marketing, the annual aggregate felling was reduced to the basis of 196,370 cubic metres. The business result in the year 1933 was as follows:

	(Yen)
Receipts	1,982,221
Expenses	535,939

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TIMBER PRODUCTION FOR LAST 10 YEARS

Year	Felling (Koku)	Shipment (Koku)	Delivery (Koku)
1923	2,259,485.77	1,904,560.83	2,111,630.09
1924	2,366,545.98	2,502,820.31	2,547,288.54
1925	1,100,388.91	2,130,118.02	2,169,525.38
1926	744,982.00	1,274,698.17	1,319,501.38
		(cubic metres)	
1927	541,680.473	25,429.015	7,137.030
1928	459,340.777	494,156.669	509,218.183
1929	492,061.608	497,863.054	504,930.773
1930	198,742.706	455,250.462	455,250.462
1931	205,587.861	202,115.850	202,115.850
1932	201,020,000	196,532.000	196,532.000

Forests for University Field Work It was in April, 1914, that a forest tract of 20,000 hectares along the basins of the Ai-kawa (Ai River) and Odasamu-kawa (Odasamu River) was given to the Tokyo Imperial University for the field work of forestry students of its College of Agriculture. Prior to this forest grant the Hokkaido Imperial University was the recipient of a tract of 19,746 hectares of forest area along the basin of the Chinnai-kawa for the same purpose in June, 1913. A tract of 20,345 hectares along the Hoyekawa also was granted to the Kyushu Imperial University in April, 1914. Lastly the Kyoto Imperial University was the recipient of a land-grant of 19,933 hectares along the Kotagishi-kawa and Ato-kawa. Thus, the total area of lands granted for the field work of university students totals 80,024 hectares. The following shows the working result of these university forests in 1930 :

	Tokyo (Yen)	Kyoto (Yen)	Hokkaido (Yen)	Kyushu (Yen)
Receipts	76,178	161,852	14,605	91,928
Expenditures	64,760	28,854	18,780	81,066
Balance	11,418	132,998	4,175	10,862

As it became more and more evident that the re-foresting work with plant-seeds was less economical than had been expected, in 1928 the seeding area was considerably reduced as has been shown in the preceding table, and, instead, greater efforts were made in re-stocking work with saplings, with the result that the total area thus planted reached 900 hectares in that year and 6,124 hectares in 1931. The following shows the result of re-foresting work with saplings in the last 10 years ending 1931 :

Year	Area Planted (Hectares)	Area Supplementarily Planted (Hectares)
1922	34.71	—
1923	19.83	—
1924	58.95	19.83
1925	95.75	—
1926	241.13	25.93
1927	576.16	69.36
1928	918.85	79.92
1929	831.49	567.47
1930	1,244.58	408.55
1931	2,088.44	457.37
Total	6,109.89	1,628.43

Fire Prevention Work The work of fire prevention was initiated in 1922

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over a stretch of 13,495 metres of forest area, mostly of the area artificially re-planted. But in recent years the prevention work was extended over natural forests, it consisting in making openings or glades, so that in 1933 the total length of these openings for protection from fire reached 992,607 metres.

FIRE-PREVENTION OPENINGS

Year	Extension (metres)
1922	13,495
1923	78,297
1924	87,973
1925	15,173
1926	237,973
1927	157,530
1928	119,129
1929	95,729
1930	22,062
1931	27,962
1932	82,840
1933	55,444
Total	992,607

Re-foresting Work The forest-re-stocking work has hitherto been concentrated on treating burnt patches of mountain side by means of either seeding or of planting saplings, but more recently all forest specialists have come to the conclusion that in Karafuto better re-stocking results would be attained by encouraging the natural recruiting process and this conclusion was put in practice first in 1929 over an area of 173.36 hectares and then in 1930 over an area of 47.90 hectares. In 1931 the same work was carried on over an area of 92.60 hectares, bringing the total area accorded this treatment to 313.86 hectares.

Industrial Development

With the growth of railway facilities the population began to increase, and, with it, various trade and industrial opportunities became more promising. Ohtomari and Maoka are the two ports with the best future outlook, being connected by railways at Toyohara, the seat of government of the island. Paper-pulp manufacturing, canning, brewing, starch manufacturing and butter-making are the leading industries in Karafuto. On December 31, 1932, there were 364 industrial companies incorporated in the island, their aggregate capital being figured at ¥130,330,114 with ¥81,419,808 paid up. The aggregate value of all products in the same year was ¥75,246,895, of which manufacturing products reached ¥48,485,505, (60 per cent.) as against ¥37,569,366, the aggregate sum of all products in 1920 and ¥17,987,842, the total of manufacturing products, in the same year. The comparison shows that there took place a 180 per cent. increase in the turnout of manufacturing products in the 10 years under review. But in view of the almost unlimited quantity of raw materials in the island the progress made so far might be taken as simply indicative of a greater industrial future yet to be fulfilled. Various experiments for industrial purposes were conducted and are being continued at the Industrial Experimental Laboratory at Toyohara.

Pulp In 1913 the first pulp factory was opened at Ohtomari by the Oji Paper Manufacturing Company, already then one of the leading paper manufacturing companies in Japan; then another was at Tomarioru by the Karafuto Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha, both starting operations in 1915. Soon the World War, which stopped import of paper from foreign countries to Japan, gave an opportune stimulus to the speedy development of the industry and at present there are eight pulp factories in the island turning out an aggregate of 175,000 metric tons of pulp and

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130,000,000 kilogrammes of paper valued at ¥43,900,000. This means that at present about one-half of the total pulp supplies are from Karafuto. Below is given further information in this respect:

PULP FACTORIES IN KARAFUTO

Company	Location
Oji Paper Manufacturing Company[1]	Ohtomari
" " " "	Toyohara
" " " "	Noda
" " " "	Tomarioru
" " " "	Maoka
" " " "	Esutoru
" " " "	Ochiai
" " " "	Shirutoru

1 The Oji, Karafuto Kogyo and Fuji were amalgamated in May, 1933, into one concern which retains the name of Oji Paper Manufacturing Co., with a capitalization of ¥150,000,000.

PRODUCTION AT EACH PULP FACTORY (AT THE END OF 1932)

Company	Factory	Manufactures	Productive Capacity (French ton)	Quantity Produced	Amount (Yen)
Oji	Otomari	Pulp	18,000	—	—
"	Toyohara	Pulp	71,000	21,925	2,042,141
		Paper		2,197	284,800
"	Noda	Pulp	15,000	8,947	1,036,626
		Paper		7,749	1,652,093
"	Maoka	Pulp	24,000	21,022	3,874,423
		Paper			
"	Tomarioru	Pulp	22,500	36,822	3,725,700
		Paper		3,141	485,200
"	Esutoru	Pulp	169,700	7,620	673,600
		Paper		25,825	6,570,589
"	Ochiai	Pulp	54,000	70,270	8,061,925
		Paper		31,439	6,570,589
"	Shirutoru	Pulp	72,500	16,507	1,855,971
		Paper		38,335	6,792,697
Total		Pulp		162,091	17,395,963
		Paper		129,710	24,587,313

Brewing Brewing of saké and other liquors was started in Karafuto soon after it became Japanese territory. But it was found that the original equipment was unsuited for working at the low temperatures encountered on the island, and the earlier attempts were unsuccessful. The local demand for saké was so pressing, however, that the promoters felt it worth while endeavouring to improve all defects in equipment and to procure water of better quality. The result proved to be promising, and today the island-brewed saké is as good as any produced in Japan proper. There are at present about 50 breweries.

PRODUCTION AND SUPPLIES OF SAKÉ

	Production		Import from Japan Proper	
	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (Yen)	Quantity (thousand deci-litre)	Value (Yen)
1926	72,613	3,842,245	19,771	1,240,445
1927	69,467	3,636,155	19,567	1,222,755
1928	66,603	3,862,093	25,467	1,490,544
1929	65,181	3,043,598	22,147	1,367,567
1930	45,614	1,926,964	18,331	956,698
1931	41,316	1,839,171	19,053	953,183
1932	42,748	1,800,385	17,287	921,881

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Canning Industry The canning industry in this island goes back to 1909, and in 1917 the canneries numbered 111, with a total production of ¥3,370,558. Crab-canning heads the list; but the reckless catching following that year caused a falling-off in the production, which was reduced to ¥1,458,000 in 1920. The canneries were also reduced in number, numbering only 38 in the same year. Two years later this number was further decreased to 14. In 1925 2 new factories were opened, but the aggregate turnout shrank to ¥663,400. In 1927, however, there took place a sharp revival in the industry. Canneries increased to 20 in number, and production rose to ¥1,029,768 in value. In 1929 the production increased further to a total amount of ¥1,479,969, and in 1930 to ¥1,624,955. In 1931 the number of canneries was 25, and their aggregate production reached ¥1,730,739, showing thus that the productive capacity of each unit of canneries has made a marked expansion. In 1933, the production was ¥1,660,643, with the number of canneries gaining to 29. Most of these canned fishes are exported to foreign markets. In recent years, the demand for this Saghalien canned product in European markets, specially in Great Britain has been on a rapid increase. The South Sea Islands are also increasingly proving to be a fine outlet for this product.

Legal System and Status

Karafuto is different from other dependencies of the country in that more laws of the land of Japan are applied there than in any of the others. But, in that the legal administration is different from that of Japan proper it resembles Taiwan, Chosen, Kwantung Province and the South Sea Islands. The chief point of difference is that all the laws concerning the judicial system, such as the civil law, criminal law, the laws of civil and criminal procedures, and the law of the constitution of the courts of justice are equally enforced in Karafuto and Japan proper. All other laws are made applicable to Karafuto as to other possessions by means of an Imperial Ordinance providing therefor specially. There are some laws enforced in Karafuto which were originally enacted for that purpose. At present there are 169 laws of the land applied or made applicable in Karafuto, of which 13 laws are operative only partially. Imperial Ordinances are applicable or not in Karafuto according to the nature of the provisions contained therein. But cabinet and departmental orders have no operative power in Karafuto just as in other possessions.

There are one local court, 2 district courts, and 7 detached offices of the two district courts in Karafuto.

Education

In 1905 Japan found the island a vast, primitive desert with practically nothing done towards bringing the inhabitants to a civilized way of life. Following, however, the inauguration of Japanese administration, immigrants, including of course adventurers, rapidly increased in number. A number of towns sprang up one after another. These soon grew into centres of activity for the new comers from Japan. Toyohara, Ohtomari and Maoka soon became leading towns. As the immigrants settled down there arose the necessity for schooling their children. This need was directly felt by the government officials who came over to the island with their families and children. It was in August, 1906, that the first elementary school was opened at Toyohara, and in

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October of the same year 2 other elementary schools were opened, one at Ohtomari and the other at Maoka. At the same time, private educationists started simpler elementary schools here and there in the remote rural districts. In 1920 all elementary schools were brought under the Karafuto government. A middle school was opened at Ohtomari in 1912, a girls' high school at Toyohara in 1916, a middle school at Toyohara in 1925 and another middle school at Maoka in 1927. Meantime, girls' high schools were opened at Ohtomari, Maoka and Tomarigishi. The following tables give the main educational statistics of Karafuto:

TABLE I

Compulsory Education

	Children of School Age	Children Attending Schools	Children Not Attending Schools	Percentage of Attendance
1926	28,280	28,247	33	99.88
1927	29,933	29,889	44	99.85
1928	39,461	39,406	55	99.86
1929	40,725	40,586	139	99.66
1930	46,053	45,967	86	99.81
1931	52,936	45,647	127	99.72
1932	54,100	47,193	114	99.76

TABLE II (Jan. 31 1934)

District	Number of Schools	Teachers	Pupils
Toyohara	44	242	10,331
Ohtomari	56	273	11,187
Honto	22	90	3,463
Maoka	19	175	7,630
Tomarioru	39	175	7,492
Motodomari	19	100	4,189
Shisuka	15	76	3,243
Total	221	1,131	47,535

Education of the Natives There are some 2,000 natives in Karafuto including Ainus, Gilyaks, Orochones and Tunguses. The Karafuto government is undertaking to educate the children of these backward natives. At the end of April, 1931, there were 6 schools specially established for the education of these children, for which we have the following account:

School	Location	Number of Instructors	Number of Children attending
Shirahama Kyoikusho	Sakaehama	2	56
Ochiho „	Tomiuchi	1	17
Tarandomari „	Hirochi	2	38
Chiku „	Nayori	1	25
Shinmon „	Tomarigishi	1	16
Shisuka „	Shisuka	1	37
Total 6		8	234

Religion

The three principal religions, i. e., Shinto, Buddhism and Christianity, are competing with one another in this promising field of labour. There are 42 propagating centres for Shintoism representing five sects, viz., Shinto proper, Kurosumi, Tenri, Konko and Taisha. There

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are three governmental shrines and these are (1) Karafuto Shrine, (2) Toyohara Shrine and (3) Ani Shrine, all of which are dedicated to Imperial ancestors. August 23 is the day set for the annual festival of the Karafuto Shrine, which is also the Inauguration Day of Japanese administration in Karafuto. The shrine is located at Asahiga-oka in a quiet western hilly suburb of Toyohara, and strikes the chance visitor with a sense of admiration for its grave beauty. The anniversary of the Toyohara Shrine falls on July 11. Buddhism is represented by the Shin, Nichiren, Soto, Shingon, Jodo and other sects. There are 59 temples and 112 preaching houses. Christianity is being preached by missionaries of six denominations, i. e., Episcopal Methodist, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, the Salvation Army, and the Holiness Church. The number of Christian churches in Karafuto is 11.

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CHAPTER XLIII

SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

(UNDER JAPAN'S MANDATE)

Geographical Features

The South Sea Islands mandated to Japan, numbering 2,550, are the Mariana, Marshall and Caroline groups, between 131° 10′ and 172° 10′ of east longitude and between 1° 15′ and 20° 32′ of north latitude. They have a total area of 2,148.80 square kilometres. The Hawaiian Islands are to the east; the Philippines and Celebes to the west; the Bonin Islands to the north, and New Guinea to the south. Only one island among them, i. e. Guam belongs to the United States.

The Mariana archipelago starts close to the southern end of the Bonin Islands, stretching towards the equator, and the Marshall and Caroline groups extend to the east and west along the equator, forming an inverted letter "T" with the Marianas. About 740 miles south of the Bonin Islands lies Saipan, the largest of the Marianas, and about 180 miles farther south is Truk, one of the largest of the Carolines, which, marking the crossing point of the inverted "T," is the centre of the mandated territory. The line of 148° east longitude divides the Carolines into the West Carolines, with Palau and Yap, and the East Carolines, with Truk and Ponape. Because of the distances between the islands and the extensive area covered by them, communications are difficult. The fact that each group of isles uses different words peculiar to itself sufficiently demonstrates the degree to which they are separated.

So small are the individual islands in area that the premier ones, such as Ponape and Babelthuap, cover barely 269 square kilometres. Their topography differs according to geological conditions. The Marshalls, which are made up of coral reefs, rise only 1.5 or 2 metres above sea level, but the Marianas and Carolines, which are composed largely of volcanic rocks, have peaks rising as high as 758 metres and little level land. There are no navigable rivers, and in several places good roads are still lacking.

With the exception of Yap, practically all of the islands are composed of volcanic rocks and coral reefs. There are three kinds of coral reefs, though no clear demarcation can be drawn; and the volcanic rocks are of two kinds, basalt and andesite, the former being found in Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, of the Carolines, and the latter in Palau and Saipan. Everywhere in the islands, sea-birds nest and deposit phosphate, but principally on Angaur, Peleliu, Togobei and Fais. The soil also contains some amount of phosphoric acid, which helps vegetables and trees to grow. The narrowness of each islet, the volcanic topography and the dearth of rainfall, however, are handicaps to agriculture.

Groups of Islands

The Marianas The Marianas, the northernmost part of the territory,

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consist of 14 islands covering 632 square kilometres. At the southern extremity is Saipan, the seat of the Saipan Branch Office, with jurisdiction over the whole of the Mariana archipelago. The Saipan group, 183.89 square kilometres in area, starts 64.36 km. to the northeast of Guam and stretches 104.59 km. to the southwest. Being nearest to Japan proper, the group forms the gateway to the South Sea Islands. It not only enjoys favourable communications with the mainland of Japan, but is endowed with fertile soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane, which has drawn no small number of immigrants. Here the South Sea Islands Development Company engages in the refining of sugar.

The Carolines The Carolines, lying along the equator, are divided into the four administrative groups of Palau, Yap, Truk and Ponape. On the island of Corrol in the Palau group are located both the South Sea government and its Palau branch office. The number of isles under the jurisdiction of this branch office is 109, covering an area of 80.29 square kilometres. Babelthuap, commonly called the Main Island of the Palaus, has 370.37 square kilometres. Angaur, about 64.36 km. southwest of Corrol, is called the treasure island of the archipelago, being buried under phosphate mounds. A regular steamship line connects it with Menado of Celebes and Davao of Mindanao, in the Philippine Islands. The Palaus are not only the administrative pivot, but are important geographically.

The Yap group lies 418.34 km. to the northeast of Palau and consists of 85 islets covering 228.91 square kilometres and extending 804.50 km. from north to east. The four main islands, with an area of 36.26 square kilometres, are widely known as a junction of submarine cables. Here also is located the Yap branch office.

The Truk group lies 1,383.74 km. east of Yap, dotting the surface of the sea like a nebula. The Truk branch office, located on Natsu Island, controls 245 islets, which total in area only 124.16 square kilometres. As Natsu Island was formerly the seat of the German local government and later the headquarters of the Japanese defence corps for the entire mandated territory, it is fairly well known to the outside world.

The Ponape group is located 627.51 km. due east of Truk and consists of 138 islets covering more than 492.10 square kilometres. The island of Ponape, with 380.73 square kilometres in area, ranks first among all the islands of the territory. It is full of hills and is lacking in level land. Textile manufacturing and sugar refining were once started here by the Japanese, but later discontinued. Hope is still retained for some industrial undertakings, and a branch laboratory of the Industrial Experiment Station of the islands was established here in 1925 to make trial plantings of rice and medical herbs.

The Marshalls The Marshalls are located 1,222.84 km. east of Ponape. At the southern tip is Jaluit, on which is located the Jaluit branch office, which has control over the main portion of the archipelago, 32 islets, made up of more than 860 coral reefs comprising an area of 150.94 square kilometres. The soil being quite suited to the growth of cocoanut palms, they flourish everywhere. The copra industry of the islands is chiefly dependent on the material produced in this group.

Atmospheric Conditions

All the islands being within the tropical zone, they have one season instead of the four of the temperate

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zone. Cool sea breezes sweep over them day and night, contributing much toward balancing the temperature, and the inhabitants are favoured with a mild maritime climate rarely found in tropical countries and free from the danger of attack by venomous snakes, wild animals and miasma peculiar to the tropics.

There is an observatory established by the South Sea Government, where all sorts of atmospheric observations are conducted, and four hyetographical observatories. In addition, each branch office of the government has its own observation station. Thorough study of the insular climate is now being planned.

Atmospheric pressure in the neighbourhood of Truk and Ponape is generally low; in the vicinity of the Carolines and western Marianas, it is high in February and March and low from October till December; in the eastern islets of the Carolines, high from May to September and low in other months. The temperature is about the same all over the islands and shows little change through the year, the highest in the daytime ranging from 29° to 31° C. It seldom rises above 31°, and the difference during 24 hours is only 4 or 5 degrees. Humidity averages 82% and rarely falls lower than 60%.

From November to April, the wind generally comes from between the east and northeast. This is the trade wind. From May to October, the direction differs according to the position of the islands. The velocity averages 5 metres in the Marianas, weak in August and September and strong between October and February; in the western part of the Carolines, it is weak in April, May, June and September and strong in November, December, January, February and March.

The mean annual rainfall is more than 3,000 mm., and at Ponape it reaches even 4,000 mm. The rain comes in sudden torrents and passes away with the same suddenness. By this the unbearable tropic heat is greatly mitigated. The rainfall is greatest during July, August and September and least in January, February and March.

The Islands are, as it were, the hotbed of the typhoons that devastate Formosa and Japan proper, but locally the wind rarely gathers hurricane strength. If a typhoon does strike, it leaves the islands in a miserable condition, and the natives fear typhoons as they do their gods. When Ponape was struck in 1906, nearly all the cocoanut palms fell. Jaluit suffered in 1918 and Yap in 1920 and 1923.

A third tempest at Yap caused tidal waves to sweep over the coast, considerably damaging houses, woods and farms. A typhoon at Palau in May, 1927, swept away practically all dwellings in Peleliu and caused no small damage to other islets far and near.

History

The discovery of the islands dates back to the 16th century, when Spain and Portugal were vying with each other for discovery of untrodden soil in any corner of the world. As they are scattered and insignificant, not all of the groups were found at the same time. The Marianas were found first and the Carolines at about the same time, though exploration of the latter was neglected until about 40 years ago, when the Marshalls were discovered.

Found by the Portuguese, the Marianas came into the possession of Spain. Toward the close of the 19th century, Germany took possession of the Marshalls and threatened to encroach on the Carolines, then

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under Spanish control. Spain protested, and arbitration by the Pope in 1886 terminated the dispute amicably, the whole of the Carolines remaining under Spanish rule. Assiduous efforts by the Spanish to exploit and govern the islands continued until 1899, when, financially straitened due to the war with the United States, they sold the Marianas and Carolines to Germany. The whole of the present South Sea Islands mandated by Japan was thus shifted to the possession of Germany. The German reign lasted until 1914, when a Japanese squadron occupied the islands, which were later juridically placed under Japanese mandate, following the conclusion of the Paris Peace Treaty and other relevant agreements.

German Administration It is generally agreed that the establishment of sovereignty over the Marianas and Carolines by Spain in 1886 and the complete domination by Germany of the Marshalls in 1885 should be made the starting point in historical study of the archipelagos. Until purchased by Germany, the Marianas and Carolines had no government worthy of mention, and nothing now remains to recall the Spanish administration except the defence works on Yap and Ponape and a few buildings standing here and there. After the transfer to Germany, a complete change was effected. In the manner of the British East India Company, Germany started the Jaluit Company shortly after acquiring the Marshalls. The Government took over the business in 1906, when the company's contract expired, and tried to put all the island industries under its monopoly. Thus Jaluit has naturally flourished as the business centre of the territory, reinforced by communications with Singapore, Hong-Kong, Australia and the United States.

In looking back upon the German programme in the South Sea Islands, we are struck above everything else with the largeness of its scale. A general government was first established in New Guinea, which sought to implant German authority in the Orient by embracing the numberless islets between New Guinea and Tsingtao. A step to this end was the laying in 1904 of a submarine cable connecting Yap with Shanghai, Guam and Menado, and in 1913 a radio telegraph station of gigantic size was erected on the same island. To make a scientific study of the South Sea Islands, the German Government dispatched a number of experts. One of their discoveries was phosphate, of which a deposit of 3,000,000 tons was found on Angaur. The German Phosphate Company, founded in Bremen in 1908, conducted mining operations until the Japanese occupation. Other deposits, though less valuable, were located at Peleliu, Togobei and Fais.

Germany exercised special efforts in diffusing culture among the natives, and to this end it dispatched no less than 100 missionaries, who opened churches in all the principal villages of the islands. The older natives still keep the German style of Roman letters to this day. Besides paying attention to educational advancement within the territory, the authorities sent men of talent to Tsingtao for further study.

Relations with Japan It is presumed that there must have been some early intercourse between Japan and the archipelagos because of their geographical position, but there is no reliable evidence of it. The Japanese training cruiser Ryujo in 1884 touched at Kusaie, an islet belonging to the Ponape group, where the chief of the natives enthusiastically welcomed the crew, declaring that his people were descendants of the

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Japanese race. In the same year, the Japanese Government, informed of the massacre of a Japanese on Raye Island, of the Marshalls, dispatched Mr. Taketaro Goto, who succeeded in settling the matter with the local chieftain. Early commercial relations were initiated by the South Island Company (Nanto Shokai), established at Ponape with the capital of ¥44,000, but its business was soon transferred to the Ichiya Shokai, which failed in 1895. In the year following the appearance of the Nanto Shokai, two other trading firms, the Kaitsu Sha and Koshin Sha, came into existence; the former lasted only two years, but the latter carried on business until the Japanese occupation of the islands. The Hioki South Sea Trading Company was founded in 1893 with branches at Ponape, Truk, Saipan and Guam. Since amalgamation with the Murayama Shokai in 1906, it has been operating as the South Sea Trading Company and doing an extensive business.

Population

According to the census taken on April 1, 1934, the total population of the mandated territory is 85,605, comprising 50,174 natives, 35,328 Japanese and 103 foreigners. Of the natives, there are 46,475 Kanaka and 3,699 Chamorro. The Chamorro enjoy high birth rate, but the Kanaka scarcely maintain the status quo. Those within the jurisdiction of the Yap branch office show yearly decrease.

When Japan took over the archipelagos, there were only a few scores of Japanese dwellers. Gradually increasing, there are now 21,006 males and 14,322 females, most of them dwell within the jurisdiction of the Saipan branch office and are engaged in agricultural enterprises.

When placed under Japanese control, the territory had a hundred Germans, mostly engaged in missionary work and commerce. After they left, there remained fewer than 20 foreigners, chiefly Americans and British. The census taken on April 1, 1934, shows that the 103 registered in 1933 are nearly all engaged in missionary service, cocoanut cultivation or the copra trade.

A census is taken every five years. The village officials and policemen also keep in constant touch with every change. As for Japanese settlers and foreigners, complete investigation is made in accordance with regulations. The first general census was taken in October, 1920, when the first national census was taken in Japan proper, attended with great difficulties and at enormous expense. Subsequent censuses came in 1925 and 1930.

DENSITY OF POPULATION,
April 1, 1934

District under Branch Office	Population	Area sq. km	Density per 1 sq. km
Saipan	31,029	639	46.8
Yap	6,587	226	29.1
Palau	10,632	478	22.2
Ponape	16,689	504	126.4
Jaluit	10,345	170	20.5
Truk	10,323	132	60.7
Total	85,605	2,149	39.8

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS
(April 1, 1934)

	Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	6,551	167	1,710	624	505	162	9,719
Native	692	1,686	1,202	2,702	1,485	1,806	9,573
Foreign	6	5	11	12	10	13	57
Total	7,249	1,858	2,923	3,338	2,000	1,981	19,349

Chosenese are included in the figures for Japanese.

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POPULATION BY GROUPS
(April 1, 1934)

		Saipan	Yap	Palau	Truk	Ponape	Jaluit	Total
Japanese	men	15,504	276	2,881	908	1,145	292	21,006
	women	11,199	143	1,661	502	670	147	14,322
	total	26,703	419	4,542	1,410	1,815	437	35,328
Native	men	2,255	3,024	3,310	7,696	4,494	5,091	25,870
	women	2,057	3,133	2,763	7,558	4,013	4,780	24,304
	total	4,312	6,157	6,073	15,254	8,507	9,871	10,174
Foreign	men	7	7	14	18	11	12	69
	women	7	4	3	7	12	1	34
	total	14	11	17	25	23	13	103
Total	men	17,766	3,307	6,205	8,622	5,650	5,395	46,945
	women	13,263	3,280	4,427	8,067	4,695	4,928	38,660
	total	31,029	6,587	10,632	16,689	10,345	10,323	80,605

Chosenese and Taiwanese are included in the figures for Japanese.

YEARLY INCREASE OF POPULATION

Period	Japanese	Native	Foreign	Total
1920	3,671	48,505	46	52,222
1925	7,430	48,789	66	56,294
1930	19,835	49,695	96	69,626
1932	25,766	50,045	98	75,909
1933	30,670	50,114	100	80,884
1934	35,328	50,174	103	85,605

Tribes, Customs and Manners

Tribes Opinions differ as to the tribes residing in the mandated South Sea Islands. Some say that they immigrated from the Malay Peninsula, while others maintain that they are of the Polynesians. Though anthropologically named the Micronesian race, it is evident that they are a hybrid. Separate groups are clearly discernible, each with its own language and customs and manners. Roughly they are divided into the Kanaka and Chamorro. The former belong to the Micronesian race, and the latter are said to be of mixed White and Kanaka extraction, though other explanations are sometimes given.

The Chamorro are supposed to have settled first in Guam, later removing to neighbouring isles, and the fact that they now flourish largely in the Marianas, Yap and Palau seems to endorse the supposition. Though the tribe thrived fairly well under the Spanish régime, it has gradually dwindled, due mainly to massacres, until today it numbers only 3,400. The characteristic features are yellowish brown skin and black hair. The Chamorro, unlike the Kanaka, are industrious and mild in nature. Their mode of living is advanced, and some even reside in foreign-style houses with modern improvements. Their present culture owes much to religious influences in the time of Spanish control.

Kanaka is the general term for the natives of the Pacific islands. Most of those dwelling in the mandated islands belong to this group. They have dark brown or yellowish brown skin, black hair, heavy eyebrows and a big mouth. They are not hairy, and are simple and mild in nature. Though generally of medium stature, some are fairly tall. The Kanaka are cheerful in disposition, but extremely lazy. Their cultural standards are very low, and the mode of living lingers in the primitive stage. Of the total of 50,000 natives in the islands, those belonging to the Kanaka number 46,600.

Customs and Manners Because of the warm climate, it was originally the custom of the natives to wear nothing except a piece of cloth around the waist. Contact with advanced people, however, has brought a change, and some now use foreign clothing. In Saipan and the Marshalls, the natives are clad after the fashion of Europeans, but those in Ponape, Truk, Palau and especially

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Yap are almost stark naked. The natives are not indifferent to personal adornment. Tattooing is an outstanding example. The more complicated the tattoo marks and the larger the space they cover, the more respected is the owner. There is also the strange ornamentation of scars deliberately cut into the flesh, which has more influence in Ponape than in the other islands. The custom of driving a hole through the ear-lobe for an ear-ring or other dangling ornaments has been becoming less common of late years, due principally to the diffusion of education.

The staple foods of the natives are fruits, fish and meat. Nature bountifully supplies cocoanuts and tubers, which are mainly relied on, and tapioca, bananas, pineapples, mangoes, lemons and oranges, all of which are used as subsidiary food. Under such circumstances, it is but natural that little attention is given to agriculture. Fishing has made but little advance, but the supply of beef and pork is fairly sufficient. Wine and tobacco are greatly sought after, though the use of the former is almost completely prohibited. The habit of chewing areca still prevails.

The structure and appearance of dwellings vary in accordance with the cultural standard of each group of isles. In Saipan there is a street that looks like one in Europe, but in Yap one is reminded of how people lived in prehistoric ages. The dwellings in Truk and Jaluit are far inferior to those in Palau and Ponape, having not even floors. A general lack of windows leaves the interiors sombre and damp. "All-men-houses" are found everywhere in the archipelagos, which serve as a sort of rendezvous for the male villagers or inn for travellers. On Yap there are one or two houses to every village where women live when ailing.

Social Conditions

As the natives are not yet far removed from the primitive stage, their knowledge is very limited. They adhere to the traditions handed down from their forefathers and seem incapable of assimilating with any rapidity the cultural attainments of the outside world with which they come in contact. Only a few can count correctly. Yet they have been progressing in acquiring knowledge since primary education has been introduced. Whatever their intellectual deficiencies, they are fit for manual work.

There are two main social classes, superior and common, and between them there are several transition levels. Every village has its own chief, at whose mercy formerly were the life and property of the villagers. Among the chiefs there used to be ceaseless fighting. Under the German administration, their powers were greatly diminished, and at present they collect taxes and transfer government orders besides attending to the welfare of the people.

As has already been said, their mode of living is very simple, requiring little clothing and no farming for food. They are content to live in any miserable structure which affords shelter from wind and rain. Save for a handful of the Chamorro and a very small number of wealthy people, they live from hand to mouth in perfect contentment and have no thought of providing for posterity. They see no need of taxing their otherwise simple existence by using money. Such as they obtain is invariably spent for such luxuries as soap, perfume, tobacco and canned food, for their daily necessaries are freely provided by nature. Of late years, however, a desire to own co-

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coanut trees and land has become discernible. They have aversion to anything that requires systematic labour. This is because they are little accustomed to it, there being no need for hard work where food is plentiful without it. In former times they were absorbed in subduing neighbouring villages, but in recent years their barbaric temperament has greatly abated in consequence of appropriate measures taken toward this end by the Japanese Government.

Each group uses its own language or dialect, and there are many instances of different languages in a single group of islets. Between the main island of Yap and the islets within its orbit, there is no common language. Since Japan took charge of the educational work, Japanese has been taught, increasingly meeting the daily needs of the natives.

Administration

Following severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, the Japanese navy occupied in October, 1914, the German territory of the South Sea Islands and established a military government. In December, 1915, when military headquarters were instituted at Truk, the islands were divided into six administrative districts, each governed by a resident garrison commander. In June, 1918, subsequent to the issuance of an Imperial ordinance, a civil administration was created under the commander of the Provisional South Sea Defence Corps, and civil officials took over the functions formerly entrusted to the commanders.

By conclusion of the peace treaty in January, 1920, the islands were placed under Japanese mandate. Realizing the need of effecting fundamental renovation in the administration, the Japanese Government, upon withdrawing the troops, established the present South Sea Government in April, 1922. This was in accordance with an Imperial Ordinance of March, 1922, parts of which were later revised in 1924, 1927 and 1930. The Governor, who presides over the entire administration, is under the control and supervision of the Overseas Minister. Communications affairs are supervised by the Communications Minister, and currency, banking and customs matters by the Finance Minister. In emergencies, however, the Governor is authorized to act upon his own discretion and if necessary to request the commander of the naval station or the nearest responsible naval commander to take military action. The Government Office is composed of six sections: Governor's Secretariat, General Affairs, Finance, Police, Colonial and Communications. The Provisional Saipan Harbour Repair Office, a products museum and an experimental fishery station also belong to it. Under the central government there are branch offices at Saipan, Yap, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. All such general administrative business as census-taking, alms-giving, salvation, policing, hygiene, tax collection, education, religion, industry, engineering and harbour works are conducted by those local branches.

Besides the afore-mentioned, there are, under the control of the Governor, 15 elementary schools, 23 public schools, a woodwork training institute, a high court of justice, with a public procurator's office, 3 local courts of justice, each with a public procurator's office, 1 industrial experimentation station with its two sub-stations, 7 hospitals, a mine, 9 post offices and 1 meteorological observatory and its 3 branches.

The branch offices are assisted by so-soncho, kucho, son-cho and joyaku, who are mostly native chiefs.

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Those in charge of the Kanaka are called so-soncho and son-cho, and those among the Chamorro are named kucho and joyaku. The so-soncho and kucho act under the control and instructions of the branch office to which they belong, and the son-cho and joyaku assist them. The duties entrusted to these officials are (1) thorough diffusion of knowledge of the law and regulations, (2) the making of applications and reports to the branch office, and (3) the conveyance of official instructions and their fulfilment.

OFFICIAL PERSONNEL, June 30, 1934

Office	Chokunin rank	Sonin rank	Hannin rank	Treated as Hannin rank	Non-regular	Employees	Total
South Sea government	1	10	57	5	16	89	178
Branch office	—	3	53	87	2	82	227
Elementary schools	—	—	69	—	—	—	69
Public schools	—	—	60	—	—	24	84
Courts of justice	—	5	4	—	—	5	14
Industrial experimental stations	—	4	7	—	—	14	25
Mine	—	1	7	—	—	7	15
Hospitals	—	9	25	—	1	44	79
Post offices	—	—	54	—	—	71	125
Meteorological observatories	—	—	5	—	—	11	16
Industrial schools	—	—	3	—	2	—	5
Total	1	32	344	92	21	347	837

LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS, September 1, 1934

Branch office	So-soncho	Kucho	Soncho	Joyaku	Total
Palau	2	—	13	—	15
Saipan	—	2	—	6	8
Yap	10	1	—	—	11
Truk	6	—	23	—	29
Ponape	13	—	14	—	27
Jaluit	1	—	16	—	17
Total	32	3	66	6	107

Police Administration Under the Police Affairs Section of the central government there is a branch section at each of the six branch offices of the government. In addition, there are a police officer's detached station at Tinian, another at Rota, assistant police inspector's detached stations at Kusaie and Angaur and policemen's offices at 23 less important vilages. The distribution of these stations was determined more by special local conditions than by the density of population, for each branch office of the government has its own peculiar geographical and cultural conditions. On August 1, 1934, the number of police officials at each branch office ranged from 7 to 46.

The regulations for control of the islanders established in 1916 to guard against immigration of persons without property and criminals were amplified and revised in 1917 and 1925. Special consideration is given to firearms and gunpowder, the possession and use of which are strictly prohibited to the insular inhabitants. Beverages of more than 3 per cent. alcoholic content are forbidden except for medical use and religious rites. The possession and consumption of dangerous narcotics, save for medical purposes, are prohibited. Other regulations cover game hunting, publications, social gatherings and the formation of associations, collection of donations, fisheries and the employment of geisha and waitresses.

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Finance

The expenditure for insular administration had been met by the military special account until an independent account of the South Sea Government was established in March, 1922.

ANNUAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Fiscal Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary Revenue	Special Revenue	Total	Ordinary Expenditure	Special Expenditure	Total
1926	¥2,899,869	4,608,958	7,008,827	2,810,110	1,638,464	3,948,574
1927	2,731,318	4,867,667	7,598,980	2,322,188	2,295,481	4,617,569
1928	2,834,212	4,794,669	7,628,881	2,444,201	2,089,909	4,534,110
1929	2,839,480	4,606,636	7,446,116	2,410,638	2,091,361	4,501,999
1930	3,402,321	3,965,091	7,367,412	2,364,381	2,294,463	4,658,844
1931	4,699,058	2,999,531	7,698,589	2,432,547	2,143,889	4,576,436
1932	4,819,299	3,134,687	7,953,986	2,500,544	2,233,198	4,733,743
1933	5,011,281	3,237,487	8,284,769	2,755,171	2,527,324	5,282,495
1934*	5,349,613	286,062	5,635,675	2,978,016	2,657,659	5,635,675
1935*	5,827,266	150,430	5,977,696	3,156,214	2,821,482	5,977,696

* The figures for 1934 and 1935 are estimates.

The poll tax, customs duties and clearance charges on shipments constitute the premier taxes. A poll tax not exceeding ¥10 is levied on every male native aged 16 or more and from ¥2 to ¥50 on Japanese and foreigners, although there are quite a number of exceptions. All imports from foreign countries are subject to customs duty in accordance with regulations established in May, 1922. These regulations also provide that all shipments to Japan and dutiable at the destination are subject to a clearance duty at the same rate as levied at the destination.

Land and Agriculture

All transactions in real estate owned by natives are subject to approval by the government, a practice initiated by the German administration to safeguard the interests of those whose concepts of property are rudimentary. Total acreage is put at 213,000 hectares, of which about 70,000 hectares are thought fit for cocoanut plantation and general farming. The land already cultivated is calculated at 15,000 hectares for puddy field and dry land and 81,400 hectares for cocoanut plantation, leaving 25,000 hectares for future development. Engaged in agriculture are 40 per cent. of the entire native population, viz., 20,252 natives and 8,730 Japanese. There being little need of depending for their daily necessaries upon farming, the agricultural technique of the natives is still in a primitive stage, but the rapid increase in the number of Japanese, who are setting good examples, will sooner or later bring about some improvement. Live-stock farming is also undeveloped, though the natives raise cows, pigs, goats, hens and ducks, the cows for transportation and farming purposes and the pigs and hens for food.

Sugar-cane cultivation dates as far back as the beginning of the 16th century, but until the arrival of the Japanese there was no sugar refinery and the inhabitants ate the cane raw. The island of Saipan being found fully qualified in both climate and soil, there was established there by the Japanese a sugar industry, which has made a healthy development. From 20 hectares in 1916 cultivation increased to 455 hectares in 1919 and to 6,140 hectares in 1933. There were two companies, with eight factories, in 1919, but in

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view of the inadvisability of continuing business on so small a scale, the South Sea Development Company, Ltd., capitalized at ¥7,000,000, was established, taking over the Nishimura Colonial Company, Ltd., and purchasing the South Sea Industrial Company, Ltd. Factories of this company are now located on the islands of Saipan and Tinian, the two principal sources of the raw material. Each has a pressing efficiency of 1,200 English tons, but completion of the factory now under construction at Tinian will increase the capacity there to 2,200 tons. Statistics taken in 1932-33 showed 6,140 hectares under cultivation, yielding 43,150 tons of sugar.

Industry

The lack of communication facilities greatly handicaps commercial and industrial advancement, and inadequate supplies of coal, water and iron disqualify manufacturing. The natives have little purchasing power, and the Japanese settlers, numbering 20,000 and possessing superior purchasing power, are scattered all over the isles.

Daily wages for both Japanese and natives are roughly as follows:

Japanese:	
Carpenter	¥3.00 — ¥4.00
Shipwright	3.00 — 5.00
Plasterer	2.50 — 4.00
Blacksmith	2.50 — 3.30
Sugar refinery worker	1.60
Mine worker (mechanic)	2.55
Mine labourer	1.30 — 2.30
Natives:	
Carpenter	¥ .70 — ¥1.50
Shipwright	.70 — 1.50
Day labourer	.70 — 1.50
Mine labourer	.43

The value of the annual production of the principal industries for 1934 amounted to ¥11,432,544, of which the following are principal products:

Sugar	¥10,223,420
Alcoholic drinks	279,451
Spirits for industrial use	437,877

Forestry All of the islands may appear to casual travellers to have good forests, but inspection would disclose that most of the trees are of no practical use. The natives have been careless in removing timber and have disregarded the necessity of reforestation. The only trees receiving attention are the cocoanut palms growing on the island coasts. But this does not mean that forestry enterprises are hopeless. Various kinds of useful trees are seen thriving among the bushes, and the natural benefits here are the very conditions required for the growth of plants.

The cocoanut trees have long been depended on by the islanders for food, and practically every island is shaded by their long trunks and broad fronds of pinnate leaves. According to statistics for 1933, all the cocoanut plantations total 33,176 hectares, and the copra yearly produced therefrom amounts to 10,722 tons.

Fisheries There are no records available of fisheries in the islands before the Japanese occupation. A few Japanese made a start shortly after 1914, but unfortunately they all failed, due principally to unpreparedness to cope with the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the region. Only recently have profitable undertakings been established. The lack of transportation facilities, the unique conditions and the limited island market make it imperative that the industry be remodelled.

Bonito, tunny, mackerel, sardine, horse-mackerel and shark are found in abundance in neighbouring waters. In shallow waters near the coasts there are seen everywhere shoals of poly-coloured small fish and all sorts of shell-fish. The crocodile, hawk's-bill turtle and sponge of good quality are also plentiful.

The manufacturing side of the

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fishing industry is still in its infancy and is still limited to the drying of horse-mackerel, bonito and mackerel by an obsolete process. Some pearls and sponges are cultivated, chiefly at Palau.

Mining The only mining is for phosphate on the Island of Angaur, south of the main island of the Palau group in the Carolines. The island is 15.54 square kilometres in area. The thickness of the phosphate deposit varies from about 3 metres to 7 metres, and the amount available is estimated in 1933 at 1,700,000 tons. For some time after the Japanese occupation of the territory, the mining was carried on by the Navy, but it is now an enterprise of the government. Yearly production is put at 60,000 tons. In addition to the superintendent, who is an expert, there are two assistant experts, three clerks, 442 mine workers, 15 labourers and 4 other employees.

Encouragement of Enterprises Encouragement and financial assistance are given to a number of undertakings, including vegetable farms; coffee plantations, which have been receiving subsidies since 1927; the breeding of cows, pigs and oxen; the growing of sugar-cane and the manufacture of sugar, which were subsidized to the extent of ¥479,044 in 1933, laundries, barber shops, shoe-repair shops and hotels; the cultivation of pearls; and the preparation of dried bonito. As the raising of cocoanut trees is recognized as one of the most promising industries in the islands, regulations were issued in 1922 stipulating that to those who seriously undertake the planting of cocoanut palms a subsidy is to be given at a rate not exceeding ¥20 per 2½ acres of newly planted land and not exceeding ¥10 per 2½ acres of old cocoanut groves put in order. Furthermore, the regulations were revised in 1931 to provide a subsidy of one-fourth of the cost of constructing factories for drying copra.

Since 1924, Saipan and Palau have held competitive shows of the local agricultural produce and handmade articles, supported by the government. In addition, representative products of the islands are exhibited at various shows and exhibitions in Japan proper through the good offices of the government. The South Sea Government Products Museum was established and opened at the beginning of 1930 for the exhibition of all sorts of insular products and geographical and historic studies.

An official investigation is being made in places sparsely inhabited by the natives to see whether there is land for additional immigrants, and wherever land is found and designated suitable for colonization every care is taken to assure comforts for settlers. A survey made in October, 1932, showed the existence of land for 393 families. Another investigation is seeking to distinguish lands owned by the government from those possessed by private citizens. Although no accurate figures are yet available, government-owned cocoanut groves are estimated at about 6,600 acres, with 298,000 trees. From these figures, however, it is difficult to calculate the approximate amount of copra obtainable, for some of the groves are unproductive. A comprehensive survey is in progress.

Experimental Stations The Industrial Experimental Station in the islands, where all kinds of experiments and investigations connected with agriculture and stock-breeding are conducted, utilizes farms totalling 145 acres. The Aquatic Products Experimental Station, initiated in 1931 under the control of the Colonial Section of the government, experiments, among other things,

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with the preservation of bonito and mackerel and the breeding of sponges, turtles and shell-fish.

Trade The staple exports are phosphate, copra, sugar, dried bonito and alcohol, which account for 96 per cent. of all exports. As to imports, 61 per cent. of the total consists of cereals and other provisions and drinks, cotton textiles and manufactures, clothing and fittings, metal goods, lumber and various wooden articles.

The open ports are Saipan, Palau, Angaur, Truk and Jaluit. Almost the entire overseas trade of the archipelagos is done with the Japanese mainland save for sundry goods exchanged between Saipan and Guam and between Jaluit and the Gilbert Islands and for a nominal amount of sugar from Hawaii and copra and sundry goods from Guam, the Gilbert Islands and Manila.

The total exports in 1933 were ¥18,739,675, of which export to the Japanese mainland was ¥18,155,920. Among exports to Japan, sugar represented ¥12,471,133, phosphate, ¥1,361,879, and copra, ¥1,509,385. The total imports in the same period were valued at ¥8,989,740 of which ¥8,550,486 were from Japan. With countries other than Japan, exports amounted to ¥583,755 and imports ¥439,254.

Transportation and Communications

There are no roads worthy of the name on the islands, though the government realizes that they are the first requisite for industrial development. As large appropriations will be needed, their construction will have to wait for some years to come. Nor are there railways for public use. The short one at Angaur to the phosphate mine, and that at Saipan is exclusively for the hauling of freignt belonging to the South Sea Development Company.

Improvement of transportation facilities is now being concentrated on harbours. Generally speaking, the ports are favourable for mooring, but the long distance between vessels lying at anchor and the landing places, as well as coral rocks extending far into the sea, handicaps their healthful growth as modern commercial ports. The construction of modern harbours depends upon magnanimous appropriations and years of labour. The first real harbour, started in 1926 and completed in 1931 at a cost of more than ¥1,000,000, was at Saipan. A second project was launched in 1927 at Corrol, where, between the vessels at anchor and the landing place, lies a coral-reef. The work came to an end after the expenditure of ¥106,992 in 1930.

Shipping Routes Upon the creation of the South Sea Government, all government-controlled shipping routes were placed under the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, Ltd. The schedule for these lines in 1933 follows:

(1) West Round Line: Plying between Japan and the Philippines, the ships touch at Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, the insular ports, Menado and Davao, covering both ways in 44 days. 17 voyages are made a year.

(2) East Round Line: Plying between Kobé and Jaluit, the ships of the line call at Saipan, Truk, Ponape and Kusaie, covering both ways in 50 days. 6 voyages are made yearly.

(3) East and West Connecting Line: Between Kobé and Jaluit, this line includes calls at various insular ports. Both ways are covered in 53 days, and 6 voyages are made a year.

(4) Saipan Line: The ports of call are Yokohama, Osaka, Kobé, Moji, Futami, Saipan and Tinian.

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17 round-trips, made in 28 days, are scheduled for the year.

The number of vessels on these lines is 8, ranging from 2,444 to 6,143 tons.

Among the islands themselves, shipping has been entrusted to the South Sea Trading Company, Ltd., which is subsidized by the Government. The services now available are: the Mariana line, connecting scattered islets within the Mariana Archipelago, available 17 times a year; the Yap, Palau, Truk and Ponape lines, each with 4 trips a year, and the Marshall line, which makes 7 trips a year. In addition there are Ponape, Truk and Palau ines. Five vessels are used, ranging from 192 to 541 tons.

During 1933, vessels that entered and cleared the nine ports of the territory numbered 511 and 503 respectively—354 steamships, 149 sailing vessels clearing and 359 steamships, 152 sailing vessels entering. The numbers of passengers landing and embarking were 11,598 and 13,904 respectively.

Other Means of Communication All means of communication were placed under the control of the local government when it was established. The Communication Section thus takes care of (1) post, telegraph, telephone, exchange and deposit services, (2) postal insurance, and (3) sea-routes, vessels and nautical markings. There are nine post offices, situated at Saipan, Jaluit, Tinian, Rota, Palau, Yap, Ponape, and Angaur. Each handles wireless messages. The cable and wireless lines now operated are as follows:

(1) Between Yap and Bonin Islands: dispatched by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(2) Between Yap and all except the Bonin Islands: dispatched on the submarine cable through Naha, Ryukyu (Loochoo).

(3) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and Loochoo and Taiwan: sent by submarine cable.

(4) Between the South Sea Islands, except Yap, and the Bonin Islands: sent by the Chichi-jima Wireless, relayed at Saipan.

(5) Between the South Sea Islands and all outside points except the Bonin Islands, Taiwan and Loochoo: dispatched by the Tokyo Wireless, relayed at Palao.

Telephone facilities are still limited, switch-boards being installed at only Palau and Saipan.

Judicial System

The judicial branch of the South Sea Government employs the double trial system, the court for the first trial being one of the Local Courts of Justice and for the second trial the High Court of Justice. To each court is attached a public procurator's office. In remote places, minor irregularities, both civil and criminal, are disposed of by the judgment of the branch office heads.

The South Sea Government High Court of Justice is located in Palau. The Palau Local Court of Justice has jurisdiction in the Palau and Yap groups; the Saipan Local Court of Justice, in the Saipan group, and the Ponape Local Court of Justice, in the Ponape, Truk and Jaluit groups. On June 30, 1933, there were three judges, two procurators and four secretaries in the judicial system.

Most legal regulations are the same as in Japan, but due consideration is given to the customs and conditions peculiar to the natives. Their civil affairs are handled quite independently of those of settlers from outside; hereditary practices in land ownership are preserved, none but government officials being permitted to sell, purchase or mortgage their land; legal proceedings

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are made as simple as possible, and natives sentenced to less than one year of penal servitude may be subjected to labour instead of being sent to a prison.

Education

Besides elementary schools for the Japanese, there are 24 for natives throughout the insular territory. Though education is not compulsory, schools are provided, clothing and food supplied in particular cases and pupils from remote places received into dormitories. At the schools for native children, natives are employed as assistant instructors. The Japanese instructors must have the full qualifications of elementary school teachers in Japan proper.

There are schools for Japanese children in Saipan, Palau, Truk, Tinian, Yap and Ponape, and where there is no near-by Japanese school a Japanese class is attached to the native elementary school. The course of instruction, requiring six years, and the textbooks are the same as in Japan proper. The natives' elementary education takes three years, and after that they are free to enter continuation courses of two years. The lessons are about the same as those taught in the Japanese schools, save for the stress placed on ethics, calculation and the Japanese language. To teach carpentry, a special institute is attached to the Corrol Public School for natives.

Christian schools number 3 in Saipan, 1 in Palau, 6 in Truk, 2 in Ponape and 3 in Jaluit. All of them are attached to churches and naturally concentrate on diffusing knowledge of Christianity. They are not worthy of being called educational institutions in the strict sense.

With the object of popularizing education, a scholarship society was formed on the foundation of an Imperial donation, ¥2,000, in February, 1924. The society is headed by the Governor, who, with the interest accruing to the original and yearly scholarship grants by the government, does everything possible to encourage deserving students. There is also the South Sea Islands Educational Society, headed by the Governor and with branches at the seats of branch offices of the government. Its sole object is elevation of the educational standard of the islanders.

The elementary schools for the Japanese, according to statistics taken at the end of April, 1934, have 63 instructors and 3,936 pupils—2,025 boys and 1,911 girls. Besides, there are 8 instructors in charge of the continuation courses, with 404 students under them. The schools for natives have 58 Japanese teachers and 23 native assistant teachers, 1,303 boys and 1,005 girls attending elementary school course, and 412 boys and 225 girls in the continuation course.

There are some private institutions, mostly kindergartens, for Japanese children. Kindergartens are found in Saipan, Yap, Palau, and Ponape, haivng in all 15 Japanese teachers and 295 children. A private elementary school for natives in Jaluit has 42 children under 2 instructors, 1 of whom is Japanese.

As there were not very many Japanese children, no middle school was in existence in the archipelago prior to 1933. But owing to the industrial development and the increase of Japanese residents, it became necessary to establish one, and in accordance with the prefectural ordinance of March, 1933, an industrial school was established in the island of Saipan.

Religion

Among the native inhabitants there is no religion worthy of the

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name, but they have a sort of religious belief. Christianity was first introduced and propagated by Spaniards in 1666. A Jesuit missionary worked enthusiastically in Guam until banished in 1766 by Charles III and is said to have initiated the islanders into the methods of cultivating corn, tobacco, cocoa and potatoes. In more recent times, an American missionary group gained influence, though it finally abandoned work in Ponape and Truk, as did a Protestant mission group from Germany in the former island. Catholicism went on evangelizing side by side with Protestantism and is said to have had more funds. Priests of the Otani branch of the Shinshu Sect of Buddhism established themselves in Saipan for religious propaganda in 1919, and in 1926 a Tenrikyo church was opened in Palau.

Soon after the evacuation of the German Protestant missionaries, the Japanese Congregational Church despatched four missionaries to Ponape and Truk. American missionaries in Kusaie and Jaluit are engaged in educational as well as religious work, and Catholic missionaries, who came in 1921 from Spain, are also active. It is generally accepted that the natives' mild temperament is the result of the long and untiring efforts of the missionaries. Generally speaking, Christianity seems to have placed the entire population under its influence, but very few of the church-goers understand its tenets.

CHURCHES, MISSIONARIES AND BELIEVERS, April, 1934

Religion	Churches	Mission halls	Preachers	Inmates of Monastery	Native Preachers	Japanese	Believers Foreign	Believers Native	Total
Catholic	13	39	15	22	24	104	11	18,595	18,710
Protestant	12	78	17	—	89	20	1	22,143	22,164
Buddhist	5	—	7	—	—	22,760	—	502	23,262
Tenrikyo	2	—	3	—	—	20	—	106	126
Total	32	117	42	22	113	22,904	12	41,346	64,262

The Charitable Society, founded on an Imperial donation of ¥1,000, was organized in May, 1927, in commemoration of the demise of the late Emperor Taisho. It is financed by the interest accruing to the foundation and contributions, and its principal mission is salvation of the poor and afflicted. So far its main accomplishment has been caring for lepers, 46 of whom are accommodated in 4 sanatoria.

Medical and Hygienic Services

In general, there is less malignant disease in the islands than in other tropical lands. But the fact that most of them are coral reefs and small in area makes it difficult to obtain water supply. Rain-water tanks are the usual source, and they often prove the agency for spreading sickness. When the trade wind begins and ends, bringing changes in the climate, influenza occasionally rages. The natives are most unsanitary and even when taken ill hesitate to consult a doctor. Despite untiring efforts by the authorities to better hygienic conditions, long-established customs have impeded progress.

The principal endemic diseases peculiar to the islands are amœboid dysentery, frambœsia and dengue. Dysentery breaks out at places all the year round, but the symptoms are generally slight. Frambœsia, rampant among the natives, afflicts but few Japanese. In recent years,

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in consequence of injecting salvarsan as a remedy, the number of those contracting it has decreased.

Dengue is at times so prevalent that nearly every inhabitant has it, but few fall victims to it. Fortunately, the islanders have never been attacked by malaria fever, cholera, pest, yellow fever or sleeping sickness. Typhus, paratyphus, dysentery and a few other infectious diseases, however, are common. One suspected case of small-pox was reported in 1926, but it was agreed that the patient had contracted it while travelling in China and Japan.

CASES OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

Period	Amœboid Dysentery		Typhus		Paratyphus		Diphtheria	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	51	—	30	9	—	—	—	—
1923	84	—	11	2	2	1	—	—
1923	84	—	11	2	2	1	—	—
1924	44	4	10	3	1	—	—	—
1925	88	10	4	1	2	—	—	—
1926	64	11	10	2	17	1	—	—
1927	146	14	15	4	4	—	—	—
1928	105	14	6	1	2	—	—	—
1929	197	27	40	3	202	1	—	—
1930	70	7	149	11	59	2	1	—
1931	254	35	24	3	11	1	1	1
1932	57	1	17	4	39	2	—	—
1933	64	6	21	1	11	1	1	—

Period	Spinal Meningitis		Dysentery		Infantile Cholera		Total	
	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths	Cases	Deaths
1922	—	—	—	—	—	—	81	9
1923	1	—	—	—	—	—	98	3
1924	—	—	—	—	—	—	55	7
1925	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	11
1926	—	—	—	—	—	—	91	4
1927	—	—	—	—	—	—	165	18
1928	—	—	2	—	—	—	115	15
1929	—	—	—	—	2	1	441	32
1930	1	1	—	—	—	—	280	21
1931	—	—	—	—	11	3	300	42
1932	3	1	17	—	4	1	137	29
1933	—	—	10	2	—	—	107	10

Medical Facilities Medical practitioner's offices are maintained by the government, and for the benefit of those living in remote places visiting doctors are despatched several times a year. The entire territory is divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the standard of living, and medical charges are fixed differently; class A, for instance, paying from a third to half as much as the resident Japanese. The task of health protection lies heavily upon the shoulders of the government, for the number of private medical practitioners within the territory is still far from sufficient. According to statistics taken in June, 1934, officials in the government medical service throughout the insular territory include 24 doctors, 7 pharmacists, 3 secretaries, 7 employees, 7 assistants, 8 midwives and 22 nurses.

Special precautions are exercised against the outbreak of epidemics, and all arriving vessels are subjected to strict quarantine inspection. Compulsory vaccination is being practised, as in Japan proper. Geisha and waitresses undergo examination at least once a month. Lepers are found in several places,

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though the exact number is not yet available. The government opened a sanatorium in Saipan in 1926 and added others in Jaluit and Palau.

The health inspection is conducted in the schools once a year. The results indicate that though the physical growth of the native children generally surpasses that of the Japanese, cases of malnutrition and disease are much more numerous among the former. Inspection of water, and investigation of the causes of deaths are practised to aid health and hygienic improvement.

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MANCHOUKUO

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MANCHOUKUO

Geography

Position Extending between 38°43′ and 53°30′ North latitude and 117°50′ and 135°20′ East longitude Manchoukuo is bordered on the north by Siberia and on the east by Korea and the Maritime Province of Siberia.

On the west its borders touch Outer Mongolia, Eastern Inner Mongolia and China proper, while on the south its shores are washed by the waters of the Yellow Sea and the Gulf of Pechili, the coast line extending over 855 nautical miles.

Topography Topographically, Manchoukuo is a vast expanse of plains, traversed from north to south by the Great and Little Hsingan (Khinyan or Khingan) mountain ranges in the north-western section, and by the Changpai mountains near the south-eastern boundary.

Several great rivers with many tributaries run through Manchoukuo, irrigating the plains which they pass. The most notable of these rivers are the Heilungkiang (Amur), Sungari, Ussuri, Yalu, Tumen and Liao Rivers.

Climate The climate of Manchoukuo is typically continental, despite the fact that this country lies within about the same latitudes as Japan, Korea, France and England.

Almost unaffected by ocean currents, Manchoukuo has a dry, cold climate with long severe winters and short hot summers. The spring season is windy, strong winds often carrying yellow dusts from the west.

The temperature falls as low as 49° C. below zero in winter and goes up as high as 40.0° C in some localities in summer.

Area, Population, Language, etc.

Area and Population The area of Manchoukuo is put at 1,300,000 sq. km. and is about twice as large as the combined areas of Japan proper, Korea, Formosa and Karafuto. The population at the end of 1933, according to the investigation made by the statistics bureau of the Executive Yuan, was 30,879,717. This population as divided according to the various provinces, which were newly established in December, 1934, with the area of each province, is as follows :

POPULATION AND AREA

(Dec. 31, 1933.)

Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Kirin	89,910	4,656,607
Lungkiang	125,537	1,974,857
Heiho	109,813	38,502
Sankiang	107,545	833,419
Pinkiang	143,425	4,032,057
Chientao	29,395	487,972
Antung	48,226	2,641,214
Fentieng	85,546	9,379,302
Chinchou	39,462	2,938,709
Jehol	96,585	2,200,258
Hsinking Special Municipality	191	140,945
Harbin Special Municipality	929	413,386
North Manchuria Special District	(1,147)	181,019

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Province	Area in sq. km.	Population
Hsingan, Western Division	80,411	358,368
„ Southern „	79,021	484,973
„ Eastern „	106,751	75,139
„ Northern „	160,396	42,900
Total	1,303,143	30,879,717
Kwantung Leased Territory	3,462	1,072,078
S.M.R. Zone	284	462,276
Total	3,746	1,534,354
Grand total	1,306,794	32,414,071

POPULATION OF MANCHOUKUO CLASSIFIED BY NATIONALITY

Dec. 31, 1933

Province	No. of Household	Population Manchurian	Japanese	Korean	Others	Total
Fengtien	2,428,942	15,898,686	8,525	123,182	1,391	15,531,784
Kirin	1,164,616	6,948,087	11,956	409,578	2,272	7,371,893
Heilungkiang Prov.	624,078	3,810,104	3,017	5,599	563	3,819,286
Jehol	677,158	2,646,330	670	184	33	2,647,217
North Manchuria Special District	38,612	151,191	1,863	3,997	23,963	181,019
Hsinking Special Municipality	25,728	136,215	3,090	1,596	44	140,945
Harbin Special Municipality	87,458	334,663	9,095	5,207	64,420	413,386
Hsingan Prov.						
Eastern Div.	12,511	74,600	138	59	242	75,139
Southern Div.	57,024	337,800	297	2,241	—	340,338
Western Div.	52,690	315,350	—	460	—	315,810
Northern Div.	7,140	37,400	—	—	4,500	42,900
Total	5,185,967	30,190,526	38,657	552,103	98,431	30,879,717
S.M.R. Zone	74,944	235,284	139,973	27,781	1,328	404,316
Kwantung Leased Territory	161,838	862,307	139,016	2,295	857	1,004,439

Language Chinese is the official language of Manchoukuo, although native Manchus and Mongols living in the interior districts speak their own dialects and Japanese is now being taught at many native schools in Hsinking and other important centres of the country.

The original Manchus now living in the country are estimated to number between six and seven millions, but most of them speak Chinese, only those who live in some districts of Kirin province keeping to their own native dialect.

As the official, social and commercial language, the Peking mandarin language is most widely used in Manchoukuo, but the Shantung, Nanking, Shanghai, Canton and other dialects are spoken among the immigrants from these different parts of China.

Among other foreign languages Japanese and Russian are the best known in the country.

Banditry Manchoukuo has long been noted for its mounted bandits who ravaged the country. Under the old militarist régime even regular soldiers turned to banditry and quite often they were enlisted among the regular troops when in need, so that the troops and bandits were not clearly distinguishable from each other.

Bandits in Manchuria once numbered as many as 200,000 after the Manchurian Incident owing to the fact that the regular troops in the

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army of Chang Hsueh-liang resorted to banditry. But the strenuous efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo troops have reduced the number to about 50,000 by the end of 1932.

As a result of the pacification of Jehol early in March, 1933, the base of operation of the major bandit groups was completely wiped out. With the view to furthering the work of restoring peace and order, a central peace preservation committee was organized in Hsinking. Between the autumn of 1933 and the early spring of 1934, an intensive campaign was directed against the remnant outlaws in Kirin province. The bandit-insurgents have been reduced to less than 40,000. Efforts are being made to confiscate the weapons illegally possessed by the people, to reduce the number of the so-called vigilance corps of the professional type, and to give work to the roaming outlaws who surrender to the authorities.

History

Before Ching Dynasty Nearly twenty different dynasties have ruled successively in the territory now under the sovereignty of Manchoukuo, which includes Manchuria and part of Mongolia, from the Sushen dynasty to about the second and third centuries down to the Ching dynasty, which lasted from 1636 until 1911, when its rule was replaced by the new régime of the Republic of China.

The Ching dynasty was known as the Nuchen tribe before it gained hegemony in China proper. In 1636, the chief of the Nuchen tribe declared independence at Mukden against the Ming dynasty which was then in power in China proper, naming his country, which extended over the area now forming the territory of Manchoukuo, "Taching".

After rising to independence in Manchuria, Taching gradually expanded its territory until 1664, when conquering the Ming forces it occupied Peking and made that city its capital, after which Manchuria seemed deserted, except Han immigrants who came from China proper and inhabited in Manchuria, though only sparsely.

Thus Manchuria was left neglected by the Manchus, who were almost entirely occupied in colonizing China proper, and when Russians penetrated into Manchuria they could do much as they liked in this region.

It was not until after the Russo-Japanese War that the Chinese authorities came to see the need of attending to the administration of Manchuria with any degree of seriousness. With this object in view, Hsu Shih-chang was appointed Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces in 1907, and notable improvements were effected in the systems of administration, communications and transport during the following few years.

The late Marshal Chang Tso-lin came into power in Manchuria after the Revolution of 1911, when Chao Erh-hsuan, then Viceroy of the Three Eastern Provinces, asked him to render military assistance to resist the advance of the revolutionary forces on Manchuria.

Rise of Chang Tso-lin The rapid ascendancy of Chang Tso-lin then followed and in 1916 he was appointed Inspector-General of the Three Eastern Provinces, thus virtually placing the entire territory of Manchuria under his autocratic rule.

After a series of three civil wars with the Chihli army, in the course of which General Kuo Sun-lin, one of his lieutenants, made an unsuccessful attempt to overthrow him, Chang Tso-lin started hostilities with the Kuomin army of Feng Yu-hsiang, the so-called "Christian General",

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in January, 1926, and occupying Peking in December that year, installed himself as Generalissimo at Peking in June, 1927, thus attempting to reign over the entire territory of China.

This marked the peak of the ascendancy of the Mukden war-lord, for, in June, 1928, he had to leave Peking for Mukden ostensibly with the intention of spending the rest of his life in retirement. It was on this trip back to Mukden that the Marshal was killed in a train wreck near Mukden.

Under Chang Hsueh-liang Chang Hsueh-liang, known as the young war-lord of Mukden, then stepped into his father's shoes, but finding himself unable to keep effective control over the lieutenants of his late father, he declared allegiance to the National Government in December, 1928, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the North-Eastern Frontier Army. This was followed by the renaming of Fentien province as Liaoning in March, 1929. During the civil war of 1930, Chang Hsueh-liang maintained an attitude of sympathetic neutrality, thereby making it possible for the National Army to defeat the rebels under Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yuhsiang. Apparently in appreciation of this, the National Government appointed Chang Hsueh-liang Vice-Commander-in-Chief of the National Army, Navy and Air Forces.

In 1931, Chang Hsueh-liang moved his headquarters to Peking and during his absence, all his influence in Manchuria was overthrown following the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident on September 18, 1931.

Founding of Manchoukuo The effort directed at restoring peace and order as the Chang Hsueh-liang government was driven out of Mukden by the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident first materialized in the Committee for Preservation of Local Peace and Order organized at Mukden. This soon led to the organization of the independent government of Fengtien province, the example of which was followed by Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces. Later, an Administrative Committee composed of members coming from various provinces was organized and preparations for establishment of the new state were made.

On February 18, 1932 the Committee fulfilled its first duty by announcing the declaration of the establishment of an independent state and appointing a standing committee of seven members for discussing various detailed problems. The fundamental principles of the new state as announced by the committee on February 25 are as follows: the new state to be called Manchoukuo; the ruler to be called Chief Executive; the flag to be a five-coloured one; the new era to be called Tatung; and the capital to be Changchun, which later came to be called Hsinking.

Mr. Pu Yi, who was formally elected Chief Executive by the Administrative Committee, took office on March 9. The law regulating the organization of the government and the law guaranteeing personal rights were promulgated on the same day. On the following day, Cheng Hsiao-hsu, Prime Minister, and other high officials were appointed.

At the request of the people of Manchoukuo, who appreciated and enjoyed the benevolent administration of the new régime under His Excellency Pu Yi, many of their leaders in Mukden and other principal cities and towns petitioned for his enthronement as Emperor of Manchoukuo in the beginning of 1934. This was accepted, and the Chief Executive was formally enthroned on March 1, 1934, the second

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anniversary of the founding of Manchoukuo. The state was thereafter called Manchoutikuo, which means the Empire of Manchuria, the Chief Executive the Emperor Kangtê, and the new era Kangtê.

Japan in Manchuria Japan's close relation with Manchuria began with the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95. The actual invasion of Manchuria by Russia, which was active in that region since 1858, came after the Three Powers' intervention in 1895, which wrested from Japan Liaotung Peninsula, a territory acquired by Japan as a fruit of the War. This was but the beginning of unrestrained activities of Russia in Manchuria. She established the Russo-Chinese Bank with a capital of 15,000,000 roubles, which was followed by acquisition of right from China to build the Chinese Eastern Railway through Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces, together with the right to operate mines in these two provinces.

In March, 1898 Russia acquired a twenty-five years' lease of Liaotung Peninsula, which included the right to construct a railway from a point on the Chinese Eastern Railway down to Port Arthur. This railway line was completed in 1902.

Moreover, Russia took advantage of the Boxer Uprising in 1900 and dispatched troops to many important places in Manchuria. These troops Russia refused to withdraw, in spite of her promise to do so after the suppression of the uprising, and concentrated her forces on the Korean border, thus obviously menacing the safety of Japan through Korea.

All these were sufficient to lead to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, in which Japan was victorious. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, Russia transferred to Japan the lease of Kwantung province and all rights, privileges and concessions connected with or forming part of this lease. The Treaty also provided for Russia's transfer to Japan of the railway between Changchun and Port Arthur and all its branch lines, together with all rights, privileges and properties appertaining thereto.

What are known as the special rights and interests of Japan in Manchuria are mainly based on the Treaty of Portsmouth and also on the terms of loans advanced to China for the construction of railways, as well as several other agreements.

Government

Manchoukuo abrogated, with the accession to the throne of the Emperor on March 1, 1934, the Organic Law, which was in force since 1932, and promulgated on the same day the new "Organic Law of Government", which may be taken as provisional constitution. According to the new Law, the Emperor exercises all the executive powers with the assistance of the Privy Council, which may advise him on important state affairs.

The governmental power of the state is divided into four and vested in Executive, Legislative, Judicial and Supervisory Yuans.

The Executive Yuan, which corresponds to the cabinets of other countries, is headed by the Premier and comprises the various Ministers of State respectively heading the Civil Administration (Home Affairs), the Foreign Affairs, the Military Administration (War), the Finance, the Industry, the Communications, the Justice, and the Education Department.

The legislative power is vested in the Legislative Yuan, whose approval is necessary for all laws and revenue enactments, while the Supervisory Yuan supervises the conduct of officials and audits their accounts. The members of the Council may not be dismissed except for criminal of-

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fence or as disciplinary punishment, and may not be subjected to suspension or transfer of office, or reduction of salary, against their will.

The present personnel of the Manchoukuo Government includes the following. A complete change took place on the State Affairs Yuan on May 21, 1935 :

Privy Councillors :
Tsung Shih-yi (president),
Yen Chin-kai, Kuei Fu, T. Tsukushi,
H. Tanabe, Tseng Yun, H. Yada.
Hsieh Hsiao-hsu, Shen Jui-lin
State Affairs Yuan (Executive Yuan):
Prime Minister—General Chang Ching-hui
Home Minister—Lu Jung-huan
Finance Minister—Sun Chi-chang
Foreign Minister—Chang Yenching
Defence Minister—General Yu Chishan
Industry Minister—Ting Chien-hsiu
Communications Minister—Li-Shao-keng
Education Minister—Yuan Chentse
Justice Minister—Feng Han-ching
Imperial Household Minister—Hsi Hsia
Mongolian Affairs Minister— Chi Wang
Legislative Yuan
President, Dr. Chao Hsin-po

Preparations had been made to effect fundamental revisions in the system of local administration and the four provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang, and Jehol were reorganized into ten new administrative provinces, and the new system became effective on December 1, 1934. At the same time a new Department known as the Mongolian Affairs Department was formally inaugurated, and the four subprovincial governments of Hsingan Province were left unchanged. The names of provinces and their governors follow :

Provinces	Governors
Fengtien	Pao Kang
Kirin	Li Ming-shu
Pinkiang	Lu Jung-huan
Lungkiang	Sun Chi-chang
Chinchou	Hsu Shao-ching
Antung	Wang Tsu-tung
Jehol	Liu Meng-keng
Sankiang	Chin Ming-shih
Chientao	Tsai Yun-sheng
Heiho	Chung Yu
Hsingan, Eastern Division	E-lei-chun
,, Southern ,,	Yeh-hsi-hai-shun
,, Western ,,	Cha-ko-erh
,, Northern ,,	Ling Sheng

National Defence

History The Manchurian army has its origin in the Liian army which rendered great services in founding the Ching dynasty. They were since then hereditary and were garrisoned in various important points. After the Chinese Revolution of 1911 the army was modernized, and in Manchuria, there were stationed two divisions of the 27th and 28th numbering from 30,000 to 40,000. When Chang Tso-lin came into power, he increased it to 200,000, which was again increased by his son to 260,000 regulars with an additional 100,000 held as provisional forces. There was kept also a small fleet of 7 gunboats to protect trade carried on the rivers. These were the military forces in service under Chang Hsueh-liang at the time of the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident.

Present Status The army and navy of the empire is under the supreme command of the Emperor, and is garrisoned in defence of particular districts prescribed by the Emperor.

The Department of War has following 9 bureaux and offices ;

(1) The Staff, (2) The War Supplies Bureau, (3) The Horse Administration Bureau, (4) The Central Army Training Depot, (5) The Central Clothing Depot, (6) The Central Arsenal, (7) The Central Military Propaganda Bureau, (8) The central "Seikyo" Commission ("Seikyo" literally means purification of local districts), and (9) The Defence Headquarters.

The military forces at various points are ;

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1. The Imperial Guards
2. The Guards of Honour
3. The Flying Corps
4. The Gendarmerie Headquarters
5. Fengtien Army
6. Kirin „
7. Heilungkiang Army
8. Jehol „
9. East Hsingan „
10. North „ „
11. South „ „

The army numbers 120,000. As to the coastal and river defence, the country maintains 8 warships, 7 gunboats and 3 vessels.

Foreign Relations

With Japan (1) Recognition by Japan. Japan is the only country with which Manchoukuo is exchanging envoys. Her relation with Japan is defined in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, between the two countries at Hsinking, providing for their mutual defence. (See p. 204) The document is also notable for the fact that by virtue of it, Japan accorded recognition de jure to the new state far ahead of other nations.

(2) Emperor Kangtê's visit on Japan. In June, 1934, Prince Chichibu was sent to the Empire to convey the Imperial Message of Congratulation to the Emperor and Empress of the new state. In return for this, the Emperor Kangtê paid a visit to Japan, arriving Tokyo on April 6, 1935, and made a formal call on the Emperor of Japan on the same day. He stayed till April 24.

(3) Abolition of Extraterritorial Privileges. Manchoukuo has confirmed, by the Japan-Manchoukuo protocol, the extraterritorial privileges which Japan had been enjoying under treaties with China. But the development and progress of the country, since its founding, in all branches of administrative system, which are connected with extraterritoriality, for instance, in judicial, police and taxation systems, have been noteworthy. In fact more than ¥8,000,000 was set up for the reform of these systems in the budget for 1934. Accordingly Japan decided to give up the rights of extraterritoriality and obtained the Imperial sanction for doing so on August 9, 1935. The decision has to do with the principles and the actual abolition is to be effected in gradual stages and in accord with the reform of the governmental systems and organs of Manchoukuo. (See Appendix.)

(4) Japan-Manchoukuo Economic Agreement. The agreement regarding the establishment of a joint Japanese-Manchoukuo economic commission was signed on July 15, 1935, at Hsinking by General Jirō Minami, Ambassador to Manchoukuo and commander of the Kwantung Army, and Mr. Chang Yen-ching, Foreign Minister of Manchoukuo. The object of the agreement is to extend to the economic field the inseparable relations between Japan and Manchoukuo that already exist in the defence and diplomatic fields and to accelerate the formation of the economic bloc between the two countries.

With the League of Nations In regard to the issue of the Sino-Japanese dispute at the League of Nations, Manchoukuo was concerned only indirectly as it is not a member of the Geneva organization. During the Council and the Assembly meetings of the League at which the problem was discussed, late in 1932 and early in 1933, General Ting Shih-yuan, who was later appointed Manchoukuo Minister to Japan, stayed in Geneva as a personal representative of the then Chief Executive, now the Emperor Kangtê. With the assistance of a few advisers he presented the case of his country on several occasions to the League of

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Nations through the Japanese delegation, and otherwise made efforts, though without avail, to influence those attending the League meetings in favour of his country.

With Soviet Russia (1) The N. M. R. Issue The issue of the North Manchuria Railway was first brought to light in connection with the dispute regarding the alleged unlawful detention of locomotives and carriages of the railway by the Soviet officials, followed by the partial suspension of through traffic on the line by the Manchoukuo authorities. By this suspension the connection between the North Manchuria Railway and the Ussuri Railway was almost completely cut away. Not only the loss which the Ussuri Railway would sustain was enormous, but the fate of Vladivostok was also likely to be sealed thereby. Alarmed at this, Russia hastened to come to Japan asking to render assistance for the solution of the problem.

(2) Purchase of N. M. R. In view of this and previous troubles concerning the North Manchuria Railway, Soviet Russia proposed to dispose of the railway and a conference was opened in Tokyo in June 26, 1933, between the representatives of Manchoukuo and Soviet Russia headed by General Ting Shin-yuan and Mr. Constantin Youreneff, with a few Japanese officials attending the parley as observers.

The most seemingly unsurmountable difficulty at the conference was the price to be paid for the railway, which the Soviet valued at 250,000,000 gold roubles which, calculated at its specified exchange rate, would amount to ¥625,000,000, although they later offered to reduce it to 200,000,000 gold roubles, while the Manchoukuo representatives persistently declared that they were not willing to pay any more than ¥50,000,000 for the line.

The deadlock continued with little prospect of its being overcome and after meeting six times in plenary session the representatives of the two countries continued the discussion in unofficial conversations in the hope of finding a way out of the difficulty. At last through the good offices of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Japan, Mr. Kōki Hirota, the conference came to be amicably closed and the transference of the N.M.R. was effected on March 23, 1935, the value of the railway having been agreed upon at ¥140,000,000. (See Appendix.)

(3) Dispute with Outer Mongolia. Of all the disputes which Manchoukuo has been experiencing the most complicated one was the Halha affair which took place on the frontier with Outer Mongolia.

On January 24, 1935, the troops of Outer Mongolia passed over the Manchoukuo-Outer Mongolia frontier on the east side of Lake Buir, and clashed with the garrison of Manchoukuo. Hulha is a strategic point on the Manchoukuo-Outer Mongolia frontier. Outer Mongolia is a territory of the republic formed by the Mongolian people, which is under control of Soviet Russia. The door of the republic is opened only to Russia, it being closed not only to Manchoukuo, but also to China, which formerly had sovereignty over it.

The delegates of the two countries began to hold conference on June 1, 1935 at Manchuli to settle the affair and also to establish a frontier line between the two countries. The delegates held more than ten sessions covering two months, but still have not come to any satisfactory agreement (August 15, 1935).

(4) Committee on Frontier Disputes between Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R. In view of almost endless disputes occurring at the frontier

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regions between Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R., the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. K. Hirota, proposed to Ambassador Yuoreneff of the U.S.S.R. at Tokyo to establish a joint commission for the settlement of questions arising in the frontier between Japan, Manchoukuo and the U.S.S.R. The proposition is expected to materialize in the near future.

With Great Britain and the U. S. A. The Manchoukuo Government has decided to make the Petroleum Monopoly Law effective as from April 10, 1935. The governments of Great Britain and America protested against Japan stating that the above law infringes the principles of the Open Door and Equal Opportunity established by the Nine-Power Treaty. The Japanese Government replied that it is an independent action of the state of Manchoukuo, and that Japan can do nothing with it. The reason of the protest of the British and American Governments is that the capital invested in petroleum in Manchoukuo by their nationals would be practically expelled from the country by coming into force of this law. But the Manchoukuo Government had to issue this law to effectuate the control of its principal industries which are absolutely necessary for her development, with no aim to expel foreign capitals.

With China Manchoukuo, when she proclaimed her independence on March 1, 1932, notified China that her relation with the latter would be the same as with any other power, and declared that she would take over the business of postal service on the 20th of the same month. The country made new stamps and post cards, and had actually taken over the postal business on July 25, 1932. As to the collection of customs duties, the business was also taken over by the Manchoukuo Government on September 25.

The question of railway, which was another important problem, came to a satisfactory solution on June 28, 1934, and the railway connection which was severed for 2 years and 9 months since the occurrence of the Manchurian Incident has been restored. Since July 1, 1934, one train each from Peiping and Mukden is being despatched every day.

Recognition by Salvador On March 3rd, 1934, the Republic of Salvador declared that she would recognize Manchoukuo as an independent state.

With the Holy See Under date of April 18, 1934, the Holy See notified the Manchoukuo Government of its decision to form a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate in Manchoukuo. This notice, originally given to the Manchoukuo Government by Bishop Gaspais, was confirmed on August of the same year by an official communication from His Eminence Pierre Cardinal Fumasoni-Biondi, prefet de la S. Congregation de la Propagande. At the same time, His Eminence in his communication to the Manchoukuo Foreign Minister stated that the Catholic missions in Manchoukuo would gladly contribute to the moral and intellectual development of the country according to the disposition of the Manchoukuo authorities.

Passport Visé Meanwhile, the Department of Foreign Affairs of Manchoukuo assiduously endeavoured to pave the way for the opening of diplomatic relations with European and American countries, and promulgated new regulations governing the granting of passports and their visés effective June 1, 1933, and otherwise took steps to provide travelling facilities for foreigners.

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Simultaneously with the enforcement of the new regulations, the Manchoukuo Foreign Office opened four passport offices in Antung, Dairen, Yingkow and Suifeng on June 1 to which Shanghai-kwan, Manchuli, Tumen, Heiho and Kupeikou were added later, pursuant to the stipulations of the said regulation. Between June 1, 1933 and September 30, 1934, a total of 11,395 passports of foreigners entering or passing through the country were examined and viséd, an average of 950 a month.

Manchoukuo Consulates Another event worth mentioning in connection with Manchoukuo's foreign relations was the opening of the Manchoukuo consulate at Blagoveschenk, the first consulate to be established in a foreign country by the new nation, late in September, 1932. Mr. Kuei Heng-chin was appointed in charge of this consulate.

The number of Manchoukuo residents in Blagoveschensk, which is a Soviet city located near the Siberian border on the bank of the Amur River on the opposite side to Heiho, a Manchoukuo town, is approximately 7,000, most of them being engaged in the retail business.

Manchoukuo's second consulate in Soviet Russia was opened at Chita in January, 1933, the staff being headed by Mr. Li Yuan as consul.

Also the consulate at Shingishu, Korea, the first of the kind to be established on the Japanese Empire, was opened on November 9, 1934.

Exchange of Ambassadors The recognition of Manchoukuo by Japan on September 15, 1932 was acknowledged by the dispatch of Pao Kuancheng to Japan by the Manchoukuo Government, to stay in Tokyo as Manchoukuo's representative, towards the end of the same month, and later by the visit to Tokyo by the Foreign Minister of Manchoutikuo, Hsieh Chieh-shih, in November, 1932.

Meanwhile General Nobuyoshi Muto, commander of the Kwantung army, ambassador to Manchoukuo and governor of the Kwantung Leased Territory, who signed the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol on September 15, 1932, presented his credentials as ambassador to the Chief Executive of the country.

This was followed by the arrival of General Ting Shih-yuan on May 10 in Tokyo as the first Manchoukuo Minister to Japan. Meanwhile Manchoukuo desired to elevate the legation at Tokyo to the status of embassy in view of increasing importance in relation with Japan, which was endorsed by Japan on May 21, 1935. The first ambassador of Manchoukuo to Japan is Mr. Hsieh Chieh-shih, the former Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Shortly after the conclusion of Jehol expedition, Marshal Muto, to which rank he was promoted, fell ill in Hsinking and died on July 27. He was succeeded at his post by General Takashi Hishikari. General Hishikari retired from his post on December 10, 1934, and was succeeded by General Jiro Minami.

Diplomatic Representations Japan is the only nation which has an embassy in Manchoukuo. Consulates established by Japan and other powers in the country and their locations follow:

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Country	Description	Location
Japan	Embassy	Hsinking
	Consulate-General	" Mukden, Chilin, Harbin, Lungchingtsun
	Branch Offices of Consulate-General	Hajiung, Tunghua, Hsinmin, Hunchung, Paito-ao-kou, Chutsu
	Consulates	Kaichieh, Toutao-kou, Yingkow, Antung, Liaoyang, Tieh-ling, Chinchou, Tsi-tsi-Har Manchuli, Chihfeng
	Branches of Consulates	Nungan, Taolu
The U. S. A.	Consulate-General	Mukden, Harbin
	Consulate	Dairen, Yingkow
Great Britain	Consulate-General	Mukden, Harbin
	Consulates	Dairen, Yingkow
Germany	"	Dairen, Mukden, Harbin
France	"	" " "
Soviet Russia	Consulates-General	Mukden, Harbin
	Consulate	Dairen
Holland	"	Dairen (Honorary), Harbin
Sweden	"	" " "
Finland	"	" " "
Norway	"	Yingkow
Austria	"	Mukden
Italy	"	Harbin
Portugal	"	"
Czechoslovakia	"	"
Belgium	"	Harbin (Acting vice-consul)
Denmark	"	" (Honorary consul)
Esthonia	"	" " "
Latvia	"	" " "
Lithuania	"	" " "

Finance

While the finance under Chang Tso-ling was comparatively sound in his earlier administration, the expenditure commenced to increase steadily due to his army enlarged in latter days. Thus in 1926, the total expenditure was ¥120,000,000 and showed a budgetary deficit of ¥12,000,000. When he was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-liang, the deficit was further increased. The recklessness of his finance was evidenced by the fact that, of the total expenditure of ¥142,500,000, the sum defrayed for the military purpose amounted to ¥114,720,000. The deficit thus created was met by the increased tax and inflation of currency, causing thereby great miseries of the people.

In view of the deplorable state of affairs, as above stated, the leaders of Manchoukuo directed their efforts for the stabilization of the financial conditions of the country without increasing tax and economic pressure on the people. It is much to the credit of the new state that such a rapid and sound development has been made in finance and currency in so short a time.

Manchoukuo's national budgets since its foundation follow:

MANCHOUKUO'S NATIONAL BUDGET

(in M¥ 1,000)

Fiscal years	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total
1932-33	97,386	15,922	113,308	104,482	8,826	113,308
1933-34	132,134	17,035	149,169	107,449	41,720	149,169
1934-35	163,321	25,404	188,725	131,662	57,063	188,725

Fiscal year runs from July to June.

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The budget for 1934-35 follows :

GENERAL ACCOUNT

Ordinary Revenue

	1934-35	1933-34	Increase or decrease
Taxes and duties	M¥140,475,587	M¥108,629,445	M¥31,846,142
Customs duties	72,041,107	49,781,018	22,260,089
Internal revenue	46,818,480	38,111,627	8,706,853
Salt gabelle	21,616,000	20,736,800	879,200
Stamp revenue	8,131,120	—	8,131,120
Monopoly profits	8,208,000	15,386,646	*7,178,646
Monopoly Bureau profits	4,000,000	9,828,246	*5,828,246
Kirin-Heilungkiang Salt Transportation Office	3,500,000	5,000,000	*1,500,000
Others	708,000	558,400	149,600
Revenues from state industries and other sources	6,506,367	8,118,209	*1,611,842
Total	163,321,074	132,134,300	31,186,774

Extraordinary Revenue

	1934-35	1933-34	Increase or decrease
General	M¥3,040,130	M¥6,678,204	*M¥3,638,074
From Special Accounts	750,000	317,310	432,690
Loan funds	5,000,000	7,000,000	*2,000,000
Surplus from previous year	16,613,854	3,039,364	13,574,490
Total	25,403,984	17,034,878	8,369,106
Grand total	188,725,058	149,169,178	39,555,880

* Shows a decrease.

Expenditure

	Ordinary	Extraordinary	Total
Dept. of Imperial Household	M¥2,000,000	—	M¥2,000,000
General Affairs Board	10,473,191	M¥35,021,007	45,494,198
General Administrative for Hsingan Province	2,442,348	418,355	2,860,703
Dept. of Civil Affairs	23,663,687	8,345,899	32,009,586
Dept. of Foreign Affairs	1,421,393	158,021	1,579,414
Department of Defence	49,230,393	9,041,638	58,272,031
Department of Finance	13,645,067	10,077,656	23,722,723
Department of Industry	2,374,732	2,825,252	5,199,984
Department of Communications	3,128,234	319,917	3,448,151
Department of Justice	7,882,400	141,600	8,024,000
Department of Education	5,000,585	1,113,683	6,114,268
Total	121,262,030	67,463,028	188,725,058

The budget for Special Accounts is estimated to amount to M¥136,434,133 for revenue and M¥126,956,705 for expenditure, the details of which follow :

SPECIAL ACCOUNTS

	Revenue	Expenditure
General Affairs Board		
Adjustment fund for old loans secured on customs duties and salt gabelle	M¥32,313,900	M¥32,313,900
Capital Construction Bureau	9,661,015	8,750,137
Supplies	11,316,635	11,354,967

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	Revenue	Expenditure
Sinking Fund	M¥5,542,354	M¥5,542,354
Dept. of Defence		
Army Clothing Factory	7,296,771	7,297,189
Arsenal	7,000,000	7,000,000
Dept. of Finance		
Monopoly Bureau	25,724,000	21,158,872
Kirin-Heilungkiang Salt Transportation Office	17,310,277	13,323,223
State Properties Adjustment Fund	4,645,050	4,491,922
Investments	12,120,680	12,120,680
Dept. of Communications Postal Administration	3,503,451	3,503,451
Total	136,434,133	126,956,705
General Account	188,725,058	188,725,058
Grand Total	325,159,191	315,681,763

The budget for general account amounts to M¥188,725,058, representing an increase of M¥39,555,880 over that of the previous year. Figures of the special accounts are revenue, M¥136,434,133, and expenditure, M¥126,956,705, as compared with M¥106,945,834, the figure for both revenue and expenditure for the preceding year.

Among the sources of revenue it is estimated that receipts from customs duties will total M¥72,638,107, or 51 per cent. of the total income from duties and taxes. Compared with the estimated total revenue from the same source for the previous year, the above sum shows an increase of M¥22,857,089 or 45 per cent. The growth in customs receipts is anticipated in view of the country's expanding foreign trade, the improving domestic economic condition, and the reduction of smuggling through the improvement of the customs system.

A growth of M¥11,038,909 over the previous year is anticipated in the internal revenue which is estimated at M¥46,221,480. The economic development of the country and the improvement of the tax-collecting system through the restoration of peace and order are given as reasons for this anticipated increase.

All departmental budgets, with the exception of the Finance Department, show considerable increases. The most conspicuous is that of the Department of Education whose expenditure is estimated at M¥6,114,268, as compared with M¥931,102 for the previous year. The Department of Civil Affairs gained M¥8,000,000, the General Affairs Board, about M¥6,000,000, the Department of Defence, M¥16,300,000, and the Department of Industry, an increase of about M¥1,800,000 over the previous year.

The Government has incorporated in its social and industrial policies a system of gradual reduction of internal taxes and readjustment of various other duties and levies. Besides the unification of business taxes and readjustment of the foodstuff tax, the Government has effected the revision or the abolition of some ten different taxes, relieving the people of tax burdens amounting to about M¥26,000,000. In view of the importance of salt in the daily life of the people, the authorities have lowered the price of this commodity by M¥0.30 per picul since March, 1934. The old Import and Export Tariff rates have also been revised.

Government Monopolies As a means of lightening the tax burdens of the people and to suppress the smuggling of salt in the Korean border districts, the Government, since September, 1933, has reduced the price of salt in the Chientao district by sums ranging from M¥2.20 to

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M¥3.55 per picul. For the relief of the inhabitants of Kirin and Heilungkiang provinces who suffered greatly during the old régime, the authorities have cut down the salt tax and salt price by M¥1.00 per picul since March, 1934, although this has resulted in the decrease of the monopoly profits by M¥1,100,000.

The opium monopoly system has been instituted for the purpose of eliminating the evil practice of opium-smoking and controlling the smuggling of opium and the cultivation of poppy. The profits from the monopoly are set aside to cover the expenditures for the control, relief and education of the opium addicts.

National Loans and Sinking Fund Although the Government makes it a point not to float loans to cover any revenue deficit, the following national loans have been raised since the founding of the new régime:

1.	State Founding Loan	G¥30,000,000
2.	Bank of Chosen Loan	20,000,000
3.	Local Municipal Construction Loans	10,000,000
	Total	60,000,000
1.	Capital Construction Loan	M¥ 5,000,000
2.	Opium Monopoly Fund	2,600,000
3.	Central Bank of Manchou Loss Compensation Loan	33,000,000
4.	Old Foreign Claims Liquidation Fund	5,147,950
5.	Shing-hai, Hu-hai, Tsi-ku Railways Expropriation Fund	11,928,000
6.	Bonus to Customs staff	3,504,070
7.	State Founding Loan (Central Bank shares)	7,500,000
8.	North Manchuria Special District Loan, etc.	1,140,000
	Total	M¥69,820,020

In conformity with the practice of preserving international good faith the Government has put aside a special sinking fund to meet its due share of foreign loans secured on the Chinese Maritime Customs and Salt Gabelle as follows:

1932	M¥13,386,192
1933	8,512,562
Total	21,898,754

Furthermore, the Government has since the 1933 fiscal year put aside a sum equivalent to ten per cent. of the surplus of annual revenues as a sinking fund to cover the national loans in general. This fund at present totals M¥1,758,600.

Banking

General Prior to the founding of Manchoukuo and under the régime of the Chang family each of the Three Eastern Provinces had its central bank. Each of them took advantage of its note issuing power conferred on it. Especially the central bank in Fengtien province was almost reckless in the issue of paper money, the amount it issued in 1929 for providing funds for military purpose reaching M¥1,500,000,000 with the resultant slump of the value of the paper money to one seventieth of its worth. The new government, therefore, aimed at the effective control and stabilization of the currency. It enacted laws for this purpose, adopted the silver standard, as this system suits more to the character of the country, and established the Central Bank of Manchou.

Central Bank of Manchou This bank was established on July 1, 1932, and it opened business on the same day. In it were included four old banks of issue, the Three Eastern Provinces and the Frontier Bank. It has its head office at Hsinking, and branch offices at Mukden, Kirin, Tsitsihar and Harbin. It is capitalized at M¥30,000,000, and Manchoukuo government hold more than 50,000 shares of M¥100 each. It is authorized to mint coins and issue notes.

The balance statement of the Central Bank of Manchou as at the close of business, December 31st, 1934, follows:

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ASSETS

Capital unpaid	M¥15,000,000.00
Advances to the Government	19,100,000.00
Time loans	69,788,000.00
Overdrafts	60,966,000.00
Bills discounted, etc.	10,144,000.00
Deposits with other banks	50,489,000.00
Liabilities of customers for acceptances and guarantees	504,000.00
Suspenses (Short-term Advances)	11,896,000.00
Various securities	58,973,000.00
Bullion	29,870,000.00
Foreign money	8,668,000.00
Bank premises	21,312,000.00
Cash on hand	7,566,000.00
Total	369,323,000.00

LIABILITIES

Capital subscribed	M¥30,000,000.00
Legal reserve	777,000.00
Notes issued	168,382,000.00
Government deposits	51,210,000.00
Fixed deposits	7,885,000.00
Current deposits	22,430,000.00
Special current deposits	5,480,000.00
Deposits at notice	11,402,000.00
Other deposits	2,960,000.00
Loans from other banks	20,753,000.00
Bills payable	2,011,000.00
Acceptances and guarantees	504,000.00
Suspenses (Short-term deposits)	44,520,000.00
Balance carried over	230,000.00
Net profits for the half year	823,000.00
Total	369,323,000.00

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT

1. Total gross profit for the period	M¥6,445,000.00
2. Total gross loss for the period	5,621,000.00
Net profits for the period	823,000.00
Balance carried over	230,000.00
Total	1,053,000.00

ALLOCATION OF PROFITS

1. Reserve against losses and contingencies	M¥68,000.00
2. Reserve for dividend	25,000.00
3. Special reserve	180,000.00
4. Bonus for executives	35,000.00
5. Dividend for shareholders (6% per annum)	450,000.00
6. Balance carried forward	295,000.00

Currency Problem The currency in Manchoukuo has been in an extremely complicated condition, native and Japanese and other notes and coins being in circulation. But in the newly regulated system of currency of Manchoukuo, 23.91 grammes of silver is taken as the unit called the yuan, there being 100 fen or 1,000 li in one yuan. The new paper notes are issued in five different denominations of 100 yuan, 10 yuan, 5 yuan, one yuan and chian, or 50 fen, circulated together with 1-chiao and 5 fen nickels and 1-fen and 5-li coppers.

Note Issue Before opening for business on July 1, 1932, the Central Bank of Manchou took over old notes of 15 different kinds and 136 denominations amounting to M¥142,234,872.34 calculated in the new currency at the exchange rate fixed officially. This figure was gradually reduced and by the end of June, 1934, M¥132,400,000 or 93 per cent. had been redeemed by the Bank. The amount of the notes in circulation at present reaches M¥130,000,000.

Other Banking Institutions Though the Central Bank of Manchou occupies the controlling position in the monetary market as the note issuing bank, there are other banks which do substantial banking business. The names and capitalizations of the principal banks follow:

Name	Authorized Capital
(1) Manchoukuo Banks	
Fntien Commercial and Industrial Bank	M¥2,200,000
Fentien Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Yingkow " "	1,000,000
Kung Cheng Yu Bank	500,000
Tungpien Industrial Bank	1,500,000
I Fa Bank	1,000,000
I Tung Commercial Bank	1,000,000
Hui Hua Bank	250,000
(2) Japanese Banks	
Yokohama Specie Bank	¥100,000,000
Bank of Chosen	400,000,000
Shoryu Bank	12,000,000
Manshu Bank	10,000,000
(3) Chinese Banks	
	Hsien Tayang
Central Bank of China	25,000,000
Bank of Communication	10,000,000
Chin Cheng Bank	10,000,000
Ta Chung Bank	4,000,000

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(4) Other Foreign Banks	
Russo-Asiatic Bank	R65,000,000
The Far Eastern Bank	$5,000,000
Hongkong Shanghai Banking Corp'n	$5,000,000
National City Bank of New York	$150,000,000
The Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China	£3,000,000

To aid the sound development and proper control of banking, the Government promulgated a new Banking Law in November, 1933.

Encouraged by the favourable results of the two credit associations which were created in 1932 in Fengtien province, one each in Shenyang and Fu districts, to aid the rural communities, the Finance authorities in 1933 inaugurated eight similar associations in Fengtien, two in Kirin and one in Heilungkiang provinces, and are at present making preparations for the establishment of 40 during 1934.

Foreign Investments

General The foreign investments in Manchoukuo, in 1933 amount to ¥2,063,850,000 distributed among the various countries as follows, according to the statistics compiled by the South Manchuria Railway Company:

Country	Amount of Investments	Percentage
Japan	¥1,510,755,000	73.201
Russia	465,051,000	22.531
Great Britain	39,590,000	1.918
United States	26,400,000	1.279
France	21,086,000	1.022
Sweden	850,000	0.041
Denmark	157,000	0.008
Total	2,063,880,000	100.000

Japanese Investments The distribution among various industries of the Japanese investments in Manchoukuo is tabulated by the South Manchuria Railway Company as follows:

Items	Amount Invested	Percentage
Railways	¥356,316,000	24.00
Harbours	63,834,000	4.00
Transportation	28,086,000	2.00
Agriculture, mining, and forestry	241,045,000	16.00
Manufacturing	110,121,000	7.00
Commerce	117,758,000	8.00
Electric and gas industries	37,283,000	2.50
Banking	106,705,000	7.00
Finance and trust	97,634,000	6.50
Public utilities	302,569,000	20.00
Miscellaneous	49,453,000	3.00
Total	1,510,755,000	100.00

Foreign Trade

Manchuria was first opened to foreign trade in 1862, when Yingkow was opened as a commercial port. This port lost its former prosperity when Russia made Dalny (Dairen) a free port and built a railway between Harbin and Dalny.

Dairen became the greatest port of export for Manchurian products after completion of its harbour facilities. The rebuilding of the Antung-Mukden Railway and the construction of the bridge spanning the Yalu River have made possible the recent development of Antung as a commercial port.

A noteworthy feature of Manchoukuo's foreign trade during the 20 years or so up to 1930 was the annual excess of exports, ranging from several tens of million hk. tls. to 100,000,000 hk. tls. or more. These features have completely changed since the world depression which started in 1930 and the establishment of Manchoukuo which followed the Manchurian Incident. Imports began to increase at an unprecedented rate due to the huge demand for building materials required for the construction projects throughout the country. Imports continued to surpass exports at such a rapid pace that in 1933 Manchoukuo's foreign trade finally registered an import excess of M¥90,000,000, which fur-

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ther increased to M¥145,000,000 in 1934, and thus completely reversed the former tendency. It is believed that this new trend will continue for quite a long time, as imports will in all probability continue to grow with the development of industry and commerce.

As staple exports of Manchoukuo soy beans, bean oil, kaoliang, wheat, wild silk, coal and lumber are the best known. Among the import are cotton fabric, cotton yarn, sugar, tobacco, petroleum, iron, steel, machinery and paper. The growth of the foreign trade of Manchoukuo is illustrated in the following table :

Year	Imports	Exports	Total
	(In 1,000 Haikwan Tls.)		
1907	35,516	24,421	59,929
(Average of 5 years 1907–1912)	73,528	74,590	148,119
1917	158,562	161,120	319,682
1927	268,913	408,036	676,949
1928	302,956	434,035	736,991
1929	329,603	425,651	755,255
1930	306,999	396,714	703,713
1931	(in M¥1,000) 323,975	693,903	1,017,878
1932	301,068	616,152	917,220
1933	514,540	423,325	937,867
1934	592,562	448,426	1,041,988

The decrease in the amount of exports and imports in 1932 is due to the Manchurian Incident.

Among the countries trading with Manchoukuo, Japan by far occupies the most conspicuous position as may be seen from the following table which shows Manchoukuo's foreign trade since 1931 with various countries :

FOREIGN TRADE OF MANCHOUKUO BY COUNTRIES

Exports (in M¥1,000)

Countries	1931	1932	1933	1934
Japan proper	230,828	189,733	172,668	172,262
Korea	34,103	42,321	30,355	46,413
China	214,282	169,967	55,210	65,694
U.S.S.R.	65,946	33,785	12,918	8,423
Hongkong	11,003	5,363	6,213	6,848
British India	383	2,123	1,080	645
Great Britain	23,842	11,026	8,793	16,218
France	2,223	3,026	2,545	2,921
Germany	8,103	73,946	66,357	53,310
Belgium	508	1,507	281	1,190
Netherlands	55,964	6,302	5,910	8,072
Dutch East Indies	9,774	5,415	4,045	1,709
Italy	4,376	2,167	1,847	4,303
U.S.A.	8,874	5,009	7,414	5,966
Other countries	23,694	64,461	47,689	54,447
Total	693,903	616,152	423,325	448,426

FOREIGN TRADE OF MANCHOUKUO BY COUNTRIES

Imports (in M¥1,000,

Countries	1931	1932	1933	1934
Japan proper	126,540	162,430	312,099	383,296
Korea	9,856	12,903	25,913	25,305
China	96,129	54,968	79,812	57,594
U.S.S.R.	20,986	6,825	7,569	4,875

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Countries	1931	1932	1933	1934
Hongkong	12,886	8,090	8,004	2,596
British India	8,701	18,400	14,703	23,943
Great Britain	6,345	7,106	7,141	9,316
France	1,022	986	779	564
Germany	7,080	5,769	10,454	12,455
Belgium	3,181	800	1,294	703
Netherlands	819	321	425	388
Dutch East Indies	1,959	214	3,324	6,694
Italy	932	133	1,787	701
U.S.A.	18,805	17,747	23,996	35,277
Other countries	9,734	4,273	12,290	28,863
Total	323,975	301,068	514,540	593,562

Principal commodities exported and imported since 1931 and their values follow:

PRINCIPAL EXPORT COMMODITIES OF MANCHOUKUO

(in M¥1,000)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933	1934
Soy beans	245,656	224,420	169,095	160,349
Bean cakes	124,748	103,445	57,614	51,509
Coal	71,115	59,863	47,201	41,956
Bean oil	57,400	38,238	18,472	16,262
Kaoliang	23,867	28,401	6,948	7,311
Wild silk	18,568	10,017	9,565	7,409
Other beans	17,533	12,206	9,180	—
Maize	17,052	23,556	14,745	5,016
Iron & steel	16,878	15,069	10,446	10,380
Ground nuts	13,055	8,435	8,826	14,129
Millets	—	23,566	14,745	19,940
Mixed cattle food	—	—	6,381	8,668
Cotton yarn	—	8,202	6,999	6,136
Sesame seeds	—	1,275	4,664	5,865
Salt	—	7,554	3,582	5,438
Others and total	693,903	616,152	423,325	448,426

PRINCIPAL IMPORT COMMODITIES OF MANCHOUKUO

(in M¥1,000)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933	1934
Cotton goods	46,788	40,966	69,167	92,870 *
Wheat flour	25,238	30,582	58,678	57,059
Gunny bags	24,784	25,998	16,991	16,134
Raw cotton	16,062	16,299	11,046	—
Cotton yarn	13,781	12,329	20,921	—
Sugar	13,758	14,608	16,028	11,319
Medicine	12,809	6,783	9,458	—
Tobacco	12,665	9,196	11,236	11,236
Iron & steel	11,112	21,808	39,996	58,227
Vehicles	6,456	5,251	22,685	30,976
Machines and tools	—	6,005	9,543	28,056
Lumber	—	3,625	9,637	17,499
Papers	—	7,699	10,012	12,139
Petroleum	—	4,528	7,582	11,621
Silk goods	—	2,879	8,128	10,942
Gasolene	—	3,612	9,009	9,865
Woollen goods	—	9,766	7,831	9,579
Others and total	323,975	301,068	514,540	593,562

*Includes cotton yarn.

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Agriculture

General The vast plains of Manchuria consist for the most part of agricultural land, covered with fertile soil or humus, and agriculture has always been the main occupation of the people of Manchuria. The recent development of transport facilities has encouraged the coming of immigrants in large numbers from China, especially from Shantung province. Undeveloped land is being thus brought under cultivation, and every year sees some increase in the total amount of farming products. Unfortunately, these immigrants possess neither scientific knowledge nor capital, and, as they still follow primitive methods of cultivation, the productiveness of the land is not yet fully exploited. The wide plains that characterize the country invite the use of machinery for large-scale cultivation, and if capital and technical skill were applied, their agricultural products could certainly be multiplied manifold. One novel feature of the agriculture in Manchoukuo is that Korean farmers who migrated there are doing a large share of work.

Cultivated Area The plains along the lower Liao River, the upper and middle Sungari River, and the Hurka River are most fertile and constitute the main agricultural territory of Manchoukuo. Next come the lands in the centre or Heilungkiang province and along the lower reaches of the Sungari. These districts have been developed with an astonishing rapidity by the Chinese immigrants from Shantung and Hopei.

At the end of 1931 the area under cultivation totalled 13,733,000 hectares, an increase of 876,000 since 1929. In 1932, however, due to the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident and by a devastating flood in North Manchuria, the area decreased by 300,000 hectares. A further decrease of 170,000 hectares was witnessed in 1933, partly due to floods in North Manchuria but more to a great decrease of the exports of soy beans to European countries and consequent fall in the prices of agricultural products in general.

A decline in 1934 in agricultural prices, together with the plight of farmers in the North probably would contract the area under cultivation. Possibilities, however, for the future extension of farm areas are abundant inasmuch as more than 50 per cent. of Manchoukuo's arable land is yet uncultivated.

The area of arable land in Manchoukuo since 1929 follows :

AREA OF CULTIVATED LAND IN MANCHURIA

(Unit in hectare)

Year	South Manchuria	North Manchuria	Total
1929	6,232,720	6,634,080	12,866,800
1930	6,529,200	6,858,230	13,387,430
1931	6,582,600	7,150,650	13,733,250
1932	6,263,840	7,150,650	13,414,490
1933	6,299,750	6,941,490	13,241,240

Principal Crops The total tonnage of the agricultural products of Manchoukuo for the year 1933 was 18,477,000 tons. Production of principal agricultural crops since 1929 follows :

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CULTIVATED AREAS AND PRODUCTION OF CEREALS

CULTIVATED AREAS

(in hectares)

	Soy Beans	Other Legumes	Kaoliang	Millet	Maize	Wheat	Paddy-field Rice	Upland Rice	Other Cereals
1929	3,989,920	347,350	2,965,150	2,131,780	876,220	1,297,150	88,280	111,890	1,043,520
1930	4,118,450	350,220	3,031,420	2,209,670	865,520	1,381,200	98,140	108,380	1,086,320
1931	4,200,590	318,490	2,980,490	2,282,320	987,710	1,586,160	81,800	118,500	1,232,190
1932	3,878,610	300,580	2,661,360	2,156,690	979,990	1,395,150	62,980	105,270	1,124,250
1933	4,000,670	323,250	2,658,430	2,380,850	1,101,950	1,373,950	79,360	104,760	1,218,050

PRODUCTION

(in metric tons)

1929	4,849,460	377,490	4,681,560	3,351,960	1,613,290	1,302,230	136,820	156,270	1,598,690
1930	5,297,820	369,270	4,779,690	3,276,480	1,585,680	1,356,660	154,350	157,840	1,722,760
1931	5,227,010	312,820	4,497,490	2,960,020	1,701,110	1,580,310	158,640	162,800	1,852,670
1932	4,267,890	277,670	3,729,360	2,615,370	1,541,850	1,133,090	109,790	137,310	1,550,390
1933	5,205,170	325,320	4,229,440	3,273,020	1,868,290	1,429,810	164,880	148,160	1,832,950
1934	3,841,000	265,000	3,784,000	2,280,000	1,516,000	645,000	190,000	129,000	1,513,000

Kwantung Leased Territory and the S.M.R. Zone excluded.
1933 and 1934 figures are estimates.

Thus the country has an abundant supply of food to feed the people, which now roughly numbers 30,000,000. The surplus of crops is exported every year the total amount of which in 1932 was M¥211,562,000, and in 1934 M¥244,282,000. The quantity and value of agricultural products which were exported during 1931-1933 follow:

EXPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS, 1931-1933

Commodities	1931		1932		1933	
	Qty in 1,000 pcls	Value in M¥1,000	Qty in 1,000 pcls	Value in M¥ 1,000	Qty in 1,000 pcls	Value in M¥ 1,000
Soy beans	48,536	125,114	39,111	169,095	41,308	160,348
Other legumes	1,601	11,512	1,580	9,180	2,161	9,993
Millets	3,825	23,566	2,803	14,745	4,006	19,940
Kaoliang	6,185	28,401	2,565	7,215	3,333	7,310
Maize	1,162	5,142	1,180	3,319	2,056	5,216
Ground-nuts	698	8,435	917	8,826	1,562	14,129
Oats	503	2,868	539	3,222	835	4,251
Hempseeds	547	2,631	542	3,052	1,078	4,410
Perilla	372	2,618	439	3,051	533	4,152
Sesame seeds	82	1,275	343	4,664	582	5,865
Mixed cattle food	—	—	2,311	6,381	4,275	8,668
Total	57,511	211,562	52,280	232,750	61,729	744,282

Soy Beans Manchoukuo produces about 60 per cent. of the total production of soy beans in the world. The beans contain about 10 per cent. of oil, and the cake which is obtained in pressing the beans is exported as fertilizer. The latest figure for production of soy beans in Manchoukuo was 5,200,000 metric tons and its total plantation area 4,000,000 hectares. The average crop per hectare was 1,300 kg.

Kaoliang Kaoliang comes next in importance to soy beans. It serves as the diet of the people. Its production in 1933 was 4,681,500 metric tons, and the area planted reached 2,965,000 hectares. The average crop per hectare is 1,240 kg. It grows more in the southern districts than in

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the northern part of Manchoukuo, and its export to Japan and China is increasing in recent years.

Millet The yield of this crop reached 3,352,000 metric tons in 1933 and its area of plantation 2,132,000 hectares. The average yield per hectare is 1,570 kg.

Wheat The northern districts of Manchoukuo are better suited than the southern part for wheat. The production reached 1,302,000 metric tons in 1933, more than one-half of which was consumed in the country as raw material for flour.

Paddy-field Rice Rice grown in paddy-fields is of comparatively recent origin in Manchoukuo. But the climate and soil of Manchoukuo are well adapted for this method of growing rice. Though the area of paddy-fields in 1933 was but 88,000 hectares and the yield 136,000 metric tons, it is not difficult to make it ten times as large both in area and yield.

Maize The product reaches 870,000 metric tons, its area of plantation about 876,000 hectares. It is mostly consumed within the country.

Special Crops In addition to the above-mentioned crops, the soil of Manchoukuo is well adapted to cotton, tobacco, hemp, ground-nuts, fruits, etc. The plantation area of cotton totals 50,000 hectares, while its production is estimated to be about 20,000,000 kin. Tobacco is produced in Kirin and Fengtien provinces, and its production is estimated at 7,800,000 kwan a year. The production of tusser silk in Manchoukuo is a hundred years old, and it has now become one of the principal staple products in the country. Its production in Fengtien province alone reaches about ¥11,000,000 in value.

Live Stock Raising of domestic animals is indispensable to Manchoukuo's agricultural system, as they serve well for the daily life of the farmer as well as for transport purpose. They are widely spread and almost every family raises some kind of them. Farm wastes are utilized for feeding them, while their excrements are used as fertilizer, and ploughing, stamping, harrowing, manuring, transporting and threshing, etc. are carried out with their help. The number and principal kinds of live stock follow:

NUMBER OF LIVE STOCK IN 1933

Kinds	Fentieng Prov.	Kirin Prov.	Heilungkiang Prov.	Jehol Prov.	Total
Cattle	516,670	429,950	658,650	201,710	1,806,980
Horses	669,220	735,070	1,033,700	616,080	3,054,707
Mules	321,530	269,250	151,920	—	742,700
Donkeys	349,330	83,410	46,000	117,460	596,200
Sheep	518,200	182,430	1,939,930	594,850	3,235,410
Hogs	3,444,030	2,273,760	1,789,400	457,300	7,964,490
Grand total	5,818,980	3,973,870	5,619,600	1,987,400	17,399,850

Wools and Hides Sheep are raised for the purpose of getting meat, but not for wools. Wools obtained from them are very coarse. They are not good for woollen cloth making, and are therefore used only as carpet wools. The amount of wools produced is estimated to be about 9,000,000 lbs. a year.

As meat is of universal demand in Manchoukuo, the number of live stock slaughtered every year is very large. Owing to the lack of accurate statistics, the number actually

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slaughtered is not known, but the production of hides is estimated to be 450,000 from cattle, 2,000,000 from sheep, and 380,000 from mules and donkeys. But there is no tannery which is equipped with modern machinery to put a good finish to the hides, though a large number of hides is exported every year.

Forestry

General The total forest area in Manchoukuo is estimated to be about 358,684 sq. km. which is equal to about 36 per cent. of the entire area of the country, and the volume of standing timber about 15,000,000,000 koku. Investigation conducted by the Manchoukuo Government, however, shows that the deforestation seems to have been done in a reckless manner in the past and the real volume of the standing timber may perhaps be about 9,000,000,000 koku. Standing timber in Manchoukuo follows :

STANDING TIMBER IN MANCHOUKUO

Districts	Estimated Standing Timber in 1,000 koku	Principal Species of Timber
Right Bank of the Yalu and the Hunho valley	276,635	Korean pine, Korean fir, Korean larch, silver-fir, maple, birch, oak, ash, Doronoki.
Sungari valley	874,036	
Tumen valley	420,401	Korean pine, fir, spruce, larch, lime, oak, elm, ash, birch.
Hurka valley	420,951	
Lalin valley	300,490	
North Manchuria Railway Eastern Line District	898,296	Korean pine, fir, spruce, maple, birch, Doronoki, Siberian cork-tree, Manchurian walnut.
Sansing district	2,615,302	Korean pine, fir, spruce, Siberian cork-tree, ash, birch, oak, lime.
Great Khingan Range	5,600,000	Larch, Japanese birch, Siberian red
Little Khingan "	3,500,000	pine, willow, alder.
Total	14,906,11	

For the purpose of preserving forests and securing their rational management, the authorities of the new régime have stopped granting fresh forest concessions and have commenced to classify forests into three categories, viz., State, public, and private, under a three-year programme. At the outset the authorities took over the various forests of the Central Bank in Kirin province as State forests, for which purpose a sum of M¥2,000,000 was appropriated in the 1933 supplementary budget. The forestry offices established in 1933 at Chiacho, Tunhua, Yenki, Wuchang and Peianchen and the branch office at Hailar, have been entrusted with the rational management of State forests and the improvement of forestry. Some 15 other forestry offices will also be established in various other districts during 1934-1935. A five-year programme for the investigation of forests by means of aerial photography is also being worked out. It is expected that with the progress of the forest investigations and the enactment of new forest laws and regulations, the most scientific and up-to-date management of forests will become possible in the near future. A pulp manufacturing plant will probably be put up as soon as conditions warrant it.

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Species of Timber In Manchuria there are as many as 300 species of timber, but the more common species are the following:

Evergreen: Korean pine, silver fir, Korean fir, spruce, larch.

Deciduous: Korean oaks, birch, Amur lime tree, ash, elm, willow.

The proportion of evergreen to deciduous is 4 to 6, and in the evergreen the Korean pine constitutes more than half of the total.

Lumber Industry Lumber industry is carried on in the districts of Antung, Kirin and Harbin, but that in Antung districts is best known. Production of lumber in Manchoukuo runs from 2,000,000 to 4,000,000 koku a year. Owing to activities in buildings and public works in Manchoukuo, the domestic product is not enough to meet the demand, and large quantities of lumber are being imported. The production of lumber during 1926-1932 follows:

LUMBER PRODUCTION IN MANCHOUKUO
(in 1,000 koku)

Year	Yalu Lumber	Kirin Lumber	Chientao and Junchun Lumber	North Manchurian Lumber	Total
1926	1,247	451	218	1,459	3,376
1927	1,919	580	336	1,048	3,885
1928	1,412	997	478	2,230	5,118
1929	948	1,042	370	1,484	3,846
1930	882	1,015	267	922	3,087
1931	1,458	983	320	505	3,268
1932	1,218	741	249	623	2,833

Fisheries

General In spite of the largeness of area, the coast line of Manchoukuo is comparatively short, its total length being only 855 kilometres. Moreover, the coast is made up of shallow bays, which readily get frozen in winter, and is not therefore favourable for fisheries. The amount of catches is valued only at about ¥5,000,000 a year. Figures for 1931-1933 are as follows:

Year	Amount of Catches in 1,000 kwan	Value in ¥1,000
1931	9,387	3,151
1932	11,171	4,104
1933	12,992	5,023

Fresh Water Fishery Fresh water fishes are abundantly found in the Sungari, the Nonni, the Mutankiang, the Ussuri, the Amur and the Liao Rivers as well as Lake Hu-jun-ti, Pei-erh-ih, etc. The amount of catches in 1932 follows:

CATCHES OF FRESH WATER FISHES

River or Lake where Caught	Amount of Catches in kin	Value in yen
Sungari River	6,000,000	650,000
Nonni „	18,600,000	1,860,000
Hujunti Lake	5,100,000	400,000
Argun River, Amur „, Ussuri „	1,000,000	100,000
Yalu River, Liao „	1,560,000	120,000

Salt Industry The coast line of Manchoukuo stretches only for 855 km. which is but one-eleventh of the entire border line of the coun-

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try. However, the coast on the Yellow Sea and the Po-hai has very little rainfall and as the evaporation is very rapid and the air dry, the district is well adapted for salt manufacturing by evaporation. The total area of salt fields now reaches 21,200,000 tsubo and the total annual production 400,000,000 kin, which may be tripled or quadrupled if the salt fields are extended. The annual output and export of salt in 1932 were 3,700,856 piculs and 481,000 piculs respectively, while the same in 1933 were 5,106,293 piculs and 990,000 piculs. The consumption of salt in the country during 1933 totalled 3,463,130 piculs, while the total amount of salt exports to Japan was somthing like, 1,500,000 piculs during 1934. The area of the salt fields in 1932 follows:

THE AREA OF SALT FIELDS AND SALT PRODUCTION

Districts	No. of Salt-fields	Area of Salt-fields tsubo
Ryojun (Port Arthur)	104	3,394,582
Dairen	3	129,899
Chinchou	9	244,499
Pulantien	147	8,531,101
Pitzuwo	261	8,891,274

With the object of increasing the production of salt, improvement of its quality, and the lowering of its price, the authorities have stationed experts at various salt-fields to undertake the improvement of the fields and the manufacturing process. At the same time, the Government is conducting an investigation of promising salt-fiields. Thus, it will not be difficult to double the present yield with a corresponding increase in exports before long.

Mining Industry

General Numerous kinds of minerals are found in Manchoukuo, of which iron, gold, coal, magnesite, fireclay, and shale oil are most abundant. The production of the principal minerals in Manchoukuo and a brief account of a few of them follow.

PRINCIPAL MINERAL PRODUCTS OF MANCHOUKUO

(in metric tons)

Kind of Minerals	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Iron ore	710,286	985,671	832,228	922,649	936,143
Pig iron	283,667	294,156	348,054	342,270	368,181
Iron sulphide	4,266	5,057	3,028	3,919	3,620
Lead ore	366	1,450	—	—	—
Manganese ore	444	723	609	270	60
Copper ore	—	750	840	—	—
Coal	9,509,563	9,893,594	10,048,652	9,048,703	7,108,282
Coke	343,741	388,807	485,312	418,625	416,306
Shale oil	—	—	981,004	1,245,094	1,412,554
Crude oil	—	—	47,815	61,081	70,631
Magnesite	25,454	31,681	29,016	36,034	55,386
Dolomite	471,710	629,502	688,489	545,131	477,350
Fire-clay	60,481	68,651	53,664	35,476	51,799

Iron Iron and coal constitute the two most important minerals in Manchoukuo. Iron deposits are mostly found in Fengtien province, especial-

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ly in Anshan and Miaoerhkou, ores coming from these deposits being turned into pig iron in Anshan and Penhsihu iron works. The estimated iron deposit is about 1,080,000,000 metric tons, of which, however, the deposit containing more than 50 per cent. iron is less than one-half of one per cent. The ore is mostly hematite and magnetite, and is not of good quality.

Coal Coal is even more important than iron. The estimated coal deposit in Manchoukuo is 4,804,000,000 metric tons, and its production in 1933 was about 9,000,000 metric tons. The production of coal in various provinces follows (in 1,000 metric tons) :

Province	1922	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Fengtien	4,508	8,800	8,259	8,569	8,794	7,506	6,750
Kirin	25	373	474	570	523	530	218
Heilungkiang	—	170	100	120	170	300	95
Jehol	66	324	405	445	544	691	45
Hsingan	—	240	270	188	7	20	—
Total	4,600	9,908	9,509	9,893	10,040	9,048	7,108

Fushun Coal Field The Fushun coal field is the most famous in Manchoukuo. The right of mining this coal was transferred to Japan by Russia as a result of the Russo-Japanese War, and since 1907 the mining has been under the management of the South Manchuria Railway Co. The average thickness of the coal seam is 40 metres, the thickest part of the seam reaching 130 metres. The estimated deposit of coal is put at 950,000,000 metric tons. The coal is bituminous, and its characteristics are a large content of volatic matter, a small quantity of ash, and generally a large amount of nitrogen. When the mine was transferred to Japan, the daily output was 300 metric tons, which in 1933 was increased to about 9,000,000 metric tons a year. The annual production of the coal field since 1910 follows :

Year	Production in metric tons	Year	Production in metric tons
1910	913,669	1928	6,900,233
1920	3,213,665	1929	6,785,000
1925	5,844,478	1930	6,864,100
1926	6,591,908	1931	6,114,700
1927	7,030,198		

Shale Oil This is a layer of brown rock which covers the coal bed at Fushun to the thickness of about 400 feet. The rock contains oil. This rock deposit is estimated at 4,400,000,000 metric tons, and its oil content at about 6 per cent., the crude oil of more than 300,000,000 metric tons may be obtained from it. The South Manchuria Railway Co. started early to utilize the rock, and established an oil mill at Fushun. The company is now obtaining more than 54,000 metric tons of the crude oil through dry distillation method, and also along with it paraffin, ammonium sulphate and coke.

In addition to the above, there are gold, silver, lead, etc., the gold deposit being estimated at ¥5,000,000,000. Also magnesite produced near Ta Shih Chiao and fireclay produced in Yen Tai and Pen Hsi Hu deserve a serious consideration. Light metal producing companies which use these products as raw materials are being organized.

Manchoukuo has such vast mineral

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resources as above stated. Since most of these products are very important for national defence, coal, gold and petroleum industries will be managed by special corporation under the Government supervision. With this in view, the Government has established the Manchuria Petroleum Co., Ltd., the Manchuria Coal Mining Co., and the Manchuria Gold Mining Co., for the investigation, management, and exploitation of these mines. As regards other minerals, permits for mining will be given out with the promulgation of new mining law.

Conforming to the general policy of recognizing the validity of mining concessions obtained under the old régime as well as of the mining applications filled up to the present since the founding of the new State, provided they do not conflict with existing laws and regulations, the Government is examining the old concessions permits and studying the actual conditions of the various mines.

The Government is considering the establishment of a gold refinery, a fuel research institute, a mineral laboratory, and a mineral products museum, all under State management, to assist and encourage private mining enterprises, secure good markets so that their products may be turned into cash promptly, and in general to contribute to the development of the mining industries.

Manufacturing Industries

General In spite of the abundant supplies of various raw materials and cheap labour, the industry in Manchoukuo is not yet in an advanced stage. This was particularly the case before the advent of Japanese into the country, owing to the undeveloped state of transport and the backward condition of most regions. At present industries have developed in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. The number of mills of the more important industries, the number of labourers, the amount of capital invested and the amount of production follow:

NO. OF FACTORIES, LABOURERS, CAPITAL AND PRODUCTION

Classified by Industries in 1932

Kind of Industry	No. of Mills	No. of Factories	Amount Invested in Yen	Amount of Production in Yen
Cotton	83	9,621	19,565,787	17,401,310
Metallic	94	1,694	2,333,732	2,399,263
Machinery	109	9,909	18,090,015	14,914,498
Ceramic	123	7,114	15,921,687	4,453,356
Chemical	167	11,021	43,543,175	83,763,325
Sawing	85	2,832	3,411,279	7,336,147
Printing and binding	70	2,405	4,150,334	2,757,007
Provisions	249	6,821	24,613,947	23,258,256
Gas and electricity	5	567	10,014,916	2,090,735
Others	152	4,152	5,313,380	6,689,907

Oil Industry Making of soy bean oil and bean cake by pressing the soy beans early developed in Manchoukuo. With almost limitless supplies of soy beans, the industry advanced from mere handicraft work into the modern advanced industry as soon as the real worth of bean oil and bean cake was recognized. The bean oil and bean cake produced in this way constitute the most important items for export. The prosperity of Manchoukuo largely depends on this industry. The number of oil mills and their production for 1931 and exports of these articles for 1932-1934 follow:

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PRODUCTION OF BEAN OIL AND BEAN CAKE, 1931

Place of Production	No. of Mills	Amount of Bean Oil Produced (In 1,000 kin)	Amount of Bean Cake Produced (In 1,000 pieces)	No. of Men Employed
Dairen	45	1,119,235	223,847	4,107
Yingkow	23	198,035	39,607	850
Antung	21	129,705	25,503	891
Harbin	33	366,953	76,187	—
Various places in southern Manchoukuo	199	361,738	71,183	1,086
Various places in northern Manchoukuo	43	215,044	47,040	—

EXPORTS OF BEAN OIL AND BEAN CAKE 1932-1934

(In 1,000 piculs)

Destinations	Bean Cake			Bean Oil		
	1932	1933	1934	1932	1933	1934
Japan proper	11,125	12,181	14,677	6	4	21
Korea	716	469	1,628	0	0	8
China	7,913	3,859	3,010	1,508	759	527
U.S.S.R.	2,121	—	—	52	—	—
Hongkong	10	—	—	10	9	26
Great Britain	56	27	15	70	81	41
Germany	724	138	154	336	403	723
Belgium	31	22	25	—	—	—
Holland	190	85	73	104	41	168
Italy	15	36	10	5	4	317
The U.S.A.	202	418	502	16	32	7
Others	398	547	281	11	6	90
Total	23,518	17,788	20,380	2,120	1,342	1,608
Total value in ¥ 1,000	103,445	57,614	51,508	38,238	18,472	16,262

Textile Industry Tusser silk is another export article next only to bean oil in importance. With the increased demand for pongees in Europe and America, the Japanese silk weavers in Fukui, Gifu and Kyoto prefectures began weaving them and the demand for this silk comes from these prefectures in Japan. The reeling is carried on by the Chinese farmers as a side line, and necessarily on the household basis. The production is largest in Antung. In 1932 it was M¥9,775,000, in 1933 M¥9,555,000 and in 1934 M¥7,408,000. About 70 per cent. of the total export goes to Japan.

Of the total population of 30,000,000 in Manchoukuo, about 90 per cent. wear cotton clothes. Therefore, from ancient times, there existed in Manchoukuo small, primitive plants for cotton weaving, but no large modern factories rose before the Great War. The establishment of the Cotton Spinning and Weaving Plant by Chinese at Mukden was followed by the establishment of three companies by Japanese, viz.: the Manchurian Cotton Spinning Company, the Chinchou Factory of the Naigai Spinning Company, and the Manchuria Fufang Company. The total number of mills in 1932 was 83, the number of labourers 9,621, and the total production ¥17,401,310. The production of course cannot keep pace with the demand, and cotton cloth constitutes one of the principal imports for Manchoukuo, the amount reaching from ¥40,000,000 to ¥74,000,000.

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Flour Milling Flour milling industry is one of the three main industries of Manchoukuo. It is carried on either by the old-fashioned native mills or the modern mills run by machinery. Harbin is the centre of flour milling and has 40 mills, there being only 8 other mills in the southern part of Manchoukuo. The production in recent years amounted to M¥22,800,000. This being insufficient to meet domestic consumption, an amount equal to from M¥31,400,000 to M¥58,700,000 is being imported yearly. The amount of its import is only second to that of cotton cloth in value.

Regarding the status of other industries, mention is omitted here, but their general aspects may be inferred from the figures in the table given at the outset of this subject.

Encouragement of Manufacturing Industries In spite of the existence of such potential factors as motive power, ample fuel and labour resources, the manufacturing industries in Manchuria have lagged behind owing to the lack of industrial knowledge and shortage of capital. In recent years, however, various industries have been undergoing a gradual development. The Government is also making strenuous efforts to accelerate the development of manufacturing industries. For this purpose, rationalization of management and intelligent control are deemed necessary for their further progress. With the increased cultivation and improvement of wheat, raw cotton, wool and hemp, for which the Government is now working, the flour milling, cotton spinning, hemp manufacturing and woollen textile industries will see greater development. Chemical industries including the light mental industries, and the manufacture of soda, oil shale products, cement, pulp, alcohol and sulphate of ammonia will also be stimulated shortly.

The Government is working for the rational development of industries by instituting necessary measures in order to exercise intelligent control over various industries, instead of leaving them entirely to the free and indiscriminate exploitation of entrepreneurs. With respect to the electric light and gas enterprises, which form the basis of modern industries and which are indispensable to the maintenance of the present cultural life of the people, the Government is endeavouring to remove the unnecessary and wasteful competition and the lack of technical uniformity existing under the present system. With this object in view it is planning to make a thorough readjustment of the existing electrical enterprises, and bring them under the unified management of a special corporation to be formed in the near future. At the same time it is considering the promulgation of new regulations concerning the electrical industry, and also an Industry Act and an Industrial Union Act for the regulation of factories. To secure a cheap supply of electricity, the Government has officially fixed the frequency at 50 cycles, and has subsidized the Association of Electrical Enterprisers in an effort to give the organization assistance and guidance.

Transportation and Communications

Situation in General While the area of Manchoukuo is about 1,300,000 square kilometres, which is three times the area of Japan proper, or about 1.9 times the entire area of the Japanese Empire, or slightly larger than the area of Germany and France put together, the total mileage of the railways in the country is only 6,932 kilometres, including poorly constructed light railways. It is

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less than one-third of the total railway length of Japan, which is 22,920 kilometres. The railway per one thousand square kilometres of area is about 54 kilometres in Japan, but in Manchoukuo it is only 5 kilometres, less than one-tenth of the rate in Japan, though somewhat better than China in which country the rate is but one kilometre.

As transportation routes, which serve as substituting or supplementary lines to the railways, there are motor roads, water-ways, and coastwise ship lines. Motor roads in the former Three Eastern Provinces stretched only 13,200 kilometres in 1928, which excludes roads in cities, towns and villages. Compared with 43,200 kilometres of motor roads as of 1927 in Japan, which excludes the roads in cities, towns and villages, the Manchurian roads are still few and undeveloped. Manchoukuo, having a coast line of only 855 kilometres on the Sea of Pechili, the coastwise ship lines are not worth mentioning. There are, however, good inland water-ways as Manchurian rivers run through great plains from their sources to the sea. Particularly the Sungari River is navigable by ships of more than 1,000 tons for a distance of about 700 kilometres from its confluence with the Amur to Harbin. But the great drawback to the river is that during the five months of freezing in winter, steamship navigation is impossible, although motor cars can use the frozen river as a highway during these winter months. Next comes the Liao River, but this is not navigable for large ships as the stream near its mouth is shallow.

In short, the transportation facilities of Manchuria are still undeveloped compared with conditions in other countries, and even this imperfect system is mostly developed by and dependent upon foreign capital. Out of the total length of railways, only 1,500 kilometres or 23 per cent. were constructed and operated by native capital, and the remaining larger portion used to be maintained by funds of Japan, Russia, Great Britain and other countries, though the situation has been slightly improved recently.

Railways before the Great War The first construction of railways in Manchoukuo was made by Great Britain and Russia, starting about 1890, in competition to each other. Great Britain established the North China Railway which now connects Peiping with Mukden. Later this line was extended northward to Tientsin and Peiping, and eastward to Yingkow and Mukden. It was in 1894 that the eastern extension of the line reached Suichang, about 90 kilometres from Shanhaikwan. Later in 1903, the main line was extended to Hsinmintun on the middle course of the Liao River, and a branch line to Yingkow on the lower stream of the Liao, which was the only open port of Manchuria until October, 1903.

In 1896, Russia obtained the right of constructing and operating a railway line crossing North Manchuria east and west. Then in 1898, she secured the similar right to construct a branch line from Harbin on the main line to Port Arthur and Dairen as well as to Yingkow. The construction of the main line extending from Manchoukuo to Vladivostok via Pogranichnaya was finished in 1901, and the southern line, including the Yingkow branch, was completed in 1903. The main and branch lines, comprising 2,500 kilometres, were opened to traffic on July, 1903.

By the terms of the Portsmouth Treaty, Japan succeeded to the Russian railway in Manchuria, south of Changchun, or Hsinking, totalling about 840 kilometres. Also Japan

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secured the right of improving the light railway between Antung and Mukden from China, about 290 kilometres. In 1912, Japan completed construction of the Kirin-Changchun Railway, 128 kilometres.

The above is an outline of railway construction in Manchuria prior to the Great War. By that time the total length of railways in Manchuria reached 4,035 kilometres, of which railways constructed by Japanese, Japanese loan and Sino-Japanese joint capital were 1,265 kilometres, lines constructed by Russia 1,726 kilometres, and that constructed through British loan 1,014 kilometres, while the line constructed by China stretched only for 29 kilometres.

Present Conditions After the Great War, the development of railways constructed with Japanese funds and those built with Chinese capital was remarkable. The line constructed with Japanese capital is the Ssupingkai-Taonan Railway with a branch to Tungliao, 426 kilometres, opened to traffic in October, 1923. Also the Taonan-Angangki Railway was opened to traffic in July, 1926, the Chinfu or Chinchou-Chengtzutung Railway in October, 1927, the Kirin-Tunhua Railway in October, 1928, and the Tientu Light Railway in the Chientao district in August, 1922.

By the utilization of foreign capital the government of Fengtien province started construction of railways to rival the Japanese lines. The first of such lines was the railway which runs from Tahushan on the Peking-Mukden Railway to Tungliao, a distance of 252 kilometres. Other lines were the Fenghai and Kihai Railways, which connect Mukden and Kirin via Hailung and Chaoyangchun. In North Manchuria, there are the Hulan-Hailun Railways, opened in December, 1928; a railway which now runs from Tsitsihar to Taian, but is expected to be extended to Koshanchen in the future; and also several coal mine railways.

Railway Policy of Manchoukuo Railways come under the supervision of the Minister of Communications, but the actual business relating to railways, the matters attached to them, and supervision over them are in the hands of the head of the railway bureau in the department. In view of the fact that railways in Manchoukuo are still in an undevelopd stage, with many small independent railways, differing widely in their method of management, etc., the Manchoukuo Government deemed it advisable to unify the management. Considering that it would be best to entrust the management to an experienced body, the Government placed the management of the entire national railways in charge of the South Manchuria Railway on March 1, 1933. Thereupon, the South Manchuria Railway Co. established the headquarters of railways at Mukden, and the company not only looked after the railways and other business attached to them, but took charge of the construction of railways, harbours, etc. Since the establishment of Manchoukuo a network of railways has been rapidly laid out, and by the end of 1933, the total mileage was 6,932 km., or 725 km. more than at the time of the Manchurian incident. The conditions of the railways in Manchoukuo are shown in the following table:

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S. M. R. CO.'S LINES

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Dairen-Wharf	Dairen Station and Wharves	3
Nankwanling-Kanchingtzu	Nankwanling and Kanchingtzu	12
Shakako-Irifune	Shakako and Irifune	4
S. M. R. Main Line	Dairen and Hsinking	701
Dairen-Port Arthur	Choushuitsu and Port Arthur	51
Tashihchao-Yingkou	Tashihchao and Yingkou	22
Mukden-Antung	Suchiatun and Antung	261
Mukden-Fushun	Suchiatun and Fushun	56
	Hunho and Yushutai	15
Tafanshen-Liushutun	Tafanshen and Liushutun (unopened)	6
Total		1,131

MANCHOUKUO STATE RAILWAYS

(Including Lines Completed After the Incident)

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Hsinking-Tumen	Hsinking and Tumen	528
,,	Chaoho and Jengtzushan	10
Kirin-Hailung	Kirin and Chaoyangchen	183
Mukden-Hailung	Mukden and Chaoyangchen	271
,,	Shaho and Hsian	67
Fengtien-Shanhaikwan	Mukden and Shanhaikwan	423
,,	Kuopangtzu and Yingkou	91
,,	Chinchou and Peipiao	113
,,	Tahushan and Tungliao	251
,,	Lienshan and Hulutao	12
Sspingkai-Taonan	Sspingkai and Taonan	317
,,	Chengchiatun and Tungliao	114
Taonan-Angangchi	Taonan and Angangchi	224
Angangchi-Peian	Angangchi and Peian	261
,,	Ningnen and Noho	87
,,	Yushutun and Chungtung	5
Hulan-Hailun	Manchuankou and Peian	327
Taonan-Solun	Taonan and Hwaiyuanchen	84
Harbin-Lafa	Harbin and Lafa	272
Chaoyangchuan-Tumenho	Chaoyangchuan and Tumenho	60
Koupeiyingtzu-Chaoyan	Koupeiyingtzu and Chaoyan	40
Total		3,740

NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY LINES

	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
	Harbin and Manchouli	935
	Harbin and Suifengho	546
	Harbin and Hsinking	240
Total		1,721

OTHER RAILWAY LINES

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Chinchou-Pitzuwo	Chinchou and Chengtzutung	102
Shaochengtzu-Liyuko	Shaochengtzu and Liyukou	63
Kaiyean-Hsifeng	Kaiyuan and Hsifeng	64
Liengkou-Hsingshancheng	Lienkiangkou and Hsingshancheng	56
Penchihu-Ninshintai	Penchihu and Ninshintai	26
Tsitsihar-Angangchi	Tsitsihar and Angangchi	29
Total		340
Grand total		6,932

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The new railway lines which were constructed after the Manchurian Incident by the State and those new lines which have been proposed and are now under construction follow :

NEW RAILWAY LINES CONSTRUCTED AFTER THE INCIDENT

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Chaoyang-Koupeiyingtzu	Chaoyang and Koupeiyingtzu	191.9
Tunhua-Tumen	Tunhua and Tumen	161.6
Hailun-Koshan	Hailun and Koshan	46.4
Taian-Koshan	Taian and Koshan	271.7
Lafa-Harbin	Lafa and Harbin	88.8
Lafa-Noho	Lafa and Noho	59.9
Chaoyang-Tumenho	Chaoyang and Tumenho	39.7
Total		810.0

NEW LINES PROPOSED AND UNDER CONSTRUCTION

Lines	Terminals	Distance in kilometre
Yuki-Rashin	Yiki and Rashin	15.3
Tapan-Lingyuan	Tapan and Lingyuan	156.3
Lingyuan-Chengte	Lingyuan and Chengte	188.6
Tumen-Ningpei	Tumen and Ningpei	252.2
Peian-Chenching	Peian and Chenching	186.3
Hsinking-Talai	Hsinging and Talai	212.0
Ningpei-Chiamussu	Ningpei and Chiamussu	310.0
Yehpaishou-Chifeng	Yehpaishou and Chifeng	166.0
Chenchin-Heiho	Chenchin and Heiho	135.0
Taonan-Tailai	Taonan and Tailai	128.0
Hwaiyuanchen-Solin	Hwaiyuanchen and Solin	95.0

South Manchuria Railway Co. This railway was acquired by Japan as a result of the Portsmouth Treaty of September, 1905, and the Sino-Japanese Treaty of December, 1905. The rights Japan secured in respect to the railway line between Dairen and Hsinking, and branch lines, were those originally held by Russia. The company is capitalized at ¥800,000,000 following the issuance of 3,600,000 new shares of ¥100 each on August 10, 1933. Until then the capital of the company was ¥440,000,000, one-half of which was held by the Japanese government, the other half being distributed among private shareholders.

The president and vice-president of the company are appointed by the Japanese Government with Imperial sanction, while the directors are also appointed by the Government, though without Imperial sanction. The auditors are elected from among the shareholders.

(1) Volume of Business. Since its formal organization in 1906 the railway business of this company has grown with the years as is shown in the following table :

Year	Passenger Revenue	Freight Revenue	Other Revenues	Total
1907	¥ 3,594,289	¥ 6,160,274	¥ 14,875	¥ 9,768,887
1912	5,008,633	13,913,341	985,482	19,907,456
1916	6,040,453	19,882,476	1,892,420	27,815,349
1921	12,194,288	59,615,835	6,394,010	78,204,132
1926	15,216,353	89,513,059	3,194,155	107,923,567

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Year	Passenger Revenue	Freight Revenue	Other Revenues	Total
1927	16,102,953	94,040,819	3,100,408	113,244,180
1928	17,619,293	97,738,147	3,281,649	118,639,090
1929	17,451,585	101,089,474	3,562,684	122,103,743
1930	11,461,175	77,936,688	5,982,867	95,380,730
1931	9,185,663	70,897,756	4,539,937	84,573,356
1932	14,812,045	85,022,314	4,012,153	103,846,512
1933	18,757,000	97,263,000	—	122,677,000

Among the goods transported by this railway, beans, bean cake, cereals and coals are the most important items.

(2) Accessory Business. In addition to its transportation business, the company is engaged in activities in many other fields including manufacturing, warehousing, shipping, mining, real estate and building, and various public works.

(a) As regards manufacturing, the company makes and repairs its own locomotives and other rolling stock at its Dairen shop, which occupies a site of 340,000 tsubo in area.

(b) The company operates warehousing business at 31 different places at the wharf of Dairen and along its railway lines.

(c) As for marine transportation, the company started a steamship service between Dairen and Shanghai in 1907. The opening of the Tsingtao line and the Hongkong line followed later, the latter being intended to facilitate the shipping of the company's coal, mined at Fushun, to South China.

All these three lines were later transferred to the Dairen Steamship Company, which is capitalized at ¥25,000,000 by the company.

(d) Since the opening of its business, the company has devoted considerable attention to the improvement of the harbour of Dairen, and the greater half of the entire harbour programme has already been finished, its present facilities being capable of handling 7,000,000 tons of freight annually with a berthing capacity of 190,000 tons of shipping at the same time.

(e) In mining, the company operates coal mines at Fushun and Yentai, and in addition to this, it is also engaged in shale-oil mining and steel foundry work.

(f) In the railway zone, the company is engaged in the real estate, building business and municipal administration, attending to the needs of sanitation, education and policing, while at the same time promoting agriculture, industry, commerce and mining in this area.

(g) The landed estate owned by this company extends over a total area of 371,430,000 square metres, of which approximately 59,000,000 square metres is leased to individuals. The company also owns some 14,200 buildings, of which 859 are rented to individuals.

(h) Another notable achievement of the company is its city-planning in various places. Up to the present it has built 25 cities at Liaoyang, Mukden, Hsinking, Yingkow, Antung, and other places. In these places the company has constructed roads, bridges, sewerage, schools, parks, markets and other modern municipal facilities.

(i) In education, the company now operates 26 kindergartens, 36 primary schools, 5 middle schools, 4 girls' high schools, 2 colleges, one university, 10 public schools for Chinese students, 34 business supplementary schools, 13 girls' housekeeping schools, 2 commercial schools, one mining school, and six other schools. It has also opened two public libraries, one each at Dairen and

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Mukden, and 21 other reading rooms. (j) Among other enterprises of the company are 16 hospitals and 5 branches, and for research and experimental work it carries on a hygienic station, an agricultural station, a farm, a tobacco farm, a geological research station, a central experimental station, and other institutions.

In 1933 the total revenue and expenditure of the company amounted to ¥248,001,717 and ¥205,081,163 respectively.

State Railway Of the total railway mileage of 6,932 kilometres, the lines owned by the Manchoukuo government covers about 5,500 kilometres. Of these railways, except those which have been completed after the Incident, most of them were constructed to rival the South Manchuria Railway Co. by the militarists of the Three Eastern Provinces. The North Manchuria Railway which was transferred to Manchoukuo by the U.S.S.R. in March, 1935, also used to be a strong competitive line of the South Manchuria Railway Co. and the Soviet Government pursued a policy which was detrimental to the interests of the South Manchuria Railway Co. As already stated these railways are now managed by the South Manchuria Railway Co. as the State organs. They are serving and will serve as such for the economic and cultural development of the country.

Water Transportation Principal ports of Manchoukuo are Dairen, Port Arthur, Yingkow, Antung and Hulutao, the harbour of the last named being still under construction.

(1) Dairen. Dairen is at the extreme end of the Kwantung Penninsula, and has a population of 400,000, being the second largest city in Manchuria. It was leased in 1898 by Russia and was made an open port in July, 1907. Soon the harbour was much improved so as to berth simultaneously 27 steamships, ranging from 1,000 tons to 25,000 tons. Furthermore, in 1930, a coal wharf was constructed at Kauchingtzu on the other side of the bay opposite Dairen. The harbour freezes in winter from December to February, but only slightly and the entrance and departure of ships are made possible by the use of ice-breakers. The management of the wharf is conducted by the South Manchuria Railway Company under the supervision of the Kwantung government.

The trade via Dairen now totals M¥703,000,000 a year, or 75 per cent. of the entire trade of Manchuria. In passenger traffic, Dairen occupies a very important position in the Europe-Asia international routes. From this port the South Manchuria Railway Company operates international trains to connect with the Korean Railway to Japan, and with the North Manchuria Railway and the Trans-Siberia Railway to Europe.

The recent traffic at the port of Dairen are shown in the following tables :

PASSENGER TRAFFIC

AT DAIREN

Passengers Embarking	1931	1932	1933
Manchurians	183,956	289,393	252,465
Japanese	47,376	56,332	77,674
Others	4,076	4,885	5,832
Total	235,405	300,610	335,971

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Passengers Landing			
Manchurians	236,864	240,286	346,099
Japanese	52,942	83,161	119,418
Others	4,021	4,821	6,729
Total	293,827	328,268	472,246

EXPORTS FROM DAIREN

(In metric tons)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933
Soy beans	1,396,611	1,578,231	1,985,532
Kaoliang	88,225	173,723	64,459
Other cereals	313,719	339,017	292,237
Bean oil	140,604	102,325	67,238
Bean cake	904,408	892,939	692,708
Coal	2,481,671	2,156,689	2,807,503
Pig iron	197,323	268,117	427,231
Others	403,613	395,247	536,829
Total	5,933,174	6,206,288	6,873,787

IMPORTS THROUGH DAIREN

(In metric tons)

Commodities	1931	1932	1933
Fruits	19,272	39,950	103,770
Cotton	23,774	31,205	—
Petroleum and light oil	20,923	41,159	77,488
Wheat flour	84,591	165,790	290,796
Sugar	41,395	90,339	87,799
Cotton yarn and cotton clothes	34,099	54,308	—
Iron and copper manufactures	73,852	155,793	350,010
Others	488,618	689,876	1,259,994
Total	786,525	1,268,420	2,169,857

(2) Other Ports. Yingkow harbour is situated at a place 21 kilometres above the mouth of the Liao River. Its depth is from 7 to 20 metres, but the greatest defect of Yingkow harbour is its shallowness, as the water is only 2 to 1.5 metres deep at low tide. Exports, which consist of soy beans, bean cake, coal, pig iron, amount to 1,350,000 tons while about 160,000 tons of commodities are imported through this port annually.

The harbour of Antung is located 31 kilometres above Hsintao at the mouth of the Yalu River. At Antung the river is from 1,000 to 1,500 metres wide, and the water under the Antung Railway Bridge is 3.7 metres deep at average low tide. But the water in front of Wutaokou in the lower stream shoals at low tide is only 0.9 to 1.8 metres deep. This shallowness in the lower stream has greatly hindered the development of Antung. Also, the river freezes from November to February. Though Antung has such defects, it possesses the advantage of being able to surpass other Manchurian harbours as a shipping port for lumber.

The construction of the Hulutao harbour was commenced on July, 1930, and according to the contract entered into between the government of the former Eastern Provinces and Netherlands Harbour Construction

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Company, it was to be completed within 5 years and 6 months after the commencement of work. The construction of wharfs and quays, and the reclamation of land for city lots had already made notable progress. The Manchoukuo Government, however, decided to suspend its construction for the present.

(3) Rivers The rivers of Manchoukuo are serving as important transportation routes supplementing the insufficient railway lines, as they run for long distances from their sources to the sea and mostly traverse large plains. The largest river is the Sungari, and the second is the Liao. The Sungari and the Liao Rivers with their numbers branch streams travers south and north of Manchuria and give facilities for boat and steamship navigation.

The Sungari River is a branch of the Amur or Heilungkiang River and for a distance of about 700 kilometres from its confluence with the Amur River upstream to Harbin, it is wide and deep with more than 7 feet of water, and is possible for navigation by steamships of more than 1,000 tons. The river traffic is very busy in this section. Whence small steamships and junks are able to navigate a further distance of 500 kilometres on the main stream to Kirin, and also on its north-western affluent, the Nonni River, up to Tsitsihar. But the Sungari and its branches have the disadvantages of being frozen in winter for about five months.

The Liao River is navigable by small boats, the largest of which has a loading capacity of about 20 tons, for about 880 kilometres on the main stream. It was a very important transportation route before the opening of the South Manchuria Railway, ships navigating on the river once numbering 10,000. The Yalu River is navigable from the mouth to the lower stream, about 180 kilometres above Antung, and is available for navigation by junks more than 8 tons. As for the Tumen River, it runs through mountainous districts, and is very narrow. It is serviceable for floating down rafts in the rainy season.

Roads On March 3, 1933, the Bureau of State Highways was established to undertake the building of national highways, and riparian works. In Hsinking, Mukden and Tsitsihar local state highway construction offices were opened and each was entrusted with the construction of state roads within its territory. The Bureau drew up a road construction programme for the completion of 60,000 km. of new highways within ten years. The first plan for 1932 and 1933 was to build 62 roads with a total length of 7,550 km. at an estimated expenditure of M¥15,000,000. This schedule, however, was hindered by the outbreak of Jehol campaign. With the completion of the pacification of Jehol province road building was again commenced in the other parts of the new State.

More than 30 roads totalling over 2,800 km. have been constructed up to the present. Most of the newly-built highways are unpaved, but their surface has been hardened by rollers.

The motor bus business has expanded enormously with the construction of new highways. At the end of 1933 there were a total of 39 bus lines comprising 5,461 km., including the State and private lines, as the following figures show:

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	State	Private	Total
No. of bus lines	12	27	39
Total length	2,939km.	2,522km.	5,461km.
No. of motor cars	253	167	420
Capital invested	M¥2,103,622	M¥1,430,000	M¥3,533,632

All bus services along railway lines or running parallel to such lines, and others over routes which will later become railways, as well as those which play important rôle in the opening up of new territories and in the maintenance of peace and order, and which are not paying propositions, are managed by the State through the General Board of State Railways.

Air Transport Air transportation in Manchuria has just made its initial development. A regular line is the Korea-Manchuria route operated by the Japan Air Transportation Company. There were proposed various plans for the improvement of the air transportation and many were in course of projection.

For air service the Manchuria Air Transport Company was established after founding of the new state, and a regular air service for transport of passengers, freights and mails was opened. In February of 1934 there were no less than 13 regular routes operated by the company. Aviation in the country is favoured by the vastness of the territory and the suitable climatic and topographical conditions. The routes now extend 6,000 km. and two round trips are being made between Hsinking, Harbin and Tsitsihar. Principal regular air routes follow:

REGULAR AIR ROUTES IN MANCHOUKUO

Routes	No. of Return trips a week
Shingishu-Mukden	6
Dairen-Hsinking	7
Hsinking-Harbin-Tsitsihar	10
Tsitsihar-Manchouli	3
Mukden-Chinchow	3
Chinchow-Lingyuan.Chengte	4
Chinchow-Chihfeng	2
Chihfeng-Weichang-Chengte	1
Hsinking-Tumen	3
Harbin-Fushin	3
Harbin-Tungning	3
Harbin-Heiho	3
Tsitsihar-Heiho	1

Communications (1) Postal and Telegraph Service. In the postal service, there are 150 post offices, 333 postal agencies and 1,284 town and rural box offices and sales agencies in the Mukden district, and 141 post offices, 293 postal agencies and 463 town and rural box offices and sales agencies in the Kirin-Heilungkiang district.

With the pacification of Jehol in 1933, the Government succeeded in bringing the postal administration throughout the country under its complete control. Since then postal charges have been reduced for both domestic and foreign mails. In May, 1933, a postal savings, telegraphic transfer, postal note and savings transfer, and account services were opened for the benefit of masses. In addition the new administration has inaugurated an international postal air service. Mail matters collected and delivered by Manchoukuo in recent years follow:

MAIL MATTERS COLLECTED AND DELIVERED

Year	Kind of Mails	Collected	Delivered	Total
1929	Air mail	4,418	3,888	8,306
	Ordinary mail	56,764,733	63,026,523	119,791,256
1930	Air „	16,448	8,125	24,573

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Year	Kind of Mails	Collected	Delivered	Total
	Ordinary ,,	56,816,692	63,061,900	119,887,592
1931	Air ,,	38,977	19,357	58,334
	Ordinary ,,	63,792,055	69,153,727	132,855,782
1932	Air ,,	67,247	37,716	104,962
	Ordinary ,,	110,837,677	112,102,501	222,940,178

There are the following telegraph lines between Manchuria and Japan proper :

Dairen-Sasebo submarine cable, laid during the Russo-Japanese War.
Dairen-Osaka direct line, via Korea, laid in May, 1919.
Mukden-Osaka direct line, via Korea, laid in June, 1919,
Dairen-Nagasaki submarine cable, laid in April, 1921, by the South Manchuria Railway Company and leased by the government.
Mukden - Shimonoseki direct line, via Korea, laid in December, 1926.

Although the telegraph and telephone enterprises were formerly under the control and management of the Department of Communications, they were amalgamated into the Manchuria Telegraph and Telephone Company, a Manchoukuo-Japanese joint enterprise with a capital of M¥50,000,000 in August, 1933. This step was taken to unify all electric communication enterprises in the country and also to facilitate and expand electric communications between Japan and Manchoukuo, as under the old system great inconvenience was experienced in exchanging communications between the two countries. Since its establishment, telegraphic communications between principal cities in the country have been improved and with the completion of wireless service at Hsinking on Aug. 1, 1934, it succeeded not only in effecting wireless telephone service with Japan, but also in opening the service with Europe and America. In April, 1933, the broadcasting station was established in Hsinking. At the end of 1933 the telegraph lines in the country extended 13,000 km. and telephone lines 9,000 km., while the number of subscribers for the telephone was 33,000. Following tables show the status of telegraph and telephone services in Manchoukuo during 1929-1932 inclusive :

TELEGRAMS DESPATCHED AND RECEIVED

Year	Kind	Kwantung Province			Railway Zone		
		Desp'd	Rec'd	Transmit	Desp'd	Rec'd	Transmit
1929	Domestic	180,703	193,972	200,716	86,591	86,260	108,770
	Foreign	964,539	928,612	1,038,090	972,684	914,143	1,105,836
1930	Domestic	169,490	181,499	185,807	28,944	26,656	900,900
	Foreign	899,312	876,945	1,000,311	868,745	821,855	944,964
1931	Domestic	180,792	197,361	214,154	53,815	47,811	67,849
	Foreign	934,929	905,152	1,185,608	997,173	912,808	943,733
1932	Domestic	221,837	221,694	396,535	114,855	116,453	560,163
	Foreign	1,184,183	1,127,696	1,558,650	1,418,204	1,301,185	1,410,959

TELEPHONE SUBCRIBERS

Province	No. of telephone instruments and subscribers	1929	1930	1931	1932
Kwantung Province	No. tel. instruments	10,284	10,999	11,154	11,501
	,, subscribers	8,871	9,554	9,652	9,776
Railway Zone	No. tel. instruments	11,645	11,172	11,268	13,221
	,, subscribers	10,287	9,906	9,988	11,479
Total	No. tel. instruments	21,929	22,171	22,422	24,722
	,, subscribers	19,158	19,460	19,640	21,255

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Justice and Police

General The present judicial system of Manchoukuo comes largely from the old Chinese system, which existed before the founding of Manchoukuo. Therefore it would be well to examine the judicial system of that country.

Before the unification of the country by the National Government, the number and grades of new courts established in China proper, the Three Eastern Provinces and other districts were as follows:

1. Supreme court, 1; supreme court prosecutorate, 1 at Nanking.
2. High court and high court prosecutorate, 23.
3. Branch high court and branch high court prosecutorate, 26.
4. District court and district court prosecutorate, 66.
5. Branch district court and branch district court prosecutorate, 25.

In the Three Eastern Provinces and particularly in Fengtien province, attention had been directed to the improvement of the court system since the establishment of the Republican Government in 1912. Before the unification by the National Government, Manchuria had seventeen new courts consisting of one high court, one branch high court, eleven district courts and four branch district courts.

As the courts of the transitory period, there was also a district judicial office. This court was formed according to the district judicial office regulation, and was established at the office of the district magistrate. In Fengtien province, there were thirteen such district judicial offices. In districts where there was not yet opened either a new court or district judicial office, the district magistrate conducted all judicial affairs. The office of the district magistrate was the only judicial court in China before the inauguration of the new courts. Actually the majority of trials were held at such old-fashioned courts. In Fengtien province, the number of new courts and district judicial offices being comparatively numerous, district magistrates undertaking additional judicial administration were few. Before the establishment of the new Government of Manchoukuo, out of a total number of fifty-eight districts, only twenty-seven districts, or about one-half, had the old-fashioned judicial system.

Judicial System Manchoukuo having been only recently established, the general improvement of the judicial system has not yet been commenced, but with the establishment of the new Government, the outline of judicial improvement has already been decided. That is to say, according to the principle of the independence of the four divisions of government, the judicial power is invested directly with the Emperor, and its independence is assured by making it independent of the cabinet. The Supreme Court and the Supreme Court Prosecutorate have been established at Hsinking. The number of other courts and prosecutorates in December, 1932, follows:

Province	High Court			District Courts			
	High Courts	Branch High Courts	District Courts	District Courts attached to High Courts	Branch District Courts	District Judicial Offices	District Magistrates
Fengtien	1	1	13	1	9	9	26
Kirin	1	2	2	2	2	15	24
Heilungkiang	1	1	4	1	—	—	48
Tungsheng Special District	1	—	1	—	3	—	—
Total	4	4	21	4	14	24	98

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Province	High Court Prosecutorates			District Court Prosecutorates			
	High Court Prosecutorates	Branch High Court Prosecutorates	District Court Prosecutorates	District Court Prosecutorates attached to High Court Prosecutorates	Branch District Court Prosecutorates	District Judicial Offices	District Magistrates
Fengtien	1	1	13	1	9	9	26
Kirin	1	2	8	2	2	15	24
Heilungkiang	1	1	4	1	—	—	48
Tungsheng Special District	1	—	1	—	3	—	—
Total	4	4	21	4	14	24	98

Police System With the founding of Manchoukuo, the police administration was put under supervision of the Minister of Civil Affairs, and a new police system was founded, which would suit the particular conditions of each province. According to the investigation made by the police bureau in the Department of Civil Affairs in November of 1932, the total number of police was 101,000.

Education and Religion

General Under the régime of the Chang family, the greater part of the revenue was spent for the army, and therefore the development of education in Manchuria could not be hoped for. Moreover, the people, from whom everything was squeezed, had very little left to send their children to schools, so that the percentage of children attending schools was extremely low in Manchuria. The investigation made in 1925 showed that 92 per cent. of the population in Manchuria was utterly illiterate.

In order to improve the situation, the Education Minister decided upon on July 29, 1932, the basic principles of education. The ministry advocates the principles of Confucianism ; and towards foreigners it teaches friendliness and the keeping up of mutual well being.

Though the expenses which the Manchoukuo Government defrayed for education in the first year after its founding was very small, being only 0.19 per cent. of the total expenditure, it steadily increased thereafter. In the budget for 1934-35, the expenditure estimated for education was M¥6,114,268, as against M¥931,102 for the previous year. The growth of the expenditure in this instance is close to 600 per cent. which shows how strenuously the Government is aiming at the advancement of education of the people.

For some time after the Manchurian incident occurred many schools were closed, most of which, however, have been reopened. On May 1, 1933, the number of schools, both of those already reopened and those still closed, follow :

Province	Total			Primary Schools	
	Reopened	Still Closed	Total	Reopened	Still Closed
Fengtien	6,885	3,465	10,350	6,683	3,375
Kirin	449	837	1,286	426	832
Heilungkiang	432	168	600	409	167
Jehol	5	873	878	5	859
Hsingan	44	—	44	42	—
Tungsheng Special District	143	9	152	98	9
Hsinking Special Municipality	24	—	24	23	—
Total	7,982	5,352	13,334	7,686	5,243

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Province	Middle Schools		Normal Schools		Technical Schools	
	Reopened	Still Closed	Reopened	Still Closed	Reopened	Still Closed
Fengtien	151	44	59	40	43	6
Kirin	13	4	7	1	3	—
Heilungkiang	9	—	10	1	4	—
Jehol	—	5	—	8	—	1
Hsingan	—	—	1	—	1	—
Tungsheng Special District	42	—	1	—	2	—
Hsinking Special Municipality	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	216	53	78	50	53	7

Institutions by Western Peoples Educational institutions maintained by Western peoples are under the management of religious workers.

No tuition fee is collected at any of these missionary schools, and invariably these schools bear a portion of students' dormitory or boarding expenses. Mission schools are welcomed by the Chinese people because they encourage study, and give protection and aid to children of the poor who have no opportunity for study though possessing both ambition and ability to learn.

These educational establishments are mostly carried on by British, French, German, and Danish nationals. The schools maintained by foreign missions in Manchuria were as follows, in 1929.

	Primary School	Secondary School	Others
Fengtien Province	111	10	11
Kirin Province	31	1	2
Heilungkiang Province	7	—	—
Total	149	11	13
Number of Students	2,785	1,188	455

Some of those above mentioned were established for the education of the children of their own nationals.

As regards schools for Russians there are 14 secondary schools, 8 primary schools, and 3 kindergartens of the Soviet Union in the Tungsheng Special District.

Institutions Maintained by Japanese The educational institutions maintained by Japanese in Manchuria may be divided into those for the education of the Japanese (there are separate institutions for Koreans) and those for the education of the Chinese. These educational institutions are controlled by the Kwantung government in the Kwantung Leased Territory, and by the South Manchuria Railway Company in the railway zone, and by Japanese consulates in the consular districts.

The Japanese educational system in Manchuria has developed tremendously in the last twenty years, to an extent undreamed of at the time of the establishment of the South Manchuria Railway Company in April, 1907. At that time there were only six primary schools in Manchuria maintained by the Japanese—two primary schools for the Japanese and two primary schools for the Chinese maintained by the Kwantung government in the Leased Territory, and outside the Leased Territory, one primary school established by the Liaoyang Y. M. C. A., and one primary school established by Buddhist missionaries. The South Manchuria Railway Company has also opened primary schools at many points in the railway zone, and, after plac-

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ing them for a time under the supervision of the local settlers' associations, took over their direct management. At present there are numerous primary schools, middle schools, and higher schools established throughout Manchuria, which are tabulated below:

	For Japanese		For Chinese	
Primary Education	No. of Schools	No. of Students	No. of Schools	No. of Students
Primary schools or public schools	58	33,756	22	13,284
Others	—	—	328	30,990
Total	58	33,756	350	44,274
Secondary Education				
Middle Schools	7	4,190	2	570
Girls' Schools or Girls' Schools of Domestic Science	23	4,542	—	—
Total	30	8,732	2	570
Technical Education				
Technical Schools	5	2,465	2	209
Others (Training Schools)	5	229	—	—
Total	10	2,694	2	2
South Manchuria Technical College	1	—	—	—
Manchurian Educational School	1	259	—	—
University				
Port Arthur Engineering College	2	891	—	49
Manchurian Medical College				

Religion The principal religions in Manchoukuo are Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism, Lamaism, and Mohammedanism. Christianity was introduced in 1858. In April, 1934, the Holy See formed a separate mission field in Manchoukuo, independent from that of China, and appointed the Rt. Rev. Bishop A. Gaspais as Acting Apostolic Delegate for whole Manchoukuo. The number of preachers and believers for each and the number of temples and shrines follow:

NUMBER OF PREACHERS

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestantism
Fengtien	1,324	786	132	324	131	235
Kirin	311	570	172	—	78	232
Heilungkiang	196	131	31	—	22	36
Jehol	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hsingan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tungsheng Special District	49	8	11	12	67	63
Hsinking Special Municipality	85	3	1	—	9	15
Total	1,965	1,498	347	336	302	582

NUMBER OF BELIEVERS

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammedanism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protestantism
Fengtien	697,316	22,408	79,850	276	27,843	18,277
Kirin	39,933	12,994	30,885	—	11,735	8,373
Heilungkiang	5,777	1,329	7,086	—	10,779	648
Jehol	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hsingan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tungsheng Special District	10,921	373	31,076	3,182	13,776	4,487
Hsinking Special Municipality	2,522	30	2,300	—	120	458
Total	756,469	37,134	151,197	3,458	64,263	32,192

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NUMBER OF TEMPLES AND CHURCHES

Provinces	Buddhism	Taoism	Mohammed-anism	Lamaism	Roman Catholics	Protest-antism
Fengtien	652	319	90	22	63	186
Kirin	74	133	32	—	27	51
Heilungkiang	42	28	15	—	13	16
Jehol	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hsingan	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tungsheng Special District	15	5	12	6	16	27
Hsinking Special Municipality	10	3	1	—	2	4
Total	793	488	150	28	121	284

Labour and Labour Movement

General According to an investigation made in 1930 on about one half of the population in Manchuria, those engaged in agriculture reached 32.5 per cent., those in industrial works 14.6 per cent., those in commercial work 16.1 per cent., those in transportation work 8.7 per cent., while those in public service and professionals reached 6.5 per cent. Although it is impossible to accept this figure as very accurate, it serves to prove that modern industries are developed more in districts where Japanese influence is comparatively strong.

An interesting feature of the labourers in Manchuria is that they come mostly from Shantung and Hopei provinces, and a very few of them come from near-by places. According to an investigation made on a mill in Dairen, the number of labourers coming from various provinces in China and Manchuria were found to be as follows :

Province from which labourers came	Number	Percentage
Shantung	8,374	91.2
Hopei	523	5.7
Chiangsu	119	1.3
Province from which labourers came	Number	Percentage
Kwantung Leased Territory	74	0.8
Fengtien	72	0.8
Kirin	9	0.1
Other places	10	0.1
Total	9,182	100.0

According to the Manchurian Industrial Statistics compiled in 1931, the number of labourers is greatest in the chemical industry. By chemical industry is meant the soy bean manufacturing industry which employs from 10 to 30 coolies, and does not require much skill. According to an investigation made at the end of June, 1932, the number of labourers employed in mills including mining in the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone were 82,000, the number employed in civil engineering, building, and transportation works 45,000, and unskilled labour 65,000.

Wages Labour wages in this country continued to decline up to the outbreak of the Manchurian Incident. After the incident they started to rise. By locality, wages are higher in Hsinking and its neighbouring districts than in sea ports in the south.

LABOUR WAGES IN PRINCIPAL CITIES OF MANCHURIA

unit in yen

Year	Classification	Dairen	Mukden	Antung	Hsinking
1928	Japanese	3.32	3.47	3.10	3.85
	Manchous	1.29	1.22	1.41	1.30
1929	Japanese	3.60	3.03	3.12	3.63
	Manchous	1.43	1.08	1.47	1.19
1930	Japanese	3.39	3.22	3.15	3.39
	Manchous	0.92	1.03	0.86	0.87
1931	Japanese	3.19	3.03	2.87	2.96
	Manchous	0.86	0.90	0.90	0.70
1932	Japanese	3.11	3.72	3.00	4.50
	Manchous	0.96	1.13	1.15	1.32

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WAGES OF LABOURERS IN DAIREN

(Unit in yen)

Year	Classification	Carpenter	Plasterer	Stone Mason	Day Worker	Dray Cart Men
1929	Japanese	3.35	3.50	3.68	1.50	—
	Manchous	1.20	1.30	1.43	0.50	3.00
1930	Japanese	3.32	3.55	3.19	1.32	—
	Manchous	0.90	1.06	1.11	0.42	2.83
1931	Japanese	2.75	2.77	2.70	1.70	—
	Manchous	0.75	0.88	0.77	0.30	2.16
1932	Japanese	3.10	3.10	3.07	2.46	—
	Manchous	1.18	1.15	1.12	0.52	2.69
1933	Japanese	3.17	3.37	3.30	2.46	—
	Manchous	1.17	1.50	1.27	0.61	3.20

Coolies and Immigration The most characteristic aspect of Chinese labourers working in Manchuria are the coolies. They are migratory labourers from Shantung, Hopei or Chihli and other parts of China proper, coming generally to Dairen, Yingkow, or Antung by steamships as deck-passengers, but sometimes also on foot or by the Peking-Mukden Railway. Because of natural calamities, civil wars and political unrest in China proper, they came to entertain the idea that they would be able to lead an easier and more comfortable life by settling in Manchuria. They begin to leave their homes in February, after finishing the New Year celebration (according to the old calendar), and their movement reaches its greatest volume in March; by April or May they generally reach Manchuria and start work. About November most of them leave, so that by January they are all back again in their homes to celebrate the New Year. In this way, year after year, they repeat the journey to Manchuria. The number of coolies entering Manchuria is larger in the first half of the year than in the second half, about 60 percent of the total migration being completed before June.

At first they are employed in railway construction, lumbering, land-developing, and agricultural work, and occasionally in mining, industrial and transportation work of the South Manchuria Railway Company and other organizations. In the past ten years, the number of those coming in large groups has shown a steady increase. Although the exact number of these people coming from China proper to Manchuria is impossible to ascertain, the following estimate of those coming by steamships from Tsingtao, Lungkow, and Tientsin to Dairen, Yingkow and Anyung, and those coming by the land route to the Mukden district, serves as approximate figures:

Year	Entering Manchuria	Leaving Manchuria	Balance	Percentage of settlers of all immigrants
1923	392,286	286,765	105,521	26.9
1924	429,254	232,720	196,534	45.8
1925	490,142	214,547	275,595	56.2
1926	592,343	299,392	292,951	49.5
1927	1,050,838	341,599	709,229	67.5
1928	938,472	394,247	544,225	58.0
1929	1,046,291	621,897	424,394	40.5
1930	748,214	512,793	235,420	31.6
1931	480,000	—	—	—

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As shown in the above table, the number of Chinese entering Manchuria reached the largest figure in the 1927-1929 period, while the percentage of those settling there showed the highest mark, 67.5 per cent., in 1927, since when it showed a gradual decline. But in the eight years from 1923 to 1930, nearly 5,700,000 Chinese came to Manchuria and of this total, 2,800,000, or nearly one-half, have settled there,—the greatest recorded movement of the human race in such a short period.

Trade Unions and Strikes In Manchuria there is so far hardly any firmly organized trade union that deserves special mention, because the workers have little knowledge of how to organize themselves.

Labour organizations, such as the Kungso or Hui, etc. have been formed from old times by labourers engaged in the same occupation or by those coming from the same native district, for the protection of their mutual interests. The number of such organizations was never large, but with the development and success of the National revolutionary movement, Kungjenhui or modern trade unions began to spread. The leaders were radicals—among whom there were many students and some who had even received communist training.

Organizations recognized as trade unions and their members as at the end of 1931 were as follows:

Dairen: Name	Members
Dairen Construction Workers Union	550 Japanese and Chinese
Dairen Tramway Chinese Young Men's Union	400 Chinese
Electric Tramway Workers Union	110 Japanese
Kwantung Mat-makers Union	800 Japanese and Chinese
Kwantung Fishery Seamen's Association	370 Japanese
Dairen Marine Workers Union	120 Koreans
Japanese Seamen's Union Branch	Japanese (number variable)
Anshan:	
Anshan Workers Union	40 Japanese
Mukden:	
Mukden Postal Service Workers Club	— Chinese
Labour and Agricultural Union Branch	50 Russians
Chengchiatun:	
Ssutao Railway Workers Union	200 Chinese
Continental Workers Union	70 Japanese and Koreans
Changchun (Hsinking):	
Kihei Postal Service Workers Union Changchun Branch	— Chinese
Harbin:	
Kihei Postal Service Workers Union	— Chinese
Antung:	
Antung Workers Mutual Aid Society	800 Koreans

STRIKES AND PARTICIPANTS IN KWANTUNG LEASED TERRITORY AND S. M. R. ZONE

	Number of Strikes	Participants Japanese	Chinese	Total
1916	5	70	1,220	1,290
1917	5	40	979	1,019
1918	20	1,064	4,911	5,975
1919	55	1,282	10,054	11,336
1920	18	1,634	1,995	3,629

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	Number of Strikes	Participants Japanese	Chinese	Total
1921	7	37	922	959
1922	25	18	4,003	4,021
1923	27	46	4,131	4,177
1924	29	126	5,130	5,256
1925	61	—	8,889	8,889
1926	60	44	11,541	11,585
1927	43	40	12,789	12,829
1928	51	55	9,097	9,152
1929	37	20	6,515	6,535
1930	35	—	—	2,785

Medicine and Sanitation

Sanitary Conditions The climate of Manchuria is not at all unhealthy. But since it is extensive, borders on Mongolia and Siberia and is inhabited by different races, many of whom lead the insanitary life of extremely primitive conditions, and especially since coolies and refugees are constantly migrating in large groups, the risk of the spread of dreadful infectious diseases is rather common. In the past twenty years, Manchuria has been often afflicted by such plagues; for instance, the pneumonic plague in 1910-1911, cholera in 1919, pneumonic plague again in 1920-1921, and pneumonic plague once more in 1927. The prevention of infectious diseases, therefore, is extremely important in Manchuria, and international co-operation is required for this purpose. The spread of pneumonic plague in 1910 is said to have been due to the lack of such international co-operation at the proper moment.

Medical Institutions There are hardly any medical institutions worth mentioning. Most of the medical institutions are in the large cities of the Kwantung Leased Territory and the South Manchuria Railway Zone. In the villages or small towns which are outside of these districts, there are practitioners in Chinese medicine and other ordinary physicians, a very few of whom, however, are reliable. At present no accurate statistics for the medical institutions are available. The number of government and public hospitals in Manchoukuo is as follows:

	Government	Public	Total
Fengtien	14	15	29
Kirin	3	1	4
Heilungkiang	2	3	5
Tungsheng Special District	?	?	15
Total	19	29	63

Besides the above there are 11 hospitals maintained by the British, 2 hospitals maintained by the Danes, and 1 each maintained by the French and Canadians.

The number of physicians, dentists, mid-wives, pharmacists and drug stores follows:

Physicians	Fengtien Province	Kirin Province	Heilungkiang Province	Tungsheng Special District	Total
Practitioners in the Chinese medicine	3,284	495	398	99	4,276
Ordinary physicians	658	133	121	287	1,199

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	Fengtien Province	Kirin Province	Heilungkiang Province	Tungsheng Special District	Total
Dentists	125	12	5	184	328
Mid-wives					
Old-fashioned	1,564	9	27	8	1,608
New-styled	600	4	39	7	650
Pharmacists	441	?	?	?	441
Drug stores					
Chinese drug	995	?	?	?	996
Western medicine	229	?	?	?	229

Medical Education As organs for educating medical students there are Fengtien Medical College (private), Harbin Medical College (private), Medical School attached to Kirin Government Hospital, Manchuria Medical College and Russian First and Second Colleges (private). Most of these are run by the Japanese and other foreigners, and except the Manchuria Medical College, they are very poorly equipped, and the education of medical students is in a very unsatisfactory state. In view of this, the Manchuria Medical College opened its technical course in 1933 and now admits Manchurian students.

Sanitation The local offices of the South Manchuria Railway Company take charge of public sanitation as local administrative bodies. Hygiene experts are stationed at various important places who look after hygiene and epidemic prevention and act also as police medical officers in their respective districts. The hygiene of so-called private settlements outside the railway zone is under the control of the police of the Japanese consulates. Thus the Japanese system of hygiene administration in Manchuria is complicated, and in the railway zone, a hygiene committee is maintained by the police and the local expert of the railway company, in order to secure co-operation in the control of hygiene and epidemic prevention. Quarantine and the hygiene of the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur are under the direction of the Marine Office of the Kwantung government and its branch.

Hygienic investigations and inspections are conducted by the following institutions: The Central Laboratory, the Hygiene Institute and the Animal Disease Research Institute of the South Manchuria Railway Company; the government hospitals at Dairen and Port Arthur; physicians, veterinary surgeons and pharmaceutists stationed by the Kwantung government at civil administration offices, police stations and sub-stations.

The Hygienic Institute was established in 1925 by the railway company at an outlay of ¥400,000 in view of the lack of facilities for pathogenic investigations, and also for the supply of preventive and curative medicines.

Vaccines, serums, and disinfectants produced at the Institute are distributed free or at cost not only in Manchuria but also in Tientsin and Shantung districts. The production and distribution of vaccines and serums in recent years were as follows:

	Vaccines and Serums Manufactured in c.c.	Products Sold or Distributed in c.c.
1928	21,856,857	21,128,423
1929	25,574,962	25,518,384
1930	30,801,140	30,728,469

The Animal Disease Research Institute of the South Manchuria Railway Co. was established in 1925 at Mukden at a cost of ¥250,000. The

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Institute is divided into the Research and Enterprise Divisions. The Enterprise Division manufactures and distributes serums, vaccines and medicines for various animal diseases, conducts classes and lectures on animal diseases, gives itinerant medical treatment by sending free treatment and research corps, and also operates the examination station in the Institute.

Principal Cities

Hsinking Situated at the northern terminus of the South Manchuria Railway line, Hsinking (formerly known as Changchun) is the capital of Manchoukuo and contains the Imperial Palace and all other important government buildings.

This city is also an important commercial centre as it forms the junction of the South Manchuria Railway, the North Manchuria Railway and the Kirin-Changchun Railway. Its area, inclusive of the S.M.R. Zone, the Open Mart, the Chinese town and Kuanchengtzu, was prior to the establishment of the new state 21 sq. km. Today, owing to the rapid expansion of the city, its area, including the new first-stage construction zone, is 41 sq. km. The population is rapidly increasing, and is expected to exceed 300,000 by the time of the completion of the first stage of construction works in 1936, and surpass the half-million mark when the second and third stage projects are finished.

It is divided into three sections known as the new city, the open town and the walled city, and plans are now being promoted which will ultimately make it a fine metropolis of some 3,000,000 population.

At the end of 1933, the population of Hsinking Special Municipality was 140,945, though prior to the establishment of the new state, the population had remained at about 130,000.

The Japanese population in Hsinking is said to have increased from 10,000 to approximately 15,000 during the past year, and the Japanese institutions in this city include the chamber of commerce and industry, the stock exchange, banks, industrial organizations, the district and transportation offices of the South Manchuria Railway Company, and several schools of various grades, in addition to the offices of the ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary, the consulate-general, and the headquarters of the commander of the Kwantung army.

Capital Construction Plan According to the city planning programme of the Capital Construction Bureau, which has been created in the General Affairs Board of the Manchoukuo Government, the great metropolis to be built around the present city of Hsinking is to cover an area of 200 square kilometres, an oblong polygon in shape, with its centre at Kaotaitze, which is situated a little south of Hsinking Railway Station.

During the first period of the capital construction programme work will be undertaken in an area of about 100 square kilometres out of the total of 200 square kilometres. In this area are located the S. M. R. Zone, the North Manchuria Railway (C. E. R.) Zone the open town and the native city, covering a total area of 21 square kilometres, which will not be directly affected by the city planning programme so that the grounds on which the actual construction work is to be carried on cover an area of 79 square kilometres.

On completion the new metropolis is to be divided into residential, commercial, industrial, special and miscellaneous districts, each designated as such, and it is hoped that the whole city will assume the grand

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appearance of a metropolis as modern in equipment as any other in the world, with seven trunk roads radiating in all directions from its centre. They are as follows :

Hsinking-Nungan-Fuyu	160km
Hsinking-Huaite-Kungchuling	100 ,,
Hsinking-Mukden via Kungchuling	270 ,,
Hsinking-Itung	72 ,,
Hsinking-Shuangyang	50 ,,
Hsinking-Kirin via Tapinling	114 ,,
Hsinking-Harbin via Yaomen	235 ,,

The streets in the new construction area are of three kinds, trunk (26 to 60 metres wide), branch (10 to 18 metres wide), and auxiliary (less than 10 metres wide). Both the trunk and branch streets have a section for motor traffic at the centre, with roads for slow vehicles on either side of it, and sidewalks for pedestrians on the outside. Four rows of trees will improve the appearance of the streets. The election of poles for overhead telephone, telegraph and electric wires will be forbidden, all wires being underground. When they are completed they will occupy 21 per cent. of the new construction area.

Anticipating that the population of this new area will eventually reach 500,000, the Capital Construction Bureau is building a huge reservoir in the basins of the Hsiao and Tai Rivers, tributaries of the Itung River, for supplying water to the capital. The projected reservoir, which will be one of the largest in the Far East, will be filled with rain water and water obtained by damming the two tributaries. It will hold 27,700,000 cubic metres, and will be capable of supplying over 40,000 tons of water daily, which will be more than enough to meet the needs of a population of 500,000. The project is scheduled to be completed by the end of October, 1935.

An up-to-date sewer system is also being built as part of the capital construction programme. Already 48,301 metres of sewer pipes have been laid in the new area.

Spacious parks will be a feature of the new section of the city. These will occupy seven per cent. of the total area of the new town. In the vicinity of the parks are projected a national museum, a huge public library, public auditoriums, botanical gardens, and a zoo. Athletic fields, a horse race course and golf links have been already completed, or are nearing completion. When the present projects are completed, Hsinking will no doubt rank as one of the leading modern cities in the Far East.

Mukden Mukden, formerly the headquarters of the old militarist government of the Chang family, still retains its prosperity as a commercial and industrial centre of Manchoukuo situated as it is in the heart of a vast plain watered by the Liao River.

The main line and the Antung-Mukden line of the South Manchuria Railway, the Mukden-Shanhaikwan Railway, and the Mukden-Hailung Railway converge at Mukden thus making this city an important point of communication between Europe and Asia.

As an industrial centre, Mukden produces matches, bean-oil, rice, pottery, textiles and tobacco. This city also is a centre of education in Manchoukuo, among its important schools being the Manchuria Medical College, in addition to several primary and secondary schools for boys and girls.

The population of the open town and the railway zone of Mukden is estimated at a little over 200,000, of which some 25,000 are Japanese nationals.

Dairen Dairen is the most impor-

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tant port of trade for Manchoukuo. Located in the Leased Territory of Kwantung the city is under Japanese administration. Starting from this city, the main line of the South Manchuria Railway runs north as far as Hsinking, branching off at Mukden to Antung.

The city is built on the shore of the Bay of Dairen, extending 7.8 kilometres from east to west and 3 kilometres from north to south. Divided into the residential, mixed, commercial and industrial districts, the city is well planned, with a sewerage system, parks and other modern public utilities completed by Japanese.

In 1915 the city was organized as an autonomous municipality and efforts have since been continued to perfect its sanitary and educational institutions and fire-preventing facilities.

From the central square covering an area of more than 10,000 tsubo, 10 boulevards radiate in all directions, the streets of this city being of seven different widths with a maximum of 25 ken or about 50 yards.

Among the parks of the city, Electric Park is the most famous. Hoshigaura Park, which is in Hoshigaura, a suburb of Dairen, is also well known for its golf links and its sea-bathing beach.

Being the largest commercial centre of South Manchuria, the city has a population of approximately 365,000, of which about 95,000 are Japanese coming from Japan proper. Among the important offices in the city are the headquarters of the South Manchuria Railway Company, the city hall, the civil administration office, the bureau of communications, the chamber of commerce and industry, the branch offices of the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Chungkuo Bank, the Chosen Bank, the Oriental Colonization Company, the Central Bank of Manchou, the Chenglung Bank, the Mitsui Company, the Mitsubishi Company, the Okuragumi, Mitsukoshi and other business concerns.

Various local institutions include the Manchuria Dockyard Company, the Dairen Steamship Company, the South Manchuria Electric Company and the Dairen Hospital. Among the schools in this city are 12 kindergartens, 14 primary schools, 2 middle schools, 2 girls' high schools, a commercial school, a girls' commercial school, a commercial and industrial school, a foreign language school and a technical college.

Ryojun (Port Arthur) Ryojun is the seat of the government of the Kwantung Leased Territory. Situated at the southern tip of Liaotung peninsula, the city is surrounded by hills on all sides except on its water front, which forms a port opening to the Gulf of Pechihli.

The city is made up of two sections, the old town and the new town. In the old town are located the city hall, the dockyard, the defence headquarters, the higher law court, the civil administration office and the headquarters of the Port Arthur fortress.

The new city is built on the shore of the west port and forms the government and school district with the government of the Kwantung Leased Territory, the Ryojun Engineering College, and other schools located in it.

The boulevards of the city are of two different widths, 84 feet and 63 feet respectively, while the standard width of the streets is 42 feet.

The port, which is divided into two sections, east and west, is known as one of the four important ports of trade of Manchoukuo, the value of its exports of coal, Chinese liquors, cereals, salt, cotton fabrics and

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other things amounting to 1,780,000 taels in 1928.

The vicinity of Ryojun is the old scene of the siege of Port Arthur during the Russo-Japanese War, and a smooth driveway now connects Ryojun and Dairen to take tourists to the old battlefields.

The population of the city is put at 30,000, of which about 12,000 are Japanese nationals.

Yingkow Before the opening of Dairen, Yingkow was the only commercial port of Manchuria, and it enjoyed great prosperity. It is now known mostly as an industrial centre manufacturing bean oil, tobacco, brick and soy sauce.

Being situated on the bank of the Liao River about 14 miles from its mouth, this town still plays an important rôle in the commerce of the river, meeting the needs of the rural populace along its banks. The town on the opposite bank of the river is known as Newchwang.

The population of the Japanese section of the city is put as 5,300, of which 3,000 are Japanese coming from Japan proper.

Kirin Standing on the western bank of the Sungari River, Kirin is the terminus of the Kirin-Changchun Railway and is known as an important station in the transportation of lumber produced in the upper basin of the river.

Being one of the largest cities in Manchoukuo, it has a population of 160,000, of which about 1,200 are Japanese. As the city is kept comparatively clean, surrounded by shapely hills, Kirin is known among Japanese as the Kyoto of Manchuria. Among other products marketed in this city are lumber, tobacco leaf, hemp and furs.

Harbin Harbin is situated on the eastern bank of the Sungari River, at 44.5 degrees North Latitude and 126.40 degrees East Longitude. Although now known as the Paris of the Far East, Harbin was only a deserted village before the Russian penetration into Manchuria.

Built in European style, the city has a population of 320,000, of which 240,000 are Chinese, 81,000 Russians and 4,700 Japanese.

From this city, the southern line of the North Manchuria Railway runs to Hsinking on an eight-hour schedule. The city also forms an important point in the long railway which links Vladivostok and the cities of Europe via Siberia.

As the largest commercial and industrial centre of North Manchuria, Harbin handles more than 4,000,000 tons of soy beans, wheat, bean-cake and other products annually.

The city is divided into three sections: Old Harbin, the new city and the open town. The new city is said to have been planned after Moscow. The railway station, the offices of the North Manchuria Railway and the foreign consulates are located in this section.

In the open town, which is the commercial section of the city, reside Russian, Japanese and Chinese merchants engaged in thriving business activities. The Harbin offices of the Yokohama Specie Bank, the Chosen Bank and Mitsui Company are found in the open town.

Leased Territory of Kwantung

General and Historical The Leased Territory of Kwantung Province under Japanese rule which was ceded to Japan by Russia and the lease of which lasts till 1997, together with the railway zone of the South Manchuria Railway Company, forms the most civilized area of Manchuria with all kinds of modern facilities introduced by the Japanese.

Occupying a small southern portion of Liaotung Peninsula, the Leased Territory covers an area of some

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3,367.88 square kilometres with a population of 1,408,755 at the end of 1933, of which 278,989 are Japanese, 1,097,541 Chinese and Manchous and 2,185 of other nationalities.

Government The government of the Kwantung Leased Territory at Ryojun is in charge of the civil administration within the leased territory.

In the beginning the territory was under military rule with an army officer as governor-general. This system was changed in 1919, and since then a civilian officer was appointed governor of the territory by the Emperor of Japan. A drastic change was made in this system on December 26, 1934, in which the Kanto Bureau was established at Hsinking under the control of the Commander of the Kwantung army, and most of the administrative powers formerly vested in the governor of the Leased Territory was transferred to the president of the newly created Bureau. The president takes charge of the civil administration within the territory and supervises the business of the South Manchuria Railway Co.

The present government of the Kwantung Leased Territory at Ryojun is divided into eight departments including the Governor's Secretariat, the Home Affairs Bureau, the Police Administration Bureau, the Finance Bureau, the Local Administration Offices, the Courts of Justice, the Procurators' Office and the Communications Bureau.

In addition to these bureaux, the prisons, the Marine Bureau, the Ryojun Engineering College, the middle schools, the girls' high schools, the normal school for natives, the commercial school for natives, the agricultural schools for natives, the Police Training School, the Meteorological Observatory, the government hospitals, the Agricultural Experimental Station, the Sericultural Experimental Station and several other institutions in the territory are under direct control of the government of the Kwantung Leased Territory.

Finance The expenditure of the Kwantung government continued to increase until 1929-1930, but in the following year considerable retrenchment was effected owing to the economic depression then prevailing the world over.

To be more exact, the expenditure of this government increased from ¥3,451,487 in 1907-1908 to ¥15,217,555 in 1922-1923, continuing to mount till it reached ¥22,576,468 in 1929-1930, but it dropped to ¥19,870,876 in 1930-1931, increasing again to ¥20,899,000 in 1931-1932 and to ¥24,738,000 in the budgetary estimates for 1935-1936.

Of the estimated expenditure for 1935-1936, about ¥3,022,000 was to be expended for the postal, telegraph and telephone services and ¥4,432,000 for the police service. Other important appropriations included ¥2,251,000 for educational purposes and ¥2,036,000 for public undertakings.

Justice and Communication In regard to the administration of justice in the Leased Territory, the system of the courts of justice was established in 1906 to adjudicate in all civil and criminal cases, irrespective of the nationalities of the persons involved.

The defence of the Leased Territory is secured by a neutral zone along the northern frontier.

The communications system and educational, hygienic and other modern institutions are well organized in the territory. In matters concerning hygiene and sanitation, the Kwantung government is collaborating with the South Manchuria Railway Company.

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APPENDIX.

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APPENDIX

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THE CONSTITUTION

CHAPTER I

THE EMPEROR

ARTICLE I The Empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by Imperial male descendants, according to the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE III The Emperor is sacred and inviolable.

ARTICLE IV The Emperor is the head of the Empire, combining in Himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercises them according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

ARTICLE V The Emperor exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE VI The Emperor gives sanction to laws, and orders them to be promulgated and executed.

ARTICLE VII The Emperor convokes the Imperial Diet, opens, closes and prorogues it, and dissolves the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE VIII The Emperor, in consequence of an urgent necessity to maintain public safety or to avert public calamities, issues, when the Imperial Diet is not sitting, Imperial Ordinances in the place of law.

Such Imperial Ordinances are to be laid before the Imperial Diet at its next session, and when the Diet does not approve the said Ordinances, the Government shall declare them to be invalid for the future.

ARTICLE IX The Emperor issues, or causes to be issued, the Ordinances necessary for the carrying out of the laws, or for the maintenance of the public peace and order, and for the promotion of the welfare of the subjects. But no Ordinance shall in any way alter any of the existing laws.

ARTICLE X The Emperor determines the organization of the different branches of the administration, and salaries of all civil and military officers, and appoints and dismisses the same. Exceptions especially provided for in the present Constitution or in other laws shall be in accordance with the respective provisions bearing thereon.

ARTICLE XI The Emperor has the supreme command of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XII The Emperor determines the organization and peace standing of the Army and Navy.

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties.

ARTICLE XIV The Emperor declares a state of siege.

The conditions and effects of a state of siege shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XV The Emperor confers titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

ARTICLE XVI The Emperor orders amnesty, pardon, commutation of punishments and rehabilitation.

ARTICLE XVII A Regency shall be instituted in conformity with the provisions of the Imperial House Law.

The Regent shall exercise the powers appertaining to the Emperor in His name.

CHAPTER II

RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF SUBJECTS

ARTICLE XVIII The conditions necessary for being a Japanese subject shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE XIX Japanese subjects may, according to qualifications determined in laws or ordinances, be appointed to civil or military or any other public offices equally.

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ARTICLE XX Japanese subjects are amenable to service in the Army or Navy according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXI Japanese subjects are amenable to the duty of paying taxes according to the provisions of law.

ARTICLE XXII Japanese subjects shall have the liberty of abode and of changing the same within the limits of law.

ARTICLE XXIII No Japanese subject shall be arrested, detained, tried or punished, unless according to law.

ARTICLE XXIV No Japanese subject shall be deprived of his right of being tried by the judges determined by law.

ARTICLE XXV Except in the cases provided for in the law, the house of no Japanese subject shall be entered or searched without his consent.

ARTICLE XXVI Except in the cases mentioned in the law, the secrecy of the letters of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

ARTICLE XXVII The right of property of every Japanese subject shall remain inviolate.

Measures necessary to be taken for the public benefit shall be provided for by law.

ARTICLE XXVIII Japanese subjects shall, within limits not prejudicial to peace and order, and not antagonistic to their duties as subjects, enjoy freedom of religious belief.

ARTICLE XXIX Japanese subjects shall, within the limits of law, enjoy the liberty of speech, writing, publication, public meetings and associations.

ARTICLE XXX Japanese subjects may present petitions, by observing the proper forms of respect, and by complying with the rules specially provided for the same.

ARTICLE XXXI The provisions contained in the present chapter shall not affect the exercise of the powers appertaining to the Emperor, in times of war or in cases of a national emergency.

ARTICLE XXXII Each and every one of the provisions contained in the preceding Articles of the present chapter, that are not in conflict with the laws or the rules and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall apply to the officers and men of the Army and of the Navy.

CHAPTER III

THE IMPERIAL DIET

ARTICLE XXXIII The Imperial Diet shall consist of two Houses, a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.

ARTICLE XXXIV The House of Peers shall, in accordance with the Ordinance concerning the House of Peers, be composed of the members of the Imperial Family, of the orders of nobility, and of those persons who have been nominated thereto by the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXV The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members elected by the people according to the provisions of the Law of Election.

ARTICLE XXXVI No one can at one and the same time be a Member of both Houses.

ARTICLE XXXVII Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE XXXVIII Both Houses shall vote upon projects of law submitted to them by the Government, and may respectively initiate projects of law.

ARTICLE XXXIX A Bill which has been rejected by either the one or the other of the two Houses shall not be again brought in during the same session.

ARTICLE XL Both Houses can make representations to the Government as to laws or upon any other subject. When, however, such representations are not accepted, they cannot be made a second time during the same session.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial Diet shall be convoked every year.

ARTICLE XLII A session of the Imperial Diet shall last during three months. In case of necessity, the duration of a session may be prolonged by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIII When urgent necessity arises, an extraordinary session may be convoked in addition to the ordinary one.

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The duration of an extraordinary session shall be determined by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XLIV The opening, closing, prolongation of session and prorogation of the Imperial Diet, shall be effected simultaneously for both Houses.

In case the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, the House of Peers shall at the same time be prorogued.

ARTICLE XLV When the House of Representatives has been ordered to dissolve, Members shall be caused by Imperial Order to be newly elected, and the new House shall be convoked within five months from the day of dissolution.

ARTICLE XLVI No debate can be opened and no vote can be taken in either House of the Imperial Diet, unless not less than one-third of the whole number of the Members thereof is present.

ARTICLE XLVII Votes shall be taken in both Houses by absolute majority. In the case of a tie vote, the President shall have the casting vote.

ARTICLE XLVIII The deliberations of both Houses shall be held in public. The deliberations may, however, upon demand of the Government or by resolution of the House, be held in secret sitting.

ARTICLE XLIX Both Houses of the Imperial Diet may respectively present addresses to the Emperor.

ARTICLE L Both Houses may receive petitions presented by subjects.

ARTICLE LI Both Houses may enact, besides what is provided for in the present Constitution and in the Law of the Houses, rules necessary for the management of their internal affairs.

ARTICLE LII No Member of either House shall be held responsible outside the respective Houses for any opinion uttered or for any vote given in the House. When, however, a Member himself has given publicity to his opinions by public speech, by documents in print or in writing, or by any other similar means, he shall, in the matter, be amenable to the general law.

ARTICLE LIII The Members of both Houses shall, during the session, be free from arrest, unless with the consent of the House, except in cases of flagrant delicts, or of offences connected with a state of internal commotion or with a foreign trouble.

ARTICLE LIV The Ministers of State and the Delegates of the Government may, at any time, take seats and speak in either House.

CHAPTER IV

THE MINISTERS OF STATE AND THE PRIVY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The respective Ministers of State shall give their advice to the Emperor, and be responsible for it.

All Laws, Imperial Ordinances and Imperial Rescripts of whatever kind, that relate to the affairs of the State, require the countersignature of a Minister of State.

ARTICLE LVI The Privy Councillors shall, in accordance with the provisions for the organization of the Privy Council, deliberate upon important matters of State, when they have been consulted by the Emperor.

CHAPTER V

THE JUDICATURE

ARTICLE LVII The Judicature shall be exercised by the Courts of Law according to law, in the name of the Emperor.

The organization of the Courts of Law shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LVIII The judges shall be appointed from among those who possess proper qualifications according to law.

No judge shall be deprived of his position, unless by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment.

Rules for disciplinary punishment shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE LIX Trials and judgments of a Court shall be conducted publicly. When, however, there exists any fear, that such publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to the maintenance of public morality, the public trial may be suspended by provision of law or by the decision of the Court of Law.

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ARTICLE LX All matters, that fall within the competency of a special Court, shall be specially provided for by law.

ARTICLE LXI No suit at law, which relates to rights alleged to have been infringed by the illegal measures of the administrative authorities, and which shall come within the competency of the Court of Administrative Litigation specially established by law, shall be taken cognizance of by a Court of Law.

CHAPTER VI

FINANCE

ARTICLE LXII The imposition of a new tax or the modification of the rates of an existing one shall be determined by law.

However, all such administrative fees or other revenue having the nature of compensation shall not fall within the category of the above clause.

The raising of national loans and the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury, except those that are provided in the Budget, shall require the consent of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXIII The taxes levied at present shall, in so far as they are not remodelled by a new law, be collected according to the old system.

ARTICLE LXIV The expenditure and revenue of the State require the consent of the Imperial Diet by means of an annual Budget.

Any and all expenditures overpassing the appropriations set forth in the Titles and Paragraphs of the Budget, or that are not provided for in the Budget, shall subsequently require the approbation of the Imperial Diet.

ARTICLE LXV The Budget shall be first laid before the House of Representatives.

ARTICLE LXVI The expenditures of the Imperial House shall be defrayed every year out of the National Treasury, according to the present fixed amount for the same, and shall not require the consent thereto of the Imperial Diet, except in case an increase thereof is found necessary.

ARTICLE LXVII Those already fixed expenditures based by the Constitution upon the powers appertaining to the Emperor, and such expenditures as may have arisen by the effect of law, or that appertain to the legal obligations of the Government, shall be neither rejected nor reduced by the Imperial Diet, without the concurrence of the Government.

ARTICLE LXVIII In order to meet special requirements, the Government may ask the consent of the Imperial Diet to a certain amount as a Continuing Expenditure Fund, for a previously fixed number of years.

ARTICLE LXIX In order to supply deficiencies, which are unavoidable, in the Budget, and to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided in the Budget.

ARTICLE LXX When the Imperial Diet cannot be convoked, owing to the external or internal condition of the country, in case of urgent need for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all necessary financial measures, by means of an Imperial Ordinance.

In the case mentioned in the preceding clause, the matter shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet at its next session, and its approbation shall be obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LXXI When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the Budget, or when the Budget has not been brought into actual existence, the Government shall carry out the Budget of the preceding year.

ARTICLE LXXII The final account of the expenditures and revenue of the State shall be verified and confirmed by the Board of Audit, and it shall be submitted by the Government to the Imperial Diet, together with the report of verification of the said Board.

The organization and competency of the Board of Audit shall be determined by law separately.

CHAPTER VII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LXXIII When it has become necessary in future to amend the

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provisions of the present Constitution, a project to that effect shall be submitted to the Imperial Diet by Imperial Order.

In the above case, neither House can open the debate, unless not less than two-thirds of the whole number of Members are present, and no amendment can be passed, unless a majority of not less than two-thirds of the Members present is obtained.

ARTICLE LXXIV No modification of the Imperial House Law shall be required to be submitted to the deliberation of the Imperial Diet.

No provision of the present Constitution can be modified by the Imperial House Law.

ARTICLE LXXV No modification can be introduced into the Constitution, or into the Imperial House Law, during the time of a Regency.

ARTICLE LXXVI Existing legal enactments, such as laws, regulations, Ordinances, or by whatever names they may be called, shall, so far as they do not conflict with the present Constitution, continue in force.

All existing contracts or orders, that entail obligations upon the Government, and that are connected with expenditure, shall come within the scope of Art. LXVII.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

CHAPTER I

SUCCESSION TO THE IMPERIAL THRONE

ARTICLE I The Imperial Throne of Japan shall be succeeded to by male descendants in the male line of Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE II The Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest son.

ARTICLE III When there is no Imperial eldest son, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the Imperial eldest grandson. When there is neither Imperial eldest son nor any male descendant of his, it shall be succeeded to by the Imperial son next in age, and so on in every successive case.

ARTICLE IV For succession to the Imperial Throne by an Imperial descendant, the one of full blood shall have precedence over descendants of half blood. The succession to the Imperial Throne by the latter shall be limited to those cases only, when there is no Imperial descendant of full blood.

ARTICLE V When there is no Imperial descendant, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial brother and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VI When there is no such Imperial brother or descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by an Imperial uncle and by his descendants.

ARTICLE VII When there is neither such Imperial uncle nor descendant of his, the Imperial Throne shall be succeeded to by the next nearest member among the rest of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VIII Among the Imperial brothers and the remoter Imperial relations, precedence shall be given, in the same degree, to the descendants of full blood over those of half blood, and to the elder over the younger.

ARTICLE IX When the Imperial heir in suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists, the order of succession may be changed in accordance with the foregoing provisions, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER II

ASCENSION AND CORONATION

ARTICLE X Upon the demise of the Emperor, the Imperial heir shall ascend the Throne, and shall aquire the Divine Treasures of the Imperial Ancestors.

ARTICLE XI The ceremonies of Coronation shall be performed and a Grand Coronation Banquet (Daijosai) shall be

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held at Kyoto.

ARTICLE XII Upon an ascension to the Throne, a new era shall be inaugurated, and the name of it shall remain unchanged during the whole reign, in agreement with the established rule of the 1st year of Meiji.

CHAPTER III

MAJORITY. INSTITUTION OF EMPRESS AND OF HEIR-APPARENT

ARTICLE XIII The Emperor, the Kotaishi and the Kotaison shall attain their majority at eighteen full years of age.

ARTICLE XIV Members of the Imperial Family, other than those mentioned in the preceding Article, shall attain their majority at twenty full years of age.

ARTICLE XV The son of the Emperor, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotaishi." In case there is no Kotaishi, the Imperial grandson, who is Heir-apparent, shall be called "Kotaison."

ARTICLE XVI The institution of Empress and that of Kotaishi or of Kotaison shall be proclaimed by an Imperial Rescript.

CHAPTER IV

STYLES OF ADDRESS

ARTICLE XVII The style of address for the Emperor, the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager and of the Empress, shall be His, or Her or Your Majesty.

ARTICLE XVIII The Kotaishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses shall be styled His, Her, Their, or Your Highness or Highnesses.

CHAPTER V

REGENCY

ARTICLE XIX When the Emperor is a minor, a Regency shall be instituted. When He is prevented by some permanent cause from personally governing, a Regency shall be instituted, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XX The Regency shall be assumed by the Kotaishi or the Kotaison, being of full age of majority.

ARTICLE XXI When there is neither Kotaishi nor Kotaison, or when the Kotaishi or the Kotaison has not yet arrived at his majority, the Regency shall be assumed in the following order:

1. An Imperial Prince or a Prince.
2. The Empress.
3. The Empress Dowager.
4. The Grand Empress Dowager.
5. An Imperial Princess or a Princess.

ARTICLE XXII In case the Regency is to be assumed from among the male members of the Imperial Family, it shall be done in agreement with the order of succession to the Imperial Throne. The same shall apply to the case of female members of the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE XXIII A female member of the Imperial Family to assume the Regency shall be exclusively one who has no consort.

ARTICLE XXIV When, on account of the minority of the nearest related member of the Imperial Family, or for some other cause, another member has to assume the Regency, the latter shall not, upon the arrival at majority of the above mentioned nearest related member, or upon the disappearance of the aforesaid cause, resign his or her post in favour of any person other than of the Kotaishi or of the Kotaison.

ARTICLE XXV When a Regent or one who should become such, is suffering from an incurable disease of mind or body, or when any other weighty cause exists therefor, the order of the Regency may be changed, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VI

THE IMPERIAL GOVERNOR

ARTICLE XXVI When the Emperor is a minor, an Imperial Governor shall

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be appointed to take charge of His bringing up and of His education.

ARTICLE XXVII In case no Imperial Governor has been nominated in the will of the preceding Emperor, the Regent shall appoint one, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and with that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE XXVIII Neither the Regent nor any of his descendants can be appointed Imperial Governor.

ARTICLE XXIX The Imperial Governor can not be removed from his post by the Regent, unless upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council and upon that of the Privy Council.

CHAPTER VII

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XXX The term "Imperial Family" shall include the Grand Empress Dowager, the Empress Dowager, the Empress, the Kotaishi and his consort, the Kotaison and his consort, the Imperial Princes and their consorts, the Imperial Princesses, the Princes and their consorts, and the Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXI From Imperial sons to Imperial great-great-grandsons, Imperial male descendants shall be called Imperial Princes; and from Imperial daughters to Imperial great-great-granddaughters, Imperial female descendants shall be called Imperial Princesses. From the fifth generation downwards, they shall be called, male descendants, Princes, female ones, Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXII When the Imperial Throne is succeeded to by a member of a branch line, the title of Imperial Prince or Imperial Princess shall be specially granted to the Imperial brothers and sisters, being already Princes or Princesses.

ARTICLE XXXIII The births, namings, marriages and deaths in the Imperial Family shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XXXIV Genealogical and other records relating to the matters mentioned in the preceding Article shall be kept in the Imperial archives.

ARTICLE XXXV The members of the Imperial Family shall be under the control of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XXXVI When a Regency is instituted, the Regent shall exercise the power of control referred to in the preceding Article.

ARTICLE XXXVII When a member, male or female, of the Imperial Family is a minor and has been bereft of his or her father, the officials of the Imperial Court shall be ordered to take charge of his or her bringing up and education. Under certain circumstances, the Emperor may either approve the guardian chosen by his or her parent, or may nominate one.

ARTICLE XXXVIII The guardian of a member of the Imperial Family must be himself a member thereof and of age.

ARTICLE XXXIX Marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall be restricted to the circle of the Family, or to certain noble families specially approved by Imperial Order.

ARTICLE XL Marriages of the members of the Imperial Family shall be subject to the sanction of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XLI The Imperial writs sanctioning the marriages of members of the Imperial Family shall bear the countersignature of the Minister of the Imperial Household.

ARTICLE XLII No member of the Imperial Family can adopt any one as his son.

ARTICLE XLIII When a member of the Imperial Family wishes to travel beyond the boundaries of the Empire, he shall first obtain the sanction of the Emperor.

ARTICLE XLIV A female member of the Imperial Family, who has married a subject, shall be excluded from membership of the Imperial Family. However, she may be allowed, by the special grace of the Emperor, to retain her title of Imperial Princess or of Princess, as the case may be.

CHAPTER VIII

IMPERIAL HEREDITARY ESTATES

ARTICLE XLV No landed or other property that has been fixed as the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be divided up and alienated.

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ARTICLE XLVI The landed and other property to be included in the Imperial Hereditary Estates shall be settled by Imperial writ, with the advice of the Privy Council, and shall be announced by the Minister of the Imperial Household.

CHAPTER IX

EXPENDITURES OF THE IMPERIAL HOUSE

ARTICLE XLVII The expenditures of the Imperial House of all kinds shall be defrayed out of the National Treasury at a certain fixed amount.

ARTICLE XLVIII The estimates and audit of accounts of the expenditures of the Imperial House and all other rules of the kind shall be regulated by the Finance Regulations of the Imperial House.

CHAPTER X

LITIGATIONS. DISCIPLINARY RULES FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE IMPERIAL FAMILY

ARTICLE XLIX Litigation between members of the Imperial Family shall be decided by judicial functionaries specially designated by the Emperor to the Department of the Imperial Household, and execution issued, after Imperial sanction thereto has been obtained.

ARTICLE L Civil actions brought by private individuals against members of the Imperial Family, shall be decided in the Court of Appeal in Tokyo. Members of the Imperial Family shall, however, be represented by attorneys, and no personal attendance in the Court shall be done in agreement with the

ARTICLE LI No member of the Imperial Family can be arrested, or summoned before a Court of Law, unless the sanction of the Emperor has been first obtained thereto.

ARTICLE LII When a member of the Imperial Family has committed an act derogatory to his (or her) dignity, or when he has exhibited disloyalty to the Imperial House, he shall, by way of disciplinary punishment and by order of the Emperor, be deprived of the whole or a part of the privileges belonging to him as a member of the Imperial Family, or shall be suspended therefrom.

ARTICLE LIII When a member of the Imperial Family acts in a way tending to the squandering of his (or her) property, he shall be pronounced incapable by the Emperor, prohibited from administering his property, and a manager shall be appointed therefor.

ARTICLE LIV The two foregoing Articles shall be enforced upon the advice of the Imperial Family Council.

CHAPTER XI

THE IMPERIAL FAMILY COUNCIL

ARTICLE LV The Imperial Family Council shall be composed of the male members of the Imperial Family, who have reached the age of majority. The Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the President of the Privy Council, the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of State for Justice and the President of the Court of Cassation shall be ordered to take part in the deliberations of the Council.

ARTICLE LVI The Emperor personally presides over the meeting of the Imperial Family Council, or directs one of the members of the Imperial Family to do so.

CHAPTER XII

SUPPLEMENTARY RULES

ARTICLE LVII Those of the present members of the Imperial Family of the fifth generation and downwards, who have already been invested with the title of Imperial Prince, shall retain the same as heretofore.

ARTICLE LVIII The order of succession to the Imperial Throne shall in every case relate to the descendants of absolute lineage. There shall be no admission to this line of succession for any one, as a consequence of his being an adopted Imperial son, Koyushi or heir to a princely house.

ARTICLE LIX The grades of rank among the Imperial Princes, Imperial Princesses, Princes and Princesses shall

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be abolished.

ARTICLE LX The family rank of Imperial Princes and all usages conflicting with the present Law shall be abolished.

ARTICLE LXI The property, annual expenses and all other rules concerning the members of the Imperial Family shall be specially determined.

ARTICLE LXII When in the future it shall become necessary either to amend or make additions to the present Law, the matter shall be decided by the Emperor, with the advice of the Imperial Family Council, and with that of the Privy Council.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(February 11, 1907)

ARTICLE I A Prince may be granted a family name and be caused to join the order of nobility by Imperial Order or through a petition.

ARTICLE II A Prince may become, by obtaining the sanction of the Emperor, the successor to the headship of a noble family, or be adopted into a noble family, with the object of succeeding to its headship.

ARTICLE III The wife and direct descendants of a Prince, who has, in accordance with the two preceding Articles, become a subject, and the wives of such descendants, enter such subject's family. This rule does not apply, however, to females married to other members of the Imperial Family and the direct descendants of such females.

ARTICLE IV A member of the Imperial Family, who has been deprived of its privileges may, by Imperial order, be caused to descend to the status of subject.

ARTICLE V The cases provided for in Articles I, II, and IV (of the supplementary law) shall be subject to the advice of the Imperial Family Council and that of the Privy Council.

ARTICLE VI A member of the Imperial Family who has become a subject can not be restored into the Imperial Family.

ARTICLE VII Regulations relating the personal status and other rights and duties of members of the Imperial Family, shall be especially determined besides those prescribed in the present Law.

The regulations referred to in the preceding clause apply when a member of the Imperial Family and a private individual are parties to a matter, concerning which different rules are provided to apply to such parties respectively.

ARTICLE VIII Provisions in Laws and Ordinances, which are set down as applicable to members of the Imperial Family, shall be applicable only when there are no special provisions in the present Law or in Regulations that may be issued in conformity with the present Law.

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE IMPERIAL HOUSE LAW

(November 28, 1918)

A female member of the Imperial Family may marry a Prince of the principal House or of the branch Houses of the Ri Family.

LIST OF EMPERORS

No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
1	JIMMU	(B. C.)	660-581
2	SUIZEI		581-548
3	ANNEI		548-510
4	ITOKU		510-475
5	KŌSHŌ		475-392
6	KŌAN		392-290
7	KŌREI		290-214
8	KŌGEN		214-157
9	KAIKA		157-97
10	SUJIN		97-29
11	SUININ		29-71
12	KEIKŌ	(A. D.)	71-131
13	SEIMU		131-192
14	CHUAI		192-201
15	ŌJIN (Jingo, Regent		270-313 201-270)
16	NINTOKU		313-400
17	RICHU		400-406

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
18	HANSHŌ		406–412
19	INGYŌ		412–453
20	ANKŌ		453–456
21	YŪRYAKU		456–480
22	SEINEI		480–485
23	KENSŌ		485–488
24	NINKEN		488–499
25	BURETSU		499–507
26	KEITAI		507–531
27	ANKAN		531–535
28	SENKA		535–539
29	KIMMEI		539–572
30	BITATSU		572–585
31	YŌMEI		585–587
32	SUSHUN		587–592
33	SUIKO (Empress)		592–629
34	JOMEI		629–642
35	KŌGYOKU (Empress)		642–645
36	KŌTOKU	Taika (645–650), Hakuchi (650–654)	645–654
37	SAIMEI (Empress)		655–661
38	TENCHI		661–671
39	KŌBUN		671–672
40	TEMMU	Hakuhō (672–686), Suchō (686–)	672–686
41	JITŌ (Empress)	Suchō (686–697)	686–697
42	MOMMU	Taihō (701–704), Keiun (704–707)	697–707
43	GEMMYO (Empress)	Keiun (707–708), Wadō (708–715)	707–715
44	GENSHO (Empress)	Reiki (715–717), Yōrō (717–724)	715–724
45	SHOMU	Jinki (724–729), Tempyo (729–749), Tempyokanhō (749)	724–749
46	KŌKEN (Empress)	Tempyōshōhō (749–757), Tempyōhōji (757–758)	749–758
47	JUNNIN	Tempyōhōji (758–764)	758–764
48	SHOTOKU (Empress)	Tempyōhōji (764–765), Tempyo-jingo (765–767), Jingokeiun (767–770)	764–770
49	KŌNIN	Jingokeiun (770), Hōki (770–781), Ten-ō (781)	770–781
50	KAMMU	Ten-ō (781–782), Enryaku (782–806)	781–806
51	HEIZEI	Enryaku (806), Daidō (806–809)	806–809
52	SAGA	Daidō (809–810), Kōnin (810–823)	809–823
53	JUNNA	Kōnin (823–824), Tenchō (824–833)	823–833
54	NIMMYŌ	Tenchō (833–834), Jowa (834–848), Kashō (848–850)	833–850
55	MONTOKU	Kashō (850–851), Ninju (851–854), Saikō (854–857), Tennan (857–858)	850–858
56	SEIWA	Tennan (858–859), Jōgwan (859–876)	858–876
57	YŌZEI	Jōgwan (876–877), Gwangyō (877–884)	876–884
58	KŌKŌ	Gwangyō (884–885), Ninna (885–887)	884–887
59	UDA	Ninna (887–889), Kwanpyō (889–897)	887–897
60	DAIGO	Kwampyō (897–898), Shōtai (898–901), Engi (901–923), Enchō (923–930)	897–930
61	SUZAKU	Enchō (930–931), Jōhei (931–938), Tengyō (938–946)	930–946
62	MURAKAMI	Tengyō (946–947), Tenryaku (947–957), Tentoku (957–961), Ōwa (961–964), Kōhō (964–967)	946–967
63	REIZEI	Kōhō (967–968), Anna (968–969)	967–969
64	ENYŪ	Anna (969–970), Tenroku (970–973) Tenen (973–976), Jōgen (976–978), Tengen (978–983), Eikan (983–984)	969–984
65	KAZAN	Eikan (984–985), Kanna (985–986)	984–986
66	ICHIJŌ	Kanna (986–987), Eien (987–989), Eiso (989–990), Shōryaku (990–995) Chōtoku (995–999), Chōho (999–1004) Kankō (1004–1011)	986–1011
67	SANJŌ	Kankō (1011–1012), Chōwa (1012–1016)	1011–1016
68	GOICHIJŌ	Chōwa (1016–1017), Kannin (1017–1021), Chian (1021–1024), Manju (1024–1028), Chōgen (1028–1036)	1016–1036
69	GOSUZAKU	Chōgen (1036–1037), Chōryaku (1037–1040), Chōkyū (1040–1044), Kantoku (1044–1045)	1036–1045
70	GOREIZEI	Kantoku (1045–1046), Eijō	1045–1068

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
		(1046–1053), Tenki (1053–1058), Kōhei (1058–1065), Chiryaku (1065–1068)	
71	GOSANJŌ	Chiryaku (1068–1069), Enkyū (1069–1072)	1068–1072
72	SHIRAKAWA	Enkyū (1072–1074), Jōho (1074–1077), Jōryaku (1077–1081), Eiho (1081–1084), Ōtoku (1084–1086)	1072–1086
73	HORIKAWA	Ōtoku (1086–1087), Kanji (1087–1094), Kaho (1094–1096), Eichō (1096–1097), Jōtoku (1097–1099), Kōwa (1099–1104), Chōji (1104–1106), Kajō (1106–1107)	1086–1107
74	TOBA	Kajō (1107–1108), Tennin (1108–1110) Ten-ei (1110–1113), Eikyū (1113–1118), Gen-ei (1118–1120), Hoan (1120–1123)	1107–1123
75	SUTOKU	Hoan (1123–1124), Tenji (1124–1126), Daiji (1126–1131), Tenjō (1131–1132), Chōjō, (1132–1135), Hoen (1135–1141), Eiji (1141)	1123–1141
76	KONOYÉ	Éiji (1141–1142), Kōji (1142–1144), Tenyō (1144–1145), Kyūan (1145–1151), Nimpei (1151–1154), Kyūju (1154–1155)	1141–1155
77	GOSHIRAKAWA	Kyūju (1155–1156), Hogen (1156–1158)	1155–1158
78	NIJŌ	Hogen (1158–1159), Heiji (1159–1160), Éiryaku (1160–1161), Ōho (1161–1163), Chōkan (1163–1165), Éiman (1165)	1158–1165
79	ROKUJŌ	Eiman (1165–1166), Ninnan (1166–1168)	1165–1168
80	TAKAKURA	Ninnan (1168–1169), Kaō (1169–1171), Jōan (1171–1175), Angen (1175–1177), Jishō (1177–1180)	1168–1180
81	ANTOKU	Jishō (1180–1181), Yōwa (1181–1182), Juéi (1182–1184) Genryaku (1184–1185)	1180–1185
82	GOTOBA	Bunji (1185–1190), Kenkyū (1190–1198)	1185–1198
83	TSUCHIMIKADO	Kenkyū (1198–1199), Shōji (1199–1201), Kennin (1201–1204), Genkyū (1204–1206), Kenéi (1206–1207), Jōgen (1207–1210)	1198–1210
84	JUNTOKU	Jōgen (1210–1211), Kenryaku (1211–1213), Kenho (1213–1219), Jōkyu (1219–1221)	1210–1221
85	CHŪKYŌ	Jōkyū (1221)	1221
86	GOHORIKAWA	Jōkyū (1221–1222), Jō-ō (1222–1224), Gennin (1224–1225), Karoku (1225–1227), Antéi (1227–1229), Kanki (1229–1232), Jōéi (1232)	1221–1232
87	SHIJŌ	Jōéi (1232–1233), Tempuku (1233–1234), Bunryaku (1234–1235), Katei (1235–1238), Ryakunin (1238–1239), Ennō (1239–1240), Ninji (1240–1242)	1232–1242
88	GOSAGA	Ninji (1242–1243), Kangen (1243–1246)	1242–1246
89	GOFUKAKUSA	Kangen (1246–1247), Hōji (1247–1249), Kenchō (1249–1256), Kogen (1256–1257), Shōka (1257–1259), Shōgen (1259)	1246–1259
90	KAMEYAMA	Shōgen (1259–1260), Bunnō (1260–1261), Kōcho (1261–1264), Bunéi (1264–1274)	1259–1274
91	GOUDA	Bunéi (1274–1275), Kenji (1275–1278), Kōan (1278–1287)	1274–1287
92	FUSHIMI	Kōan (1287–1288), Shō-ō (1288–1293), Einin (1293–1298)	1287–1298
93	GOFUSHIMI	Einin (1298–1299), Shōan (1299–1301)	1298–1301
94	GONIJŌ	Shōan (1301–1302), Kengen (1302–1303), Kagen (1303–1306), Tokuji (1306–1308)	1301–1308
95	HANAZONO	Tokuji (1308), Enkyo (1308–1311), Ōchō (1311–1312), Shōwa (1312–1317), Bunpo (1317–1318)	1308–1318
96	GODAIGO	Bumpo (1318–1319), Gennō (1319–1321), Genkyō (1321–1324), Shōchū (1324–1326), Karyaku (1326–1329), Gentoku (1329–1331), Genkō (1331–1334), Kemmu (1334–1336), Engen (1336–1339)	1318–1339
97	GOMURAKAMI	Engen (1339–1340), Kōkoku (1340–1346), Shōhei (1346–1368)	1339–1368

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No. of Reign	Emperor	Year Name (with its duration in parenthesis)	Duration of Reign
98	CHŌKEI	Shōhei (1368–1370), Kentoku (1370–1372), Bunchū (1372–1375), Tenju (1375–1381), Kōwa (1381–1383)	1368–1383
99	GOKAMEYAMA	Kōwa (1383–1384), Genchū (1384–1392)	1383–1392
100	GOKOMATSU	Genchū (1392), Meitoku (1393–1394), Ōéi (1394–1412)	1392–1412
101	SHŌKŌ	Ōéi (1412–1428), Shōchō (1428)	1412–1428
102	GOHANAZONO	Shōchō (1428–1429), Éikyō (1429–1441), Kakitsu (1441–1444), Bunnan (1444–1449), Hōtoku (1449–1452), Kyōtoku (1452–1455), Kōshō (1455–1457), Chōroku (1457–1460), Kanshō (1460–1464)	1428–1464
103	GOTSUCHIMIKADO	Kanshō (1464–1466), Bünshō (1466–1467), Ōnin (1467–1469), Bummei (1469–1487), Chōkyō (1487–1489), Éntoku (1489–1492), Méiō (1492–1500)	1464–1500
104	GOKASHIWABARA	Méiō (1500–1501), Bünki (1501–1504), Éishō (1504–1521), Daiéi (1521–1526)	1500–1526
105	GONARA	Daiéi (1526–1528), Kyoroku (1528–1532), Temmon (1532–1555), Kōji (1555–1557)	1526–1557
106	ŌGIMACHI	Kōji (1557–1558), Éiōrku (1558–1570), Genki (1570–1573), Tenshō (1573–1586)	1557–1586
107	GOYOZEI	Tenshō (1586–1592), Bünroku (1592–1596), Keichō (1596–1611)	1586–1611
108	GOMIZUNO-O	Keichō (1611–1615), Genna (1615–1624), Kanéi (1624–1629)	1611–1629
109	MYŌJŌ (Empress)	Kanéi (1629–1643)	1629–1643
110	GOKOMYO	Kanéi (1643–1644), Shōho (1644–1648), Keian (1648–1652), Jō-ō (1652–1654)	1643–1654
111	GOSAI	Jō-ō (1654–1655), Meiryaku (1655–1658), Manji (1658–1661), Kanbun (1661–1663)	1654–1663
112	REIGEN	Kanbun (1663–1673), Empō (1673–1681), Tenna (1681–1684), Jōkyō (1684–1687)	1663–1687
113	HIGASHIYAMA	Jōkyō (1687–1688), Genroku (1688–1704), Hōéi (1704–1709)	1687–1709
114	NAKAMIKADO	Hōéi (1709–1711), Shōtoku (1711–1716), Kyōho (1716–1735)	1709–1735
115	SAKURAMACHI	Kyōho (1735–1736), Gembun (1736–1741), Kampō (1741–1744), Enkyō (1744–1747)	1735–1747
116	MOMOZONO	Enkyō (1747–1748), Kan-én (1748–1751), Hōryaku (1751–1762)	1747–1762
117	GOSAKURAMACHI (Empress)	Hōryaku (1762–1764), Meiwa (1764–1770)	1762–1770
118	GOMOMOZONO	Meiwa (1770–1772), An-éi (1772–1779)	1770–1779
119	KŌKAKU	An-éi (1779–1781), Temmei (1781–1789), Kansei (1789–1801), Kyōwa (1801–1804), Bünka (1804–1817)	1779–1817
120	NINKŌ	Bunka (1817–1818), Bünsei (1818–1830), Tempō (1830–1844), Kōka (1844–1846)	1817–1846
121	KŌMÉI	Kōka (1846–1848), Kaéi (1848–1854), Ansei (1854–1860), Man-én (1860–1861), Bünkyū (1861–1864), Genji (1864–1865), Keiō (1865–1866)	1846–1866
122	MEIJI	Keiō (1867–1868), Meiji (1868–1912)	1867–1912
123	TAISHŌ	Taishō (1912–1926)	1912–1926
124	PRESENT TENNŌ	Showa (1926–)	1926–

TREATY FOR THE RENUNCIATION OF WAR

Signed at Paris, August 26, 1929

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties solemnly declare in the name of their respective peoples that they condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies, and renounce it as an instrument of national

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policy in their relations with one another.

ARTICLE II The High Contracting Parties agree that the settlement or solution of all disputes or conflicts of whatever nature or of whatever origin they may be, which may arise among them, shall never be sought except by pacific means.

ARTICLE III The present Treaty shall be ratified by the High Contracting Parties named in the Preamble in accordance with their respective constitutional requirements, and shall take effect as between them as soon as all their several instruments of ratification shall have been deposited at Washington.

This Treaty shall, when it has come into effect as prescribed in the preceding paragraph, remain open as long as may be necessary for adherence by all the other Powers of the world. Every instrument evidencing the adherence of a Power shall be deposited at Washington and the Treaty shall immediately upon such deposit become effective as between the Power thus adhering and the other Powers parties hereto.

It shall be the duty of the Government of the United States to furnish each Government named in the Preamble and every Government subsequently adhering to this Treaty with a certified copy of the Treaty and of every instrument of ratification or adherence. It shall also be the duty of the Government of the United States telegraphically to notify such Governments immediately upon the deposit with it of each instrument of ratification or adherence.

TREATY BETWEEN THE NINE POWERS CONCERNING CHINA

Signed at Washington February 6, 1922

ARTICLE I The Contracting Powers, other than China, agree :

(1) To respect the sovereignty, the independence, and the territorial and administrative integrity of China ;

(2) To provide the fullest and most unembarrassed opportunity to China to develop and maintain for herself an effective and stable government ;

(3) To use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations through the territory of China ;

(4) To refrain from taking advantage of conditions in China in order to seek special rights or privileges which would abridge the rights of subjects or citizens of friendly States, and from countenancing action inimical to the security of such States.

ARTICLE II The Contracting Powers agree not to enter into any treaty, agreement, arrangement, or understanding, either with one another, or individually or collectively, with any Power or Powers, which would infringe or impair the principles stated in Article I.

ARTICLE III With a view to applying more effectually the principles of the Open Door or equality of opportunity in China for the trade and industry of all nations, the Contracting Powers, other than China, agree that they will not seek, nor support their respective nationals in seeking :—

(a) any arrangement which might purport to establish in favour of their interest any general superiority of rights with respect to commercial or economic development in any designated region of China ;

(b) any such monopoly or preference as would deprive the nationals of any other Power of the right of undertaking any legitimate trade or industry in China, or of participating with the Chinese Government, or with any local authority, in any category of public enterprise, or which by reason of its scope, duration or geographical extent is calculated to frustrate the practical application of the principle of equal opportunity.

It is understood that the foregoing stipulations of this Article are not to be so construed as to prohibit the ac-

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quisition of such properties or rights as may be necessary to the conduct of a particular commercial, industrial, or financial undertaking or to the encouragement of invention and research.

China undertakes to be guided by the principles stated in the foregoing stipulations of this Article in dealing with applications for economic rights and privileges from Governments and nationals of all foreign countries, whether parties to the present Treaty or not.

ARTICLE IV The Contracting Powers agree not to support any agreements by their respective nationals with each other designed to create Spheres of Influence or to provide for the enjoyment of mutually exclusive opportunities in designated parts of Chinese territory.

ARTICLE V China agrees that, throughout the whole of the railways in China, she will not exercise or permit unfair discrimination of any kind. In particular there shall be no discrimination whatever, direct or indirect, in respect of charges or of facilities on the ground of the nationality of passengers or the countries from which or to which they are proceeding, or the origin or ownership of goods or the country from which or to which they are consigned, or the nationality or ownership of the ship or other means of conveying such passengers or goods before or after their transport on the Chinese Railways.

The Contracting Powers, other than China, assume a corresponding obligation in respect of any of the aforesaid railways over which they or their nationals are in a position to exercise any control in virtue of any concession, special agreement or otherwise.

ARTICLE VI The Contracting Powers, other than China, agree fully to respect China's rights as a neutral in time of war to which China is not a party; and China declares that when she is a neutral she will observe the obligations of neutrality.

ARTICLE VII The Contracting Powers agree that, whenever a situation arises which in the opinion of any one of them involves the application of the stipulations of the present Treaty, and renders desirable discussion of such application, there shall be full and frank communication between the Contracting Powers concerned.

ARTICLE VIII Powers not signatory to the present Treaty, which have Governments recognized by the Signatory Powers and which have treaty relations with China, shall be invited to adhere to the present Treaty. To this end the Government of the United States will make necessary communications to non-signatory Powers and will inform the Contracting Powers of the replies received. Adherence by any Power shall become effective on receipt of notice thereof by the Government of the United States.

TREATY BETWEEN THE FOUR POWERS CONCERNING THEIR INSULAR POSSESSIONS AND INSULAR DOMINIONS IN THE REGION OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN

Signed at Washington December 13, 1921

AND

SUPPLEMENTARY AGREEMENT

Signed at Washington, February 6, 1922

I

The High Contracting Parties agree as between themselves to respect their rights in relation to their insular possessions and insular dominions in the region of the Pacific Ocean.

If there should develop between any of the High Contracting Parties a controversy arising out of any Pacific question and involving their said rights which is not satisfactorily settled by diplomacy and is likely to affect the harmonious accord now happily subsist-

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ing between them, they shall invite the other High Contracting Parties to a joint conference to which the whole subject will be referred for consideration and adjustment.

II

If the said rights are threatened by the aggressive action of any other Power, the High Contracting Parties shall communicate with one another fully and frankly in order to arrive at an understanding as to the most efficient measures to be taken, jointly or separately, to meet the exigencies of the particular situation.

III

This Treaty shall remain in force for ten years from the time it shall take effect, and after the expiration of said period it shall continue to be in force subject to the right of any of the High Contracting Parties to terminate it upon twelve months' notice.

IV

This Treaty shall be ratified as soon as possible in accordance with the constitutional methods of the High Contracting Parties and shall take effect on the deposit of ratifications, which shall take place at Washington, and thereupon the agreement between Great Britain and Japan, which was concluded at London on July 13, 1911, shall terminate. The Government of the United States will transmit to all the Signatory Powers a certified copy of the proces-verbal of the deposit of ratifications.

The present Treaty, in French and in English, shall remain deposit in the archives of the Government of the United States, and duly certified copies thereof will be transmitted by that Government to each of the Signatory Powers.

TREATY BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA CONCERNING THE ISLAND OF YAP AND OTHER MANDATED ISLANDS SITUATED IN THE PACIFIC OCEAN AND LYING NORTH OF THE EQUATOR

Signed at Washington, February 11, 1922

Considering that by Article 119 of the Treaty of Versailles, signed on June 28, 1919, Germany renounced in favour of the Powers described in that Treaty as the Principal Allied and Associated Powers, to wit, the United States of America, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, all her rights and titles over her oversea possessions ;

Considering that the benefits accruing to the United States under the aforesaid Article 119 of the Treaty of Versailles were confirmed by the Treaty between the United States and Germany, signed on August 25, 1921, to restore friendly relations between the two nations ;

Considering that the said four Powers, to wit, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, have agreed to confer upon His Majesty the Emperor of Japan a mandate, pursuant to the Treaty of Versailles, to administer the groups of the former German islands in the Pacific Ocean lying north of the Equator, in accordance with the following provisions :

ARTICLE I The islands over which a Mandate is conferred upon His Majesty the Emperor of Japan (hereinafter called the Mandatory) comprise all the former German islands situated in the Pacific Ocean and lying north of the Equator ;

ARTICLE II The Mandatory shall

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have full power of administration and legislation over the territory subject to the present Mandate as an integral portion of the Empire of Japan, and may apply the laws of the Empire of Japan to the territory, subject to such local modifications as circumstances may require;

The Mandatory shall promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being and the social progress of the inhabitants of the territory subject to the present Mandate;

ARTICLE III The Mandatory shall see that the slave trade is prohibited and that no forced labour is permitted, except for essential public works and services, and then only for adequate remuneration;

The Mandatory shall also see that the traffic in arms and ammunition is controlled in accordance with principles analogous to those laid down in the Convention relating to the control of the arms traffic, signed on September 10th, 1919, or in any convention amending same;

The supply of intoxicating spirits and beverages to the natives shall be prohibited;

ARTICLE IV The military training of the natives, otherwise than for purpose of internal police and the local defence of the territory, shall be prohibited. Furthermore, no military or naval bases shall be established or fortifications erected in the territory;

ARTICLE V Subject to the provisions of any local law for the maintenance of public order and public morals, the Mandatory shall ensure in the territory freedom of conscience and the free exercise of all forms of worship, and shall allow all missionaries, nationals of any State Member of the League of Nations, to enter into, travel and reside in the territory for the purpose of prosecuting their calling;

ARTICLE VI The Mandatory shall make to the Council of the League of Nations an annual report to the satisfaction of the Council, containing full information with regard to the territory, and indicating the measures taken to carry out the obligations assumed under Articles 2, 3, 4, and 5;

ARTICLE VII The consent of the Council of the League of Nations is required for any modification of the terms of the present mandate;

The Mandatory agrees that, if any dispute whatever should arise between the Mandatory and another member of the League of Nations relating to the interpretation or the application of the provision of the Mandate, such dispute, if it cannot be settled by negotiation, shall be submitted to the Permanent Court of International Justice provided for by Article 14 of the Covenant of the League of Nations;

Considering that the United States did not ratify the Treaty of Versailles and did not participate in the agreement respecting the aforesaid Mandate;

Desiring to reach a definite understanding with regard to the rights of the two governments and their respective nationals in the aforesaid islands, and in particular the Island of Yap, have resolved to conclude a Convention for that purpose and to that end have named as their Plenipotentiaries:

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan: Baron Kijuro Shidehara, His Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at Washington; and

The President of the United States of America: Charles Evans Hughes, Secretary of State of the United States of America;

Who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found to be in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I Subject to the provisions of the present Convention, the United States consents to the administration by Japan, pursuant to the aforesaid Mandate, of all the former German islands in the Pacific Ocean, lying north of the Equator.

ARTICLE II The United States and its nationals shall receive all the benefits of the engagements of Japan, defined in Articles 3, 4 and 5 of the aforesaid Mandate, notwithstanding the fact that the United States is not a Member of the League of Nations.

It is further agreed between the High Contracting Parties as follows:

(1) Japan shall insure in the islands complete freedom of conscience and the free exercise of all forms of worship which are consonant with public order

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and morality; American missionaries of all such religions shall be free to enter the islands and to travel and reside therein, to acquire and possess property, to erect religious buildings and to open schools throughout the islands; it being understood, however, that Japan shall have the right to exercise such control as may be necessary for the maintenance of public order and good government and to take all measures required for such control.

(2) Vested American property rights in the mandated islands shall be respected and in no way impaired;

(3) Existing treaties between the United States and Japan shall be applicable to the mandated islands;

(4) Japan will address to the United States a duplicate of the annual report on the administration of the Mandate to be made by Japan to the Council of the League of Nations;

(5) Nothing contained in the present Convention shall be affected by any modification which may be made in the terms of the Mandate as recited in the Convention, unless such modification shall have been expressly assented to by the United States.

ARTICLE III The United States and its nationals have free access to the Island of Yap on a footing of entire equality with Japan or any other nation and their respective nationals in all that relates to the landing and operation of the existing Yap-Guam cable or of any cable which may hereafter be laid or operated by the United States or by its nationals connecting with the Island of Yap.

The rights and privileges embraced by the preceding paragraph shall also be accorded to the Government of the United States and its nationals with respect to radio-telegraphic communication; provided, however, that so long as the Government of Japan shall maintain on the Island of Yap an adequate radio-telegraphic station, co-operating effectively with the cables and with other radio stations on ships or on shore, without discriminatory exactions or preferences, the exercise of the right to establish radio-telegraphic stations on the Island by the United States or its nationals shall be suspended.

ARTICLE IV In connection with the rights embraced by Article III, specific rights, privileges and exemptions, in so far as they relate to electrical communications, shall be enjoyed in the Island of Yap by the United States and its nationals in terms as follows:

(1) Nationals of the United States shall have the unrestricted right to reside in the Island, and the United States and its nationals shall have the right to acquire and hold on a footing of entire equality with Japan or any other nation or their respective nationals all kinds of property and interests, both personal and real, including lands, buildings, residences, offices, works and appurtenances.

(2) Nationals of the United States shall not be obliged to obtain any permit or license in order to be entitled to land and operate cables on the Island, or to establish radio-telegraphic service, subject to the provisions of Article 3, or to enjoy any of the rights and privileges embraced by this Article and by Article 3.

(3) No censorship or supervision shall be exercised over cable or radio messages or operations.

(4) Nationals of the United States shall have complete freedom of entry and exit in the Island for their persons and property.

(5) No taxes, port, harbour, or landing charges or exactions of any nature whatsoever, shall be levied either with respect to the operation of cables or radio stations, or with respect to property, persons or vessels.

(6) No discriminatory police regulations shall be enforced.

(7) The Government of Japan will exercise its power of expropriation in the Island to secure to the United States or its nationals needed property and facilities for the purpose of electrical communications if such property or facilities cannot otherwise be obtained.

It is understood that the location and the area of land so to be expropriated shall be arranged between the two Governments according to the requirements of each case. Property of the United States or of its nationals and facilities for the purpose of electrical communication in the Island shall not be subject to expropriation.

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NOTIFICATION OF THE JAPANESE GOVERNMENT TO THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Made Public March 27, 1932

The Japanese Government believe that the national policy of Japan, which has for its aim to insure the peace of the Orient and thereby to contribute to the cause of peace throughout the world, is identical in spirit with the mission of the League of Nations, which is to achieve international peace and security. It has always been with pleasure, therefore, that this country has for thirteen years past, as an original Member of the League, and a permanent Member of its Council, extended a full measure of co-operation with her fellow-Members towards the attainment of its high purpose. It is indeed a matter of historical fact that Japan has continuously participated in the various activities of the League with a zeal not inferior to that exhibited by any other nation. At the same time, it is and has always been the conviction of the Japanese Government that in order to render possible the maintenance of peace in various regions of the world, it is necessary in existing circumstances to allow the operation of the Covenant of the League to vary in accordance with the actual conditions prevailing in each of those regions. Only by acting on this just and equitable principle can the League fulfil its mission and increase its influence.

Acting on this conviction, the Japanese Government, ever since the Sino-Japanese dispute was, in September, 1931, submitted to the League, have, at meetings of the League and on other occasions, continually set forward a consistent view. This was, that if the League was to settle the issue fairly and equitably, and to make a real contribution to the promotion of peace in the Orient, and thus enhance its prestige, it should acquire a complete grasp of the actual conditions in this quarter of the globe and apply the Covenant of the League in accordance with these conditions. They have repeatedly emphasized and insisted upon the absolute necessity of taking into consideration the fact that China is not an organized State,—that its internal conditions and external relations are characterized by extreme confusion and complexity, and by many abnormal and exceptional features,—and that, accordingly, the general principles and usages of International Law which govern the ordinary relations between nations are found to be considerably modified in their operation so far as China is concerned, resulting in the quite abnormal and unique international practices which actually prevail in that country.

However, the majority of the Members of the League evinced in the course of its deliberations during the past seventeen months a failure either to grasp these realities or else to face them and take them into proper account. Moreover, it has frequently been made manifest in these deliberations that there exist serious differences of opinion between Japan and these Powers concerning the application and even the interpretation of various international engagements and obligations including the Covenant of the League and the principles of International Law. As a result, the Report adopted by the Assembly at the special session of 24 February last, entirely misapprehending the spirit of Japan, pervaded as it is by no other desire than the maintenance of peace in the Orient, contains gross errors both in the ascertainment of facts and in the conclusions deduced. In asserting that the action of the Japanese Army at the time of the Incident of 18 September and subsequently did not fall within the just limits of self-defence, the Report assigned no reasons and came to an arbitrary conclusion, and in ignoring alike the state of tension which preceded, and the various aggravations which succeeded, the Incident—for all of which the full responsibility is incumbent upon China—the Report creates a source of fresh conflict in the political arena of the Orient. By refusing to acknowledge the actual circumstances

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that led to the foundation of Manchoukuo, and by attempting to challenge the position taken up by Japan in recognizing the new State, it cuts away the ground for the stabilization of the Far Eastern situation. Nor can the terms laid down in its recommendations—as was fully explained in the Statement issued by this Government on 25 February last—ever be of any possible service in securing enduring peace in these regions.

The conclusion must be that in seeking a solution of the question the majority of the League have attached greater importance to upholding inapplicable formulae than to the real task of assuring peace, and higher value to the vindication of academic thesis than to the eradication of the sources of future conflict. For these reasons, and because of the profound differences of opinion existing between Japan and the majority of the League in their interpretation of the Covenant and of other treaties, the Japanese Government have been led to realize the existence of an irreconcilable divergence of views, dividing Japan and the League on policies of peace, and especially as regards the fundamental principles to be followed in the establishment of a durable peace in the Far East. The Japanese Government, believing that in these circumstances there remains no room for further co-operation, hereby give notice, in accordance with the provisions of Article 1, Paragraph 3, of the Covenant, of intention of Japan to withdraw from the League of Nations.

STATEMENT OF THE JAPANESE GOVERNMENT IN VIRTUE OF PARAGRAPH 5 OF ARTICLE 15 OF THE COVENANT OF THE LEAGUE

February 25, 1933

PART I

Japan's co-operation with the League of Nations

Japan has taken the greatest interest in the development and success of the League from the days of its inception. Her successive governments have extended to it for nearly fourteen years their hearty co-operation, and her statesmen have devoted their best efforts to the extention of its influence and the enhancement of its prestige. Japan takes pride in recalling the active participation of her representatives in the work of the League. As an original and permanent Member of the Council, she has had many opportunities of co-operation in its beneficient activities, and of these opportunities she has fully availed herself. She regards the League as a most powerful instrument for the good of humanity; and she is only anxious, in the interest of this great experiment in the establishment of universal peace, that the Members of the League shall fully appreciate the situation in the Far East and deal with it in a practical way rather than by formulae and principles.

The present dispute was first brought by China to the consideration of the Council of the League of Nations under Article 11 of the Covenant in September, 1931. In spite of the fact that Japan in this case was obliged to act solely in self-defence against aggression on the part of China, Japan, from the very beginning, has spared no effort in explaining to the League the facts and background of this unfortunate incident, and at the same time, she has constantly, and without waiting for the Resolution passed by the Council on September 30, endeavoured as far as possible not to aggravate the situation. Japan has also from time to time communicated to the League all information relative to the development of the situation, so that the League might be enabled to understand the actual conditions prevailing in the Far East.

Unfortunately, however, the condition of Manchuria showed no immediate improvement in the matter of peace and order, owing to the continued activities

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of Chang Hsueh-liang, while the feelings of the Chinese and the Japanese peoples became further strained, with the result that there was no possibility of withdrawing the Japanese troops within the Railway Zone under the then existing circumstances. When the Council met again in October, Japan realized the importance of allaying the excited national feelings of the two peoples as the first essential condition of securing the safety of the lives and property of Japanese subjects and of making possible the withdrawal of the Japanese troops. She was convinced that for this purpose, it was necessary for the two parties concerned to pave the way for direct negotiations, with the object of restoring normal relations between the two countries. Japan took pains to explain this view to the President and certain Members of the Council, but proposal to initiate direct negotiations was not accepted.

Moreover, the Council formed a plan to invite a representative of the United States, a non-Member State of the League, to participate in its deliberations as an observer. To this proposition Japan raised an objection, contending that participation in the proceedings of the Council by a state not a Member of the League is contrary to its constitution, but the other Members of the Council insisted on regarding the step as a mere matter of procedure, and they invited a United States observer to the Council. Japan remained convinced that this was a matter which concerned the constitution of the League and that the action of the majority constituted a clear case of the violation of the Covenant. It became apparent that if the opinion of her fellow-members was that such an important matter of substance could be decided by a majority as a mere matter of procedure, she had ratified the Covenant under an error. However, owing to her strong desire to uphold the cause of the League, she continued to participate in the activities of the Council.

The discrepancy between the views of the other Members of the League and those entertained by Japan arose from a lack of understanding of the Far Eastern situation on the part of the League. In her desire to assist the League and to maintain its legitimate influence and usefulness, Japan proposed at the Council meeting held in November, 1931, that the League should dispatch a Commission of Enquiry to China so that its Members might be able to understand fully the actual conditions prevailing in that country. This proposal was adopted by the Council in its Resolution of December 10.

The Commission of Enquiry headed by Lord Lytton reached China in March, 1932, by way of Japan and entered Manchoukuo in April. Japan rendered every facility to the Commission in order to assist its investigations. Through the establishment of the new State of Manchoukuo, especial difficulty was encountered in the matter of the entrance of the Chinese Assessor into the territory of that State. Japan therefore exerted her good offices with Manchoukuo in order to smooth over this difficulty, and enabled the Commission to carry out its investigations.

The Report of the Commission of Enquiry was made public on October 1, 1932. On account of the brief period allowed for the investigation of the Commission, much remained to be desired for the Report to claim to present a true picture of the actual condition of China. Accordingly, Japan, on November 18 last, handed to the League her Observations on the Lytton Report in order to provide it with accurate materials for coming to a fair conclusion on the questions involved.

The Lytton Report was the subject of deliberation by the Council from November 21, and by the Assemly from December 6, 1932. The Committee of Nineteen appointed by the Assembly without the concurrence of Japan drafted on December 15 a Resolution and a Statement of Reasons concerning the procedure to be followed in performing the duty of conciliation which devolved upon that body in accordance with Paragraph 3, Article 15 of the Covenant. Japan proposed the deletion from the Draft Resolution of passages regarding the participation of states which were not members of the League, and also the modification of certain points relating to the proposed Committee of Conciliation as well as the entire deletion of the last paragraph of the Statement

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of Reasons, which declared in particular that the maintenance and recognition of the present régime in Manchuria could not be considered as solution.

At the same time, considering that Paragraph 3 of Article 15 represents the final resort provided for in the Covenant for conciliatory solution of a dispute, Japan endeavoured to discover some compromise which would enable her to continue her co-operation with the League.

As stated in Part II, M of the Report, the President of the Committee and the Secretary General were authorized to enter into conversations with both the Japanese and Chinese Delegations. The conversations between the Japanese Delegation and the Secretary General were carried on from the first part of January, 1933. As a result of these conversations, a draft was drawn up, and it was referred with the knowledge of the President of the Committee to the Japanese Government for their approval. Subsequently, when amendments of the Japanese Government to this draft were communicated to the Committee of Nineteen, it was made known to the Japanese Delegation that the said draft could not be taken up as a basis of further negotiation. This caused a great surprise to the Japanese Government as they had every reason to believe that the President of the Committee, who together with the Secretary General was authorized to conduct negotiations with the both Delegations, was also fully aware of the conversations and raised no objection to the preparation of the draft.

Though the Committee finally agreed to the deletion from the Draft Resolution of passages relating to the participation of non-Member States in the work of the proposed Committee of Conciliation, it proposed that the Japanese Government accept the rest of the text of the Resolusion and the Statement of Reasons of December 15 and make a reservation in regard to the last Paragraph of the Statement of Reasons to which Japan had taken objection. The declaration contained in this Paragraph would, as is stated elsewhere in the present statement, not only constitute an action ultra vires on the part of the League but prejudice the whole question and imply a direct attack on the policy followed by the Japanese Government with respect to the existence of Manchoukuo. Furthermore, such an attitude on the part of the League was in no way in accord with the idea of conciliation advocated by the Committee of Nineteen as well as by the Japanese Government. For these reasons, Japan found it impossible to accept the proposal of the Committee.

Upon the refusal of the Japanese Delegation to agree to the Committee's proposal in this regard, the latter set to the procedure of drafting a Report under Paragraph 4 of Article 15.

However, the Japanese Government refused to give up the hope for conciliation, and in their final efforts to achieve this end, they agreed to withdraw the various amendments which they had presented when the text of December 15 was communicated to them and consented to accept as the basis of conciliation the principles and conclusions of Chapter 9 of the Lytton Report, in so far as they were applied in a way to "harmonize with the events which have taken place", which phrase is an almost literal quotation from that Report itself. Further they agreed to the maintenance of the last Paragraph of the President's Declaration (formerly called the Statement of Reasons) on the condition that its wording be modified in such a way that it would not appear to constitute a prejudgment and an attack directed against the policy of the Japanese Government vis-à-vis Manchoukuo.

The Committee of Nineteen found this final proposal likewise unacceptable. Thus the Committee rejected all the Japanese proposals and came to the conclusion that conciliation under Paragraph 3 was impossible. The Committee forthwith proceeded with the drafting of a Report under Paragraph 4 of Article 15 of the Covenant. The Draft Report thus prepared was submitted to the Assembly on February 21, and in spite of the negative vote on the part of Japan, it was adopted by the Assembly on February 24.

PART II

Errors in the Report concerning the chief characteristics of the dispute

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The Report sets forth in Part III what are termed the "chief characteristics of the dispute". It is most regrettable that this part of the Report is substantially based upon the Report of the Commission of Enquiry. As stated in that Report, "the issues involved in this conflict are not as simple as they are often represented to be. They are, on the contrary, exceedingly complicated and only an intimate knowledge of all the facts as well as of their historical background should entitle anyone to express a definite opinion upon them". It must be remembered that the Commission of Enquiry spent only six weeks in Manchuria and fifteen in China, most of which was passed in Peiping, and their trip covered only a very limited area of China—a few open ports where the real condition of China could not have thoroughly been studied. In these circumstances, it was impossible for them to acquire "an intimate knowledge of all the facts as well as their historical background".

Hence the document is not as complete as it should be. It is quite natural that there should be not a few errors in the Report of the Assembly which was drafted upon the basis of the Lytton Report. These errors might have been avoided if the Committee of Nineteen had taken into due consideration the Observations of the Japanese Government presented to the Council on November 18, 1932. At any rate, it must be said that the Lytton Report, admirable and praiseworthy as it is, is not a document which one can look upon as containing all the facts as well as all the historical background upon which alone final judgment should be based. The errors in the Report of the Assembly are numerous. Let only the most salient be cited :-

(1) The Report appears to cling in Part III to the fiction that China exists today as a single organized state to be dealt with on the same footing as any country in Europe or America. The fiction happens to be merely a convenient formula which embodies in a concise form the generous aspirations of the Powers for the recovery of China as a unified and orderly state. Japan has worked hard to act upon that formula during these many years, and she is prepared to continue on the same lines in cases where ordinary matters alone are concerned. But where her vital necessities come into play as in Manchuria, she is forced to reconsider that fiction, and to ask herself what are the actual facts, and who are the actual rulers. States which are Members of the League of Nations and have little interest in China can afford to preserve the convenient fiction intact without serious difficulty. But Japan, in a totally different position, economically and strategically, is compelled, however reluctantly, to examine and set a limit to the fiction and to direct her course according to realities.

It is the view of the Japanese Government that the erstwhile Chinese State ceased to rule in Manchuria when "the fall of the United Republic after the death of Yuan Shi-kai in 1915 signalized the break-up of all unity of government in China". (Observations of the Japanese Government, page 15).

As a matter of fact, none of the governments including the Nanking Government maintains authority over China save over the limited areas which it actually controls. That is why the Japanese Government in their Observations insist that Manchuria is not naturally and necessarily an integral part of China. It will then be asked, as it has been asked,—"why did Japan invoke the Nanking Government at the outset of the Manchurian Incident? Why did Japan negotiate with Peking in 1915? Why did she declare Manchuria to be a part of China in 1922?" The answer is that Japan clung until the last moment to the fiction of Manchuria being an integral part of China. She had many excellent opportunities of departing from it, if she had wished, afforded by the chaotic state of the country. She steadily refrained from availing herself of the opportunities. But when chaos came to threaten her whole position in Manchuria, it became necessary for her to take measures to protect her various interests and important rights.

It should be observed at this point that Japan is not setting a precedent for defying the existence of a neighbour state merely because it is weak or disturbed by internal disruption.

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It is needless to say that so long as the government of a state which has actually ruled the whole area maintains its authority in any part of its territory, so long does the state continue to subsist and to remain inviolable. The peculiar circumstances of China do not reside in the fact that its common government is weak or distracted by disruption. They reside in the unique fact that no authority which now exists has ever been a common government of China at all, and none therefore has title to rule the entire country.

The League of Nations should not forget that fact overrides form, and that a state must possess a single and continuous government.

(2) The Report, in agreeing that the Chinese boycott against Japan imposed after the September 18 Incident falls within the province of retaliatory measures, sows the seeds of incalculable future trouble for each and every Power interested in China. All the major Powers conduct military operations in China under certain circumstances, and maintain armed forces in Chinese territory for that specific purpose. If the adoption by the Powers of any forcible measure for the protection of their rights and interests is on each occasion to be the subject of a retaliatory boycott, the application of force will of necessity be extended without limit.

By their acceptance of the Resolutions of September 30 and of December 10, 1931, China and Japan agreed that they should take the necessary measures to prevent any aggravation of the situation. The Japanese Government desire to call the attention of the League to the fact that it was the conspicuous failure on the part of China to take such proper measures that led to the regrettable Shanghai Incident. It should also be added that in any discussion of the boycott the fact of anti-foreign education in schools and the "revolutionary foreign policy" (admitted by the Nanking Government) should not be left out of consideration, as these three subjects are inseparably bound together.

(3) The Report quotes and adopts from the Lytton Report the reference to the possibility of an arbitral settlement of the Sino-Japanese dispute. But arbitration presupposes a normal organized state with a government supreme throughout its territory and capable of enforcing an award. China, as has been stated above, has not for years been in such a state, at any rate so far as to render it possible to arbitrate with her in vital matters concerning Manchuria. With whom would the arbitration have proceeded? With Chang Hsueh-liang whom the League does not recognize? Or with the Nanking Government whose authority (as the Report of the Commission of Enquiry showed) he did not obey? Japan, with her vital interests at stake, could not and cannot possibly resort to arbitration in such a matter with such a country as China.

(4) The Report again quotes and adopts the refusal of the Commission of Enquiry to recognize as measures of self-defence the military operations of the Japanese army on the night of September 18, although it does not exclude the possibility that the Japanese officers on the spot might have thought they were acting in self-defence. This is simply another case of a facile and uncritical acceptance of the opinions of the Commission of Enquiry, utterly ignoring the emphatic contradiction contained in the Observations of the Japanese Government. On what grounds can the League or any other third party pronounce a verdict on the case contrary to the judgment of the Japanese officers on the spot? The right of self-defence is one of those inalienable rights of a state which may be duly exercised in certain specific circumstances, and the question of on what occasion and to what extent that right should be exercised is a matter which can be determined only by the state concerned. In this connection the Japanese Government in their Observations have referred to the reservations made by both France and the United States in concluding the Pact of Paris; a reference which the Assembly found it possible to pass over in silence.

The Report in stating that the operations of the Japanese army, viewed as a whole as they developed through the entire period of the conflict, cannot be regarded as an act of self-defence, fails to take into cognizance the tension which existed, the overwhelming forces

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by which the Japanese were faced and the utter uncertainty which prevailed as to the probable action of those forces. Above all, it fails to take into account the vital rights and interests of Japan in Manchuria, which are not confined to the leased territory and the railways, but involve mining and forestry, consular police and consular jurisdiction, residence and trade throughout the entire region. When these rights and interests are threatened, the measures for their protection may have to be extended throughout Manchuria. But never have Japanese military operations exceeded the bounds of necessity for self-protection.

In order that it may not be supposed over sub silentio, the Japanese Government take this opportunity of explicitly denying the specific conclusion reached in the Report that no question can arise of Chinese responsibility for the development of events since September 18, 1931, and that the use of boycotts by China subsequent to that date falls under the category of reprisals. Even if the theory that the Japanese military action did not constitute lawful self-defence should be accepted, that clearly would not invest the Chinese with an unlimited license to behave as they chose to, and to enter upon a career of unrestricted violence and wrong. Much more is this the case if, as Japan contends, the actions of her troops were urgently called for by the necessities of self-defence. How can reprisals possibly be exercised against a lawful act? The proper reply to acts of self-defence is negotiation and explanation and not reprisals, which generally lead to war. Had the United States exercised reprisals in the Carolina case, war with England must have ensued. Again it must be noted that the Resolution of September 30 precludes either party from aggravating the situation; and it would seem strange to hold that this meant that China might take steps which would certainly aggravate it, leaving Japan alone responsible for any untoward development.

What appears to be a most curious statement is found in Part III of the Report which reads: "adoption of measures of self-defence does not exempt a state from complying with the provisions of Article 12 of the Covenant".

As has already been observed by the Japanese Government, the right of self-defence is exercised upon the occasion "of an urgent"—to quote Webster's definition—"and overwhelming necessity allowing no choice of means and no instant for deliberation". To enquire the observance upon such an occasion of Article 12 of the Covenant, which stipulates that the right of self-defence may be exercised three months after the award by the arbitrators or the judicial decision or the Report of the Council of the League has been made public, is to deny the right of self-defence itself.

(5) The Report says that the declaration of independence by Manchoukuo was not spontaneous. Since the statement is based upon no fresh investigation conducted at a later date, it may be readily gathered that the Report has here again adopted the erroneous conclusions of the Commission of Enquiry contained in Chapter VI of the latter's Report, the baselessness of which has been fully exposed in the Observations of the Japanese Government.

It must strike an impartial observer as extraordinary that the Assembly repeats this finding of the Commission of Enquiry in face of the emphatic denials of Japan. There are two factors which may partly account for this. First, the movement during the tyrannous régime of the Changs for the keeping of Manchuria aloof from all participation in the affairs of China Proper was subterranean, and had no repercussion in the outside world; and the authors of the Report may therefore have been sceptical of its existence. Secondly, they appear to be misled by giving implicit credence to the legend of the so-called "continental policy" of Japan, and her supposed plan to seek a political solution of the Manchurian issue as a step towards the execution of that policy. It is unnecessary to repeat that the Japanese "continental policy" is a mere Chinese fabrication, and that Japan harbours no territorial designs in any part of the world. But all this, though it may explain the rejection by the Assembly of the uncompromising denial made by Japan, can hardly be thought to excuse it.

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The simple fact is that, as has so often been explained, on the disappearance of all the administrative organisations, such as they were, which had existed under the Changs, spontaneous local organisations naturally sprung up, and the Japanese troops which were responsible for the maintenance of order necessarily co-operated with them. It was a proper and necessary step, and in the circumstances an unavoidable one. Such was the whole significance of the presence of Japanese troops, and such was the sole aim of the activities of Japanese civil and military officers. Unfortunately the Commission of Enquiry, and consequently the Assembly, in their implicit reliance on the assumption that there had never existed any independence movement in Manchuria, have been obliged to attribute to the activities of Japanese civil and military officers the independence which was actually proclaimed,—and to do so upon no solid grounds whatever.

As to the assertion that the people of Manchuria are hostile to the new state, again there is no valid evidence beyond fifteen hundred letters of dubious origin received by the Commission of Enquiry. The Japanese Government desire to point out the fact that within less than a year since its foundation, Manchoukuo has achieved a marked and healthy progress in the restoration of law and order, and that no criticism or complaint has been heard of regarding its conduct of affairs, whether domestic or foreign.

Regardless of the attitude of the Assembly to the new State of Manchoukuo, she has gone forward steadily on the road of progress. Freed from the yoke of misgovernment under the tyrannous rule of the Changs, thirty million inhabitants of Manchuria, Machus, Mongols and Chinese all alike, have, already begun to reap the benefits of their labours which were denied them in former days. Throughout most of the country banditry has been suppressed. Those hostile elements, largely composed of the remnants of Chang Hsueh-liang's troops and receiving not inconsiderable assistance from their former war lord, had constituted an obstacle to the establishment of peace throughout the territory. Thanks, however, to the combined efforts of the Japanese and Manchoukuo forces, they have been practically cleared out of the Provinces of Fengtien, Kirin, and Heilungkiang, and the security of life and property has been reestablished in these Provinces. It is only in the Province of Jehol that the organized opposition still continues.

In the domain of finance, something entirely unknown in the history of China has been realized in Manchoukuo. Though the State is still in its infancy, a sound budgetary system has been initiated, and is being carried out with utmost satisfaction. The establishment of the central bank, which is functioning on the same lines as those of the advanced countries of the world, has contributed much to the stabilization of state finances and to the economic and industrial development of the country. A similar progress has also been noted in the domain of railway administration, commerce and industry, and with abundant resources with which she is endowed, there is every prospect of this country achieving, in days to come, a still greater progress along these lines to the benefit of her inhabitants and foreigners.

All this could not have been the case had the population of the country been hostile or even sullenly submissive. It is to be regretted therefore that the Assembly should have, without referring to the Observations submitted by Japan, accepted the assumption of the Commission of Enquiry, which, here again, has no foundation in fact.

(6) The Report dwells upon the need of international co-operation in the reconstruction of China, and mentions the provision of technical assistance as one form of that international co-operation. Obviously, the reconstruction of China cannot be accomplished by any such superficial and inadequate means. It could only be rendered possible by some forceful international intervention of such a nature as would at once prove incompatible with the stipulations of the Nine Power Treaty regarding the administrative integrity and political independence of China. That is another proof that it is necessary to allow ample elasticity by taking due account of changing conditions in the application of the Nine Power Treaty and the

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Covenant of the League as far as China is concerned.

PART III

Impracticabilities of the Recommendations.

(1) Japan recognizes that the Covenant of the League of Nations and the Pact of Paris constitute the basic principles of the settlement of international disputes in so far as international relations in general are concerned. But a certain degree of elasticity must be allowed in the application of these principles to such special and entirely abnormal conditions as prevail in China.

(2) As to the proposal for the withdrawal of troops contained in Section 2, (1), (A) of Part IV of the Report, it is to be noted that the presence of Japanese troops outside the Railway Zone, so far from being incompatible with legal principles, has from the very beginning been due entirely to the sheer necessities of lawful self-defence, and is in no way derogatory to the accepted principles regarding the settlement of international disputes. It is further to be noted that these Japanese troops are now responsible, in accordance with the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol, for the maintenance of peace and order in Manchoukuo. It is true that by the Resolutions of September 30 and of December 10, 1931, Japan undertook to withdraw her troops within the Railway Zone in so far as the safety of her subjects was assured, but the condition attaching to that undertaking, namely the assurance of safety of life and property, has never been satisfied; and the undertaking itself has now become inapplicable on account of the independence of Manchoukuo and the conclusion of the agreements embodied in the Protocol signed on September 15 last. Should the Japanese troops be withdrawn from the Railway Zone in accordance with the recommendation contained in the Report, it would be inevitable that unrest and disturbances would ensue in the evacuated territory. Those Members of the League that have but little direct interest in the affairs of the Far East can afford to maintain that the upholding of abstract formulae is more important than the maintenance of the peace in this part of the world. But Japan, vitally concerned in the maintenance of peace and order in Manchuria, cannot tolerate that that region should again be plunged into disorder. It cannot be supposed that a gendarmerie system as proposed by the Lytton Report would remove all apprehensions on this score. There is no precedent in the history of the world in which the security of such a vast territory was secured by gendarmerie. The proposition is absurd and cannot be put into practice. If the Japanese troops were withdrawn, the country would be quickly overrun by bandits and by Chang Hsueh-liang's troops resulting in anarchy and disorder.

(3) As to Section 2, (1) of Part IV of the Report, where it is stated that the sovereignty over Manchuria belongs to China, it has to be noted that at any rate since the year 1916, Manchuria has never been subject to the authority of China, and that in the final analysis, the present difficulty has been caused by the supposition that the sovereignty of China actually extended and extends to that region. It is entirely superfluous to say that the enforcement of this fiction will never ensure the protection of Japan's rights and interests and the maintenance of peace in the Far East. Inasmuch as the Report repudiates the restoration of the old régime as leading merely to a repetition of disorder and friction, so any return to the fiction in question must equally be repudiated. Nor is it possible for Japan to admit any policy which is incompatible with the simple fact of the existence of the State of Manchoukuo and the provisions of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol.

(4) With regard to the ten principles set out in the Lytton Report and cited in Section I of Part IV of the Report, apart from the observations made above, the Japanese Government deem it sufficient to quote the following passages from their Observations presented to the League in November last:—

"Certain of these principles to which the Japanese Government have no fundamental objection, have already found concrete application in the Protocol signed by Japan and Manchoukuo. But, in any view of the matter, it must eri-

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dently be impossible, so long as the anarchical state of things in China persists, to arrive at a satisfactory solution of the questions at issue on the basis of the first nine of these principles, especially Principles 4-9 inclusive. As is sustained in Principle 10, these nine principles cannot be practically applied 'without a strong central government in China'."

(5) In Section 2, (3) of Part IV of the Report, the Assembly contemplates the establishment of a Committee to assist in the negotiations which are to be opened between the two parties in accordance with the method specified in the Report. This, however, is directly contrary to the insistence of Japan not to allow any third party to intervene in the Manchurian problem, and Japan finds it absolutely impossible to accept such a proposal. As, moreover, the Recommendations referred to as (1), (A) and (1), (B) of Section 2, Part IV of the Report, must be dismissed as unpractical, and those made under (2) of the said Section 2 are equally inapplicable in the present state of China, there would seem to be no scope left for the activities of the proposed Committee.

(6) The Report states in effect in Section 3 of Part IV that the maintenance and recognition of the existing régime in Manchuria is no solution and that the Members of the League should, after having adopted the Report, abstain from recognizing the present régime either de jure or de facto. Further it expresses the hope that the States non-Members of the League who are signatories of the Pact of Paris and the Nine Power Treaty will associate themselves with the view set forth in the Report in this regard. The Japanese Government cannot but consider that the Assembly, in proposing in such a manner to influence or to bind, if only morally, both Member and non-Member states in the matter of recognizing or not recognizing another state, is exceeding its powers conferred upon it by Article 15 of the Covenant. In any case, in making a proposition of this nature the League of Nations whose primary duty is the preservation of peace throughout the world could not surely contribute to the maintenance of peace and security not only in Manchoukuo, but also in the Far East. Such an action on the part of the League would prove to be an obstacle to the good understanding and friendly relations between nations upon which peace depends.

PART IV

Conclusion

The Japanese Government are fully convinced that the action of the Japanese army on the night of September 18, 1931, and thereafter has never exceeded the limits appropriate to measures of self-defence, and that Manchoukuo has been founded by the spontaneous will of the people of Manchuria. Accordingly, they consider that neither the action of the Japanese army in Manchuria, nor the conclusion of the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol is in violation of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Nine Power Treaty, the Pact of Paris, or any other international treaty. The Japanese Government maintain that in view of the quite abnormal condition of China, where no existing authority has ever ruled the entire country, and particularly in view of the unparalleled complexity and peculiarity of the Manchurian problem, and also having regard to the anti-foreign character of the policy of the National Government, it is impossible to think of applying to the present dispute the general formulae applicable to an ordinary international question; and they maintain moreover that neither any procedure which may be adopted for such an exceptional case, nor any solution thereby attained, can ever establish a precedent for ordinary cases of international dispute. Were it possible to apply ordinary formulae, the plans adumbrated by the Assembly would themselves be ruled out of consideration as interferences with what the Assembly regards as Chinese sovereign rights.

Unfortunately, the Assembly, through the refusal of its Members to face facts, and their uncritical acceptance of the Report of the Commission of Enquiry, has only indulged in academic and inadequate principles. The Assembly stands, if it may so be said, for mere formulae; Japan for solid realities. Japan takes her stand on established principles; the Assembly on precon-

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ceived hypotheses. It results from the refusal of the Assembly to go beyond the Lytton Report. As pointed out in the preceding part of the present statement, the new State of Manchoukuo has made rapid progress. Peace and order are superseding banditry. Commerce and industry have responded to the improved situation, to the benefit of foreigners and the people of Manchoukuo alike. This is a concrete proof of the truth of the Japanese contention that the recognition and encouragement of the Manchurian State is the only road to a satisfactory solution of the Manchurian question and to the maintenance of a lasting peace in the Orient.

On the other hand, it appears impossible to look for any improvement in the Chinese situation in the near future, and China is likely to remain a chronic anxiety to the rest of the world. Communism has already invaded China, and the alarming extent and success of the invasion is far too seldom realized. A communized China would constitute a problem for Europe and America beside which other questions would pale into insignificance. But a Manchuria free from Chinese connection constitutes a barrier to the communistic danger in the Far East. Its value ought surely to be apparent to every statesman. It is earnestly hoped that the League of Nations will soon be led to change its attitude, to discard reliance on academic and inapplicable doctrine and to respect and recognize the forces that are actually rendering possible the maintenance of peace in the various regions of the world. The Covenant of the League of Nations itself provides in Article 21 for the due recognition of regional understandings, and the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol of September 15, 1932, falls incontestably within the category of understandings such as these, as the special interests of Japan in Manchuria have again and again been recognized. At the same time, Japan takes this opportunity of repeating her disclaimer of all desire for territorial gains or commercial advantages.

TRAITÉ DE RÈGLEMENT JUDICIAIRE, D'ARBITRAGE ET DE CONCILIATION ENTRE LE JAPON ET LES PAYS-BAS

Ratifié le 25, Mai

ARTICLE 1

Tous les différends de quelque nature qu'ils soient, qui pourraient se produire entre les Hautes Parties contractantes et qui n'auraient pu être réglés, dans un délai raisonnable, par les procédés diplomatiques ordinaires seront, d'un commun accord entre les Parties ou à la demande de l'une d'elles, soumis à une Commission permanente de Conciliation, constituée et fonctionnant conformément aux dispositions du présent Traité. Les différends qui de l'avis des deux Parties seraient d'ordre juridique, ne seront soumis à la Commission permanente de Conciliation que d'un commun accord entre les Parties.

ARTICLE 2

Les différends pour la solution desquels une procédure spéciale est prévue par d'autres conventions en vigueur entre les Hautes Parties contractantes, seront réglés conformément aux dispositions de ces conventions.

ARTICLE 3

Les différends d'ordre juridique, notamment ceux concernant l'interprétation des traités en vigueur entre les Hautes Parties contractantes, différends qui n'auraient pas été soumis à la Commission permanente de Conciliation ou qui, ayant été soumis à celle-ci, n'auraient pas été réglés dans les trois mois après le dressement de son rapport,

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seront, à la demande de l'une des Parties adressée à l'autre, soumis d'un commun accord par voie de compromis soit à la Cour permanente de Justice internationale qui statuera dans les conditions et suivant la procédure prévues par son Statut, soit à un Tribunal arbitral qui statuera dans les conditions et suivant la procédure prévues par la Convention de la Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux. Le compromis est établi par échange de notes entre les Gouvernements des Hautes Parties contractantes.

A défaut d'accord entre les Parties sur le choix de la juridiction dans un délai de trois mois à compter de la proposition adressée par l'une des Parties à l'autre de soumettre le différend à la Cour permanente de Justice internationale ou à un Tribunal arbitral, le différend sera soumis, selon la procédure prévue à l'alinéa précédent, à ladite Cour, qui statuera dans les conditions et suivant la procédure prévues par son Statut. Il sera également soumis à cette Cour, suivant la même procédure, si, les Hautes Parties contractantes ayant été d'accord pour soumettre le différend à un Tribunal arbitral, la consitution de celui-ci selon les dispositions de l'article suivant n'a pas eu lieu dans les cinq mois à compter de la demande visée à l'alinéa 2 dudit article.

ARTICLE 4

Si les Hautes Parties contractantes se sont mises d'accord pour soumettre le différend à un Tribunal arbitral, celui-ci sera, à défaut d'autre entente, composé de cinq membres et constitué de la maniére suivante : les Parties nommeront chacune un arbitre qui pourra être choisi parmi leurs nationaux ; le président et les deux autres arbitres seront choisis d'un commun accord parmi les ressortissants de tierces Puissances ; ces trois arbitres devront être de nationalités différentes.

Si la nomination des membres du Tribunal arbitral n'intervient pas dans un délai de trois mois à compter de la demande adressée par l'une des Parties à l'autre de constituer ensemble un Tribunal arbitral, le soin de procéder aux nominations nécessaries sera confié à une tierce Puissance choisie d'un commun accord par les Parties.

Si l'accord ne s'établit pas à ce sujet, chaque Partie désignera une Puissance différente et les nominations seront faites de concert par les Puissances ainsi choisies.

ARTICLE 5

Il sera pourvu, dans le plus bref délai, aux vacances qui viendraient à se produire dans le Tribunal arbitral par suite de décès, de démission ou de quelque autre empêchement en suivant le mode fixé à l'article 4 pour les nominations.

ARTICLE 6

L'arbitrage visé à l'article 4 sera régi par les dispositions des articles 7, 8 et 9.

ARTICLE 7

Les Hautes Parties contractantes rédigeront un compromis déterminant l'objet du différend et la procédure à suivre.

A défaut d'indications ou de précisions suffisantes dans le compromis, la procédure arbitrale sera réglée par les dispositions de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux.

ARTICLE 8

A défaut d'autre entente concernant les règles de fond à appliquer par les arbitres, le Tribunal arbitral fonde ses décisions :

1° sur les conventions générales ou spéciales en vigueur entre les deux Parties et règles de droit qui en découlent ;

2° sur la coutume internationale considérée comme l'expression d'une pratique générale acceptée comme étant le droit ;

3° sur les principes généraux de droit reconnus par les nations civilisées ;

4° sur les résultats de la doctrine et

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de la jurisprudence les plus autorisées, comme moyens auxiliaires de détermination des règles de droit.

ARTICLE 9

Sauf stipulation contraire du compromis d'arbitrage, une demande de revision de la sentence arbitrale sera admise conformément aux dispositions de l'article 83, alinéas 2 et 3 de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux, dans le délai qui sera fixé par le Tribunal.

ARTICLE 10

S'il s'agit d'un différend dont l'objet, d'après la législation intérieure de l'une des Hautes Parties contractantes, relève de la compétence des tribunaux nationaux de celle-ci, le différend ne pourra être soumis à la procédure prévue par le présent Traité qu'après jugement passé en force de chose jugée et rendu dans des délais raisonnables par l'autorité judiciaire nationale compétente.

ARTICLE 11

La Commission permanente de Conciliation prévue par le présent Traité sera composée de cinq membres, qui seront désignés comme il suit, savoir : Les Hautes Parties contractantes nommeront chacune un commissaire choisi parmi leurs nationaux respectifs et désigneront d'un commun accord les trois autres commissaires parmi les ressortissants de tierces Puissances ; ces trois commissaires devront être de nationalités différentes et, parmi eux, les Hautes Parties contractantes désigneront le Président de la Commission.

Les commissaires sont nommés pour cinq ans à compter de la date de l'entrée en vigueur du présent Traité ; leur mandat est renouvelable. Ils resteront en fonctions jusqu'à leur remplacement et, dans tous les cas, jusqu'à l'achèvement de leurs travaux en cours au moment de l'expiration de leur mandat.

Il sera pourvu aussi rapidement que possible et dans un délai qui ne devra pas excéder trois mois, aux vacances qui viendraient à se produire par suite de décès, de démission ou de quelque empêchement permanent ou temporaire en suivant le mode fixé pour les nominations. Les personnes ainsi désignées ne seront nommées que pour la période non-écoulée du mandat des commissaires qu'elles remplacent.

ARTICLE 12

La Commission permanente de Conciliation sera constituée aussitot que possible après l'échange des ratifications du présent Traité.

Si la nomination des membres à désigner en commun n'intervenait pas dans les six mois aprés l'échange des ratifications du Traité ou, en cas de remplacement, dans les trois mois à compter de la vacance du siège, le Président de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale serait, à défaut d'autre entente, prié par les deux Hautes Parties contractantes conjointement ou par l'une d'elles, de procéder aux désignations nécessaires. Si le Président est empêché ou s'il est ressortissant de l'une des Parties, le Vice-Président sera prié de procéder à ces désignations. Si celui-ci est empêché ou s'il est ressortissant de l'une des Parties, le premier des autres juges selon l'ordre du tableau de la Cour qui n'est ressortissant d'aucune des Parties, sera prié de procéder à ces désignations.

ARTICLE 13

La Commission permanente de Conciliation sera saisie par voie de requête adressée au Président.

La requête, aprés avoir exposé sommairement l'objet du différend, contiendra l'invitation à la Commission de procéder à toutes mesures propres à conduire à une conciliation.

Si la requête émane d'une seule des Parties, elle sera notifiée par celle-ci sans délai à la Partie adverse.

ARTICLE 14

La Commission permanente de Conciliation aura pour tâche d'élucider les questions en litige, de recueillir à ce:

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effet toutes les informations utiles par voie d'enquête ou autrement et de s'efforcer de concilir les Parties. Elle pourra, après examen de l'affaire, exposer aux Parties les termes de l'arrangement qui lui paraîtrait convenable, et, s'il y a lieu, leur impartir un délai pour se prononcer.

A la fin de ses travaux, la Commission dressera un rapport qui en constatera le résultat et dont un exemplaire sera remis à chacune des Parties. Le rapport ne mentionnera pas si les décisions de la Commission ont été prises à l'unanimité ou à la majorité.

Les Hautes Parties contractantes ne seront jamais liées par les considérations de fait, de droit ou autres auxquelles la Commission se sera arrêtée.

Les travaux de la Commission devront être ouverts au plus tard dans les deux mois à compter de jour où elle aura été saisie du différend. A moins que les Parties n'en conviennent différemment ou que la Commission ne juge indispensable de prolonger le délai, les travaux doivent être terminés dans un délai de six mois à compter du jour où la Commission en aura déclaré l'ouverture. Si la Commission juge indispensable de continuer ses travaux au delà du délai de six mois, elle communiquera les motifs aux deux Parties.

ARTICLE 15

A moins de stipulations spéciales contraires, la Commission permanente de Conciliation réglera elle-même sa procédure qui, dans tous les cas, devra être contradictoire. En matière d'enquêtes, la Commission, si elle n'en décide autrement à l'unanimité, se conformera aux dispositions du Titre III (Commission internationale d'enquête) de la Convention de La Haye du 18 octobre 1907 pour le règlement pacifique des conflits internationaux.

ARTICLE 16

Le Président convoquera la Commission permanente de Conciliation aussitot que possible après que celle-ci aura été saisie du différend.

La Commission se réunira, sauf accord contraire entre les Parties, au lieu désigné et à la date fixée par son Président.

ARTICLE 17

Les travaux de la Commission permanente de Conciliation ne sont publics qu'en vertu d'une décision prise par la Commission avec l'assentiment des Parties.

Les Hautes Parties contractantes s'engagent à ne pas publier le résultat des travaux de la Commission sans s'être préalablement consultées.

ARTICLE 18

Les Hautes Parties contractantes seront représentées auprès de la Commission permanente de Conciliation par des agents ayant mission de servir d'intermédiaires entre elles et la Commission ; elles pourront, en outre, se faire assister par des conseils et experts nommés par elles à cet effet et demander l'audition de toutes personnes dont le témoignage leur paraîtrait utile.

La Commission rura, de son coté, la faculté de demander des explications orales aux agents, conseils et experts des deux Parties, ainsi qu'à toutes personnes qu'elle jugerait utile de faire comparaître avec l'assentiment de leur Gouvernement.

ARTICLE 19

Sauf dispositions contaires du présent Traité, les décisions de la Commission permanente de Conciliation seront prises à la majorité des voix.

La Commission ne pourra prendre de décision portant sur le fond du différend que si tous les membres ont été dûment convoqués et si au moins tous les membres élus en commun sont présents.

ARTICLE 20

Les Hautes Parties contractantes s'engagent à faciliter les travaux de la Commission permanente de Conciliation et, en particulier, à assurer à celle-ci l'assistance de leurs autorités compétentes, à lui fournir dans la plus large mesure possible tous documents et in-

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formations utiles et à prendre les mesures nécessaires pour permettre à la Commission de procéder sur leur territoire à la citation et à l'audition de témoins ou d'experts et à des transports sur les lieux.

ARTICLE 21

Pendant la durée des travaux de la Commission permanente de Conciliation, chacun des commissaires recevra une indemnité dont le montant sera arrêté d'un commun accord entre les Hautes Parties contractantes qui en supporteront chacune une part égale. Les frais généraux occasionnés par le fonctionnement de la Commission seront répartis par moitié.

ARTICLE 22

Les décisions du Tribunal arbitral ou de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale devront être exécutées de bonne foi par les Parties.

Les Hautes Parties contractantes s'engagent à ne prendre pendant la durée de la procédure de la Commission permanente de Conciliation, du Tribunal arbitral ou de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale, aucune mesure qui pourrait avoir une répercussion défavorable sur l'acceptation de la proposition de la Commission permanente de Conciliation ou sur l'exécution de la décision du Tribunal arbitral ou de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale. Le Tribunal arbitral peut, à la remande de l'une des Parties, ordonner des mesures provisoires, pour autant que ces mesures peuvent être prises par les Parties par la voie administrative. La Commission permanente de Conciliation peut également faire des propositions dans le même but. Pour ce qui concerne la Cour permanente de Justice internationale, son Statut est applicable.

ARTICLE 23

Si quelque différend venait à surgir entre les Hautes Parties contractantes relativement à l'interprétation du présent Traité, ce différend serait réglé selon la procédure prévue à l'article 3.

ARTICLE 24

Le présent Traité sera ratifié. Les ratifications en seront échangées à La Haye aussitot que faire se pourra.

ARTICLE 25

Le présent Traité entrera en vigueur dès l'échange des ratifications et aura une durée de cinq ans à compter de son entrée en vigueur. S'il n'est pas dénoncé six mois avant l'expiration de cette période, il sera considéré comme renouvelé tacitement pour une nouvelle période de cinq ans et ainsi de suite.

Si, lors de l'expiration de la durée du présent Traité, une procédure quelconque en vertu de ce Traité se trouvait pendante devant la Commission permanente de Conciliation, devant la Cour permanente de Justice internationale ou devant le Tribunal arbitral, cette procédure serait poursuivie jusqu'à son achèvement.

PROTOCOLE DE SIGNATURE

Au moment de procéder à la signature du Traité de règlement judiciaire, d'arbitrage et de conciliation entre le Japon et les Pays-Bas les Plénipotentiaires soussignés se sont déclarés d'accord sur ce qui suit :

1. Le Traité susmentionné sera applicable à tous les différends qui viendraient à s'élever entre les deux pays et qui ne toucheraient pas directement aux intérêts de tierces Puissances.

2. Au cas où, par suite de la réalisation du retrait du Japon de la Société des Nations, dont préavis a été donné le 27 mars 1933, un changement viendrait à se produire dans la situation juridique du Japon vis-à-vis de la Cour permanente de Justice internationale, les Hautes Parties contractantes entreront en pourparlers, à la demande du Gouvernement japonais, pour examiner s'il y a lieu de modifier des dispositions dudit Traité qui ont trait à ladite Cour. Pendant ces pourparlers l'application desdites dispositions sera suspendue. Les procédures pendantes devant la

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Cour au moment où le Gouvernement du Japon aurait fait la demande visée ci-dessus, seraient toutefois poursuivies jusqu'à leur achèvement et les dispositions du Traité resteraient applicables aux décisions de la Cour dans ces cas.

La Haye, le dix-neuvième jour du quatrième mois de la huitième année de Showa, correspondant au 19 avril 1933.

Hiroshi Saito.

Beelaerts van Blokland.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND CHINA

Signed at Peking, July 21, 1896.

ARTICLE I

There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between His Majesty the Emperor of Japan and His Majesty the Emperor of China, and between their respective subjects who shall enjoy equally in the respective countries of the High Contracting Parties full and entire protection for their persons and property.

ARTICLE II

It is agreed by the High Contracting Parties that His Majesty the Emperor of Japan may, if He see fit, accredit a Diplomatic Agent to the Court of Peking and His Majesty the Emperor of China may, if He see fit, accredit a Diplomatic Agent to the Court of Tokio.

The Diplomatic Agent thus accredited shall respectively enjoy all the prerogatives, privileges and immunities accorded by international law to such Agents and they shall also in all respects be entitled to the treatment extended to similar Agents of the most favoured nation.

Their persons, families, suites, establishments, residences and correspondence shall be held inviolable. They shall be at liberty to select and appoint their own officers, courtiers, interpreters, servants and attendants without any kind of molestation.

ARTICLE III

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls and Consular Agents to reside at such of the ports, cities and towns of China, which are now, or may hereafter be, opened to foreign residence and trade, as the interests of the Empire of Japan may require.

These officers shall be treated with due respect by the Chinese Authorities, and they shall enjoy all the attributes, authority, jurisdiction, privileges and immunities which are, or may hereafter be, extended to smilar officers of the nation most favoured in these respects.

His Majesty the Emperor of China may likewise appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls and Consular Agents to reside at any or all of those places in Japan, where Consular officers of other nations are now, or may hereafter be, admitted, and, saving in the matter of jurisdiction in respect of Chinese subjects and property in Japan, which is reserved to the Japanese Judicial Courts, they shall enjoy the rights and privileges that are usually accorded to such officers.

ARTICLE IV

Japanese subjects may, with their families, employés and servants, frequent, reside and carry on trade, industries and manufactures, or pursue any other lawful avocations in all the ports, cities and towns of China, which are now, or may hereafter be, opened to foreign residence and trade. They are at liberty to proceed to or from any of the open ports with their merchandise and effects, and within the localities at those places which have already been,

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or may hereafter be, set apart for the use and occupation of foreigners, they are allowed to rent or purchase houses, rent or lease land, and to build churches, cemeteries and hospitals, enjoying in all respects the same privileges and immunities as are now, or may hereafter be, granted to the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE V

Japanese vessels may touch for the purpose of landing and shipping passengers and merchandise in accordance with the existing Rules and Regulations concerning foreign trade there at all those places in China, which are now ports of call, namely, Nganching, Tatung, Hu-kow, Wu-sueh, Lu-chi-kow and Woosung and such other places as may hereafter be made ports of call also. If any vessel should unlawfully enter ports other than open ports and ports of call in China or carry on clandestine trade along the coast or rivers, the vessel with her cargo shall be subject to confiscation by the Chinese Government.

ARTICLE VI

Japanese subjects may travel, for their pleasure or for purposes of trade, to all parts of the interior of China, under passports issued by Japanese Consuls and countersigned by the Local Authorities. These passports, if demanded, must be produced for examination in the localities passed through. If the passports be not irregular, the bearers will be allowed to proceed and no opposition shall be offered to their hiring of persons, animals, carts or vessels for their own conveyance or for the carriage of their personal effects or merchandise. If they be without passports or if they commit any offence against the law, they shall be handed over to the nearest Consul for punishment, but they shall only be subject to necessary restraint and in no case to ill-usage. Such passports shall remain in force for a period of thirteen Chinese months from the date of issue. Any Japanese subject travelling in the interior without a passport shall be liable to a fine not exceeding three hundred Taels. Japanese subjects may, however, without passports go on excursions from any of the ports open to trade, to a distance not exceeding one hundred Chinese li and for a period not exceeding five days. The provisions of this Article do not apply to crews of ships.

ARTICLE VII

Japanese subjects residing in the open ports of China may take into their service Chinese subjects and employ them in any lawful capacity without restraint or hindrance from the Chinese Government or Authorities.

ARTICLE VIII

Japanese subjects may hire whatever boats they please for the conveyance of cargo or passengers and the sum to be paid for such boats shall be settled between the parties themselves, without the interference of the Chinese Government or officers. No limit shall be put upon the number of boats, neither shall a monopoly in respect either of the boats or of the porters or coolies engaged in carrying goods be granted to any parties. If any smuggling takes place in them the offenders will of course be punished according to law.

ARTICLE IX

The Tariffs and Tariff Rules now in force between China and the Western Powers shall be applicable to all articles upon importation into China by Japanese subjects or from Japan, or upon exportation from China by Japanese subjects or to Japan. It is clearly understood that all articles, the importation or exportation of which is not expressly limited or prohibited by the Tariffs and Tariff Rules existing between China and the Western Powers, may be freely imported into and exported from China, subject only to the payment of the stipulated import or export duties. But in no case shall Japanese subjects be called upon to pay in China other or higher import or export duties than are, or may be, paid by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; nor shall any article imported into China from Japan or exported from China to Japan be charged upon such importation or

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exportation other or higher duties than are now, or may hereafter be, imposed in China on the like article when imported from or exported to the nation most favoured in those respects.

ARTICLE X

All articles duly imported into China by Japanese subjects or from Japan shall, while being transported, subject to the existing Regulations, from one open port to another, be wholly exempt from all taxes, imposts, duties, lekin, charges and exactions of every nature and kind whatsoever, irrespective of the nationality of the owner or possessor of the articles, or the nationality of the conveyance or vessel in which the transportation is made.

ARTICLE XI

It shall be at the option of any Japanese subject desiring to convey duly imported articles to an inland market to clear his goods of all transit duties by payment of a commutation transit tax or duty, equal to one-half of the import duty in respect of dutiable articles, and two and half per cent. upon the value in respect of duty free articles; and on payment thereof a certificate shall be issued, which shall exempt the goods from all further inland charges whatsoever. It is understood that this Article does not apply to imported opium.

ARTICLE XII

All Chinese goods and produce purchased by Japanese subjects in China elsewhere than at an open port thereof and intended for export abroad, shall in every part of China be freed from all taxes, imposts, duties, lekin, charges and exactions of every nature and kind whatsoever, saving only export duties when exported, upon the payment of a commutation transit tax or duty calculated at the rate mentioned in the last preceding Article substituting export duty for import duty, provided such goods and produce are actually exported to a foreign country within the period of twelve months from the date of the payment of the transit tax; all Chinese goods and produce purchased by Japanese subjects at the open ports of China and of which export to foreign countries is not prohibited shall be exempt from all internal taxes, imposts, duties, lekin, charges and exactions of every nature and kind whatsoever, saving only export duties upon exportation and all articles purchased by Japanese subjects in any part of China, may also, for the purposes of export abroad, be transported from open port to open port, subject to the existing Rules and Regulations.

Merchandise of a bona fide foreign origin, in respect of which full import duty shall have been paid, may at any time within three years from the date of importation be re-exported from China by Japanese subjects to any foreign country, without the payment of any export duty; and the re-exporters shall, in addition, be entitled forthwith to receive from the Chinese Customs drawback certificates for the amount of import duty paid thereon, provided that the merchandise remains intact and unchanged in its original packages. Such drawback certificates shall be immediately redeemable in ready money by the Chinese Customs Authorities at the option of the holders thereof.

ARTICLE XIV

The Chinese Government consents to the establishment of Bonded Warehouses at the several open ports of China. Regulations on the subject shall be made hereafter.

ARTICLE XV

Japanese merchant vessels of more than one hundred and fifty tons burden entering the open ports of China, shall be charged tonnage dues at the rate of four mace per registered ton; if of one hundred and fifty tons and under, they shall be charged at the rate of one mace per registered ton. But any such vessel taking its departure within forty-eight hours after arrival, without breaking bulk, shall be exempt from the payment of tonnage dues.

Japanese vessels having paid the above specified tonnage dues shall thereafter be exempt from all tonnage dues in all the open ports and ports of call of China

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for the period of four months from the date of clearance from the port where the payment of such tonnage dues is made. Japanese vessels shall not, however, be required to pay tonnage dues for the period during which they are actually undergoing repairs in China.

No tonnage dues shall be payable on small vessels and boats employed by Japanese subjects in the conveyance of passengers, baggage, letters, or duty free articles between any of the open ports of China. All small vessels and cargo boats, however, conveying merchandise which is, at the time of such conveyance, subject to duty, shall pay tonnage dues once in four months at the rate of one mace per ton.

No fee or charges other than tonnage dues shall be levied upon Japanese vessels and boats, and it is also understood that such vessels and boats shall not be required to pay other or higher tonnage dues than the vessels and boats of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XVI

Any Japanese merchant vessel arriving at an open port of China shall be at liberty to engage the services of a pilot to take her into port. In like manner, after she has discharged all legal dues and duties and is ready to take her departure, she shall be allowed to employ a pilot to take her out of port.

ARTICLE XVII

Japanese merchant vessels compelled on account of injury sustained or any other cause to seek a place of refuge, shall be permitted to enter any nearest port of China, without being subject to the payment of tonnage dues or duties upon goods landed in order that repairs to the vessel may be effected, provided the goods so landed remain under the supervision of the Customs Authorities. Should any such vessel be stranded or wrecked on the coast of China, the Chinese Authorities shall immediately adopt measures for rescuing the passengers and crew and for securing the vessel and cargo. The persons thus saved shall receive friendly treatment, and, if necessary, shall be furnished with means of conveyance to the nearest Consular station. Should any Chinese merchant vessel be compelled on account of injury sustained or any other cause to seek a place of refuge in the nearest port of Japan, she shall likewise be treated in the same way by the Japanese Authorities.

ARTICLE XVIII

The Chinese Authorities at the several open ports shall adopt such means as they may judge most proper to prevent the revenue suffering from fraud or smuggling.

ARTICLE XIX

If any Japanese vessel be plundered by Chinese robbers or pirates, it shall be the duty of the Chinese Authorities to use every endeavour to capture and punish the said robbers or pirates, and to recover and restore the stolen property.

ARTICLE XX

Jurisdiction over the persons and property of Japanese subjects in China is reserved exclusively to the duly authorized Japanese Authorities, who shall hear and determine all cases brought against Japanese subjects or property by Japanese subjects, or by the subjects or citizens of any other Power, without the intervention of the Chinese Authorities.

ARTICLE XXI

If the Chinese Authorities or a Chinese subject make any charge or complaint of civil nature against Japanese subjects or in respect of Japanese property in China, the case shall be heard and decided by the Japanese Authorities.

In like manner all charge and complaints of a civil nature brought by Japanese Authorities or subjects in China against Chinese subjects or in respect of Chinese property, shall be heard and determined by the Chinese Authorities.

ARTICLE XXII

Japanese subjects charged with the

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commission of any crimes or offences in China shall be tried, and, if found guilty, punished by the Japanese Authorities according to the laws of Japan.

In like manner Chinese subjects charged with the commission of any crimes or offences against Japanese subjects in China, shall be tried and if found guilty, punished by the Chinese Authorities according to the laws of China.

ARTICLE XXIII

Should any Chinese subjects fail to discharge debts incurred to a Japanese subject, or should he fraudulently abscond, the Chinese Authorities will do their utmost to effect his arrest, and enforce recovery of the debts. The Japanese Authorities will likewise do their utmost to bring to justice any Japanese subject who fraudulently absconds or fails to discharge debts incurred by him to a Chinese subject.

ARTICLE XXIV

If Japanese subjects in China, who have committed offences or have failed to discharge debts and fraudulently abscond, should flee to the interior of China or take refuge in houses occupied by Chinese subjects or on board of Chinese ships, the Chinese Authorities shall at the request of the Japanese Consul, deliver them to the Japanese Authorities.

In like manner if Chinese subjects in China, who have committed offences or have failed to discharge debts and fraudulently abscond, should take refuge in houses occupied by Japanese subjects in China or on board of Japanese ships in Chinese waters, they shall be delivered up, at the request of the Chinese Authorities made to the Japanese Authorities.

ARTICLE XXV

The Japanese Government and its subjects are hereby confirmed in all privileges, immunities and advantages conferred on them by the Treaty stipulations between Japan and China, which are now in force; and it is hereby expressly stipulated that the Japanese Government and its subjects will be allowed free and equal participation in all privileges, immunities and advantages that may have been, or may be hereafter, granted by His Majesty the Emperor of China to the Government or subjects of any other nation.

ARTICLE XXVI

It is agreed that either of the High Contracting Parties may demand a revision of the tariffs and of the Commercial Articles of this Treaty at the end of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications; but if no such demand be made on either side and no such revision be effected, within six months after the end of the first ten years, then the Treaty and Tariffs, in their present form, shall remain in force for ten years more, reckoned from the end of the preceding ten years, and so it shall be at the end of each successive period of ten years.

ARTICLE XXVII

The High Contracting Parties will agree upon Rules and Regulations necessary to give full effect to this Treaty. Until such Rules and Regulations are brought into actual operation, the Arrangements, Rules and Regulations subsisting between China and the Western Powers, so far as they are applicable and not inconsistent with the provisions of this Treaty, shall be binding between the Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE XXVIII

The present Treaty is signed in the Japanese, Chinese and English languages. In order, however, to prevent future discussions, the Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have agreed upon that in case of any divergence in the interpretation between the Japanese and Chinese texts of the Treaty, the difference shall be settled by reference to the English text.

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SUPPLEMENTARY TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATOIN

Signed at Shanghai, October 8, 1903

ARTICLE I

Whereas China, with the object of reforming its fiscal system, proposes to levy a surtax in excess of the tariff rates on all goods passing through the Custom Houses, whether maritime or inland and frontier, in order to compensate in a measure for the loss incurred by the complete abolition of likin, Japan consents to pay the same surtax as is agreed upon between China and all the Treaty Powers. With regard to the production tax, consumption tax and excise, and the taxes on native opium and salt, leviable by China, Japan also consents to accept the same arrangements as are agreed upon between all the Treaty Powers and China. It is understood however that the commerce, rights and privileges of Japan shall not, on account of the above, be placed at any disadvantage as compared with the commerce, rights and privileges of other Powers.

ARTICLE II

The Chinese Government agree to permit Japanese steamship-owners to erect, at their own expense, appliances for hauling through the rapids of that part of the Yang-tze-kiang between Ichang and Chungking. But as the interests of the population of the provinces of Szechuen, Hunan and Hupeh are involved, it is therefore necessary that the approval of the Imperial Maritime Customs be obtained before such appliances may be so erected.

These appliances, which shall be at the disposal of all vessels both steamers and junks, shall not obstruct the waterway nor interfere with the free passage of junks or of persons on the banks of the river. Such appliances shall be subject to special regulations to be drawn up by the Imperial Maritime Customs.

ARTICLE III

The Chinese Government agree that any Japanese steamer capable of navigating the inland waterways, upon reporting at the Imperial Maritime Customs, may proceed for the purpose of trade from a treaty port to places inland, so reported, on complying with the Original and Supplementary Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland.

ARTICLE IV

In case Chinese subjects conjointly with Japanese subjects organize a partnership or company for a legitimate purpose, they shall equitably share the profits and losses with all the members according to the terms of the agreement or memorandum and articles of association and the regulations framed thereunder, and they shall be liable to the fulfilment of the obligations imposed by the said agreement or memorandum and articles of association and the regulations framed thereunder as accepted by them and as interpreted by Japanese Courts. Should they fail to fulfil the obligations so imposed and legal action be taken against them in consequence, Chinese Courts shall at once enforce fulfilment of such obligations.

It is understood that in case Japanese subjects conjointly with Chinese subjects organize a partnership or company, they shall also equitably share the profits and losses with all the members according to the terms of the agreement or memorandum and articles of association and the regulations framed thereunder. Should such Japanese subjects fail to fulfil any of the obligations imposed by the said agreement or memorandum and articles of association or by the regulations framed thereunder, Japanese Courts shall in like manner at once enforce fulfilment of such obligations by them.

ARTICLE V

The Chinese Government agree to make and faithfully enforce such regulations as are necessary for preventing Chinese subjects from infringing registered trade-marks held by Japanese subjects.

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The Chinese Government likewise agree to make such regulations as are necessary for affording protection to registered copyrights held by Japanese subjects in the books, pamphlets, maps and charts written in the Chinese language and specially prepared for the use of Chinese people.

It is further agreed that the Chinese Government shall establish registration offices where foreign trade-marks and copyrights, upon application for the protection of the Chinese Government, shall be registered in accordance with the provisions of the regulations to be hereafter framed by the Chinese Government for the purpose of protecting trade-marks and copy-rights.

It is understood that Chinese trade marks and copy-rights properly registered according to the provisions of the laws and regulations of Japan will receive similar protection against infringement in Japan.

This Article shall not be held to protect against due process of law any Japanese or Chinese subject who may be the author, proprietor or seller of any publication calculated to injure the well-being of China.

ARTICLE VI

China agrees to establish itself, as soon as possible, a system of uniform national coinage and provide for a uniform national currency which shall be freely used as legal tender in payment of all duties, taxes and other obligations by Japanese subjects as well as by Chinese subjects in the Chinese Empire. It is understood, however, that all Customs duties shall continue to be calculated and paid on the basis of the Haikwan tael.

ARTICLE VII

As the weights and measures used by the mercantile and other classes for general and commercial purposes in the different provinces of China vary and do not accord with the standards fixed by the Imperial Government Boards, thus resulting in detriment to the trade of Chinese and foreigners, the Governor-General and Governors of all the provinces, after careful inquiry into existing conditions, shall consult together and fix upon uniform standards which, after a Memorial to the Throne for sanction, shall be adopted and used in all transactions by officials and people throughout all the Empire. These standards shall be first used in the places opened to foreign trade and gradually extended to inland places. Any differences resulting from divergence between the new weights and measures and those now in vogue shall be equitably settled, whether, by way of increase or decrease according to the amount of such difference.

ARTICLE VIII

The Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland of the fifth moon of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü and the Supplementary Rules of the seventh moon of the same year having been found in some respects inconvenient in working, the Chinese Government hereby agree to amend them and to annex such new Rules to this Treaty.

These Rules shall remain in force until altered by mutual consent.

ARTICLE IX

The provisions of all treaties and engagements now subsisting between Japan and China, in so far as they are not modified or repealed by this Act, are hereby confirmed; and it is hereby expressly stipulated in addition that jects, Commerce, Navigation, Shipping, Industries and Property of all kinds shall be allowed free and full participation in all privileges, immunities and advantages which have been or may the Japanese Government, Officers, Subhereafter be granted by His Majesty the Emperor of China or by the Chinese Government or by the Provincial or Local Administrations of China to the Government, Officers, Subjects, Commerce, Navigation, Shipping, Industries or Property of any other nation.

The Japanese Government will do its utmost to secure to Chinese Officers and Subjects resident in Japan the most favourable treatment compatible with the laws and regulations of the Empire.

ARTICLE X

The High Contracting Parties hereto agree that, in case of and after the complete withdrawal of the foreign troops stationed in the province of

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Chihli and of the Legation guards, a place of international residence and trade in Peking will be forthwith opened by China itself. The detailed regulations relating thereto shall be settled in due time after consultation.

The Chinese Government agree to open to foreign trade, within six months from the exchange of the Ratifications of this Treaty, Ch'angshafu in the province of Hunan on the same footing as the ports already opened to foreign trade. Foreigners residing in this open port are to observe the Municipal and Police Regulations on the same footing as Chinese residents, and they are not to be entitled to establish a municipality and Police of their own within the limits of this treaty port, except with the consent of the Chinese authorities.

The Chinese Government agree that, upon the exchange of the Ratifications of this Treaty, Mukden and Tatungkow, both in the province of Shengking, will be opened by China itself as places of international residence and trade. The selection of suitable localities to be set apart for international use and occupation and the regulations for these places set apart for foreign residence and trade shall be agreed upon by the Governments of Japan and China after consultation together.

ARTICLE XI

The Government of China having expressed a strong desire to reform its judicial system and to bring it into accord with that of Japan and Western nations, Japan agrees to give every assistance to such reform, and will also be prepared to relinquish its extraterritorial rights when satisfied that the state of the Chinese laws, the arrangements for their administration and other considerations warrant it in so doing.

ARTICLE XII

The present Treaty is signed in the Japanese, Chinese and English languages. In order, however, to prevent future discussions, the Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have agreed that in case of any divergence in the interpretation between the Japanese and Chinese Texts of the Treaty, the difference shall be settled by reference to the English Text.

ANNEX 1

INLAND WATERS STEAM NAVIGATION

(ADDITIONAL RULES)

Shanghai, October, 1903.

1. Japanese steamship-owners are at liberty to lease warehouses and jetties on the banks of waterways from Chinese subjects for a term not exceeding twenty-five years, with option of renewal on terms to be mutually arranged. In cases where Japanese merchants are unable to secure warehouses and jetties from Chinese subjects on satisfactory terms, the local officials, after consultation with the Governor or Governor-General or Minister of Commerce, shall arrange to provide these on renewable lease, as above mentioned, at current equitable rates.

2. Jetties shall only be erected in such positions that they will not obstruct the inland waterway or interfere with navigation, and with the sanction of the nearest Commissioner of Customs; such sanction, however, shall not be arbitrarily withheld.

3. Japanese merchants shall pay taxes and contributions on these warehouses and jetties on the same footing as Chinese proprietors of similar properties in the neighbourhood. Japanese merchants may only employ Chinese agents and staff to reside in warehouses so leased at places touched at by steamers engaged in inland traffic to carry on their business; but Japanese merchants may visit these places from time to time to look after their affairs. The existing rights of Chinese jurisdiction over Chinese subject shall not by reason of this clause be diminished or interfered with in any way.

4. Steam vessels navigating the inland waterways of China shall be responsible for loss caused to riparian proprietors by damage which they may do to the banks or works on them, and for the loss which may be caused by such damage.

In the event of China desiring to prohibit the use of some particular shallow waterway by launches, because there is reason to fear that the use

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of it by them would be likely to injure the banks and cause damage to the adjoining country, the Japanese Authorities, when appealed to, shall, if satisfied of the validity of the objection, prohibit the use of that waterway by Japanese launches, provided that Chinese launches are also prohibited from using it.

Both Foreign and Chinese launches are prohibited from crossing dams and weirs at present in existence on inland waterways where they are likely to cause injury to such works, which would be detrimental to the water service of the local people.

5. The main object of the Japanese Government in desiring to see the inland waterways of China opened to steam navigation being to afford facilities for the rapid transport of both foreign and native merchandise, they undertake to offer no impediment to the transfer to a Chinese company and the Chinese flag of any Japanese steamer which may now or hereafter be employed on the inland waters of China, should the owner be willing to make the transfer.

In the event of a Chinese company registered under Chinese law being formed to run steamers on the inland waters of China, the fact of Japanese subjects holding shares in such a company shall not entitle the steamers to fly the Japanese flag.

6. Registered steamers and their tows are forbidden, just as junks have always been forbidden, to carry contraband goods. Infraction of this rule will entail the penalties prescribed in the treaties for such an offence, and cancellation of the Inland Waters Navigation Certificate carried by the vessels, which will be prohibited from thereafter plying on inland waters.

7. As it is desirable that the people living inland should be disturbed as little as possible by the advent of steam vessels to which they are not accustomed, inland waters not hitherto frequented by steamers shall be opened as gradually as may be convenient to merchants and only as the owners of steamers may see prospect of remunerative trade.

In cases where it is intended to run steam vessels on waterways on which such vessels have not hitherto run, intimation shall be made to the Commissioner of Customs at the nearest open port, who shall report the matter to the Ministers of Commerce. The latter, in conjunction with the Governor-General or Governor of the province, after careful consideration of all the circumstances of the case, shall at once give their approval.

8. A registered steamer may ply within the waters of a port, or from one open port or ports to another open port or ports, or from one open port or ports to places inland, and thence back to such port or ports. She may, on making due report to the Customs, land or ship passengers or cargo at any recognized places of trade passed in the course of the voyage; but may not ply between inland places exclusively except with the consent of the Chinese Government.

9. Any cargo and passenger boats may be towed by steamers. The helmsman and crew of any boat towed shall be Chinese. All boats, irrespective of ownership, must be registered before they can proceed inland.

10. The above Rules are supplementary to the Regulations published in the fifth and seventh moons of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü, which remain in full force and effect in so far as they are not modified by the Rules now agreed upon.

The present Rules and the Regulations of the fifth and seventh moons of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü may hereafter be modified, as circumstances require, by mutual consent.

ANNEXES 2 AND 3

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMMISSIONERS FOR TREATY REVISION REGARDING THE INLAND WATERS NAVIGATION OF THE JAPANESE STEAMERS

FROM JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS TO CHINESE COMMISSIONERS

October 8, 1903

Gentlemen,

According to Article III of the present Treaty the Chinese Government agree that any Japanese steamer capable of

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navigating Inland Waterways, upon reporting at the Imperial Maritime Customs, may proceed for the purpose of trade from a treaty port to places inland, so reported, on complying with the Original and Supplementary Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland.

It is understood that all classes of Japanese steamers, whatever their size, provided they are capable of navigating the Inland Waterways, may on complying with the Regulations receive an Inland Waters Certificate and carry on trade with inland places, and the Chinese Government will in no case raise difficulties and stop such steamers from plying to and from inland places.

We have the honour, in order to prevent future misunderstandings, to address this despatch to Your Excellencies and to request that instructions be sent to the Inspector General of Maritime Customs to act in accordance with this understanding. We have further the honour to request a reply from Your Excellencies.

We have the honour to be, etc.

FROM CHINESE COMMISSIONERS TO JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, August 29, 1903
(Chinese Calendar)

Gentlemen,

We have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch of this date, written with a view to preventing future misunderstandings, to the effect that, in accordance with the provisions of Article III of the present Treaty, all classes of Japanese steamers, whatever their size, provided they are capable of navigating the Inland Waterways, may on complying with the Regulations receive an Inland Waters Certificate and ply to and from inland places, and that the Chinese Government will in no case raise difficulties and stop them.

During the negotiations of this Article, we received a list from Your Excellencies of the Japanese steamers viz., Sanyo Maru, Setagawa Maru, Hiuga Maru, Urato Maru, Neisei Maru, Heian Maru, Taiko Maru, Yoshino Maru, Meiko Maru, Fukuju Maru, Hijikawa Maru, Nagata Maru, Kyodo Maru, Horai Maru, Kwanko Maru, Keiko Maru, Kinriu Maru, Zensho Maru and Kohei Maru, ranging from one hundred and twenty-one tons to four hundred and ten tons register—plying from Chefoo to inland places in Manchuria, under Inland Waters Certificate and in accordance with the Regulations for Steam Navigation Inland, which vessels have not been prevented from doing so on account of their class.

At that time we instructed the Deputy Inspector General of Customs to make inquiries into the records of the Custom Houses, and he reported that the circumstances were in accordance with Your Excellencies' statement.

In consequence of the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch we shall communicate with the Wai-wu Pu and request that instructions be sent to the Inspector General of Customs to take these circumstances into consideration and to act accordingly, and we have the honour to write this despatch for purposes of record.

We have the honour to be, etc.

ANNEXES 4 AND 5

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMMISSIONERS FOR TREATY REVISION REGARDING THE APPOINTMENT OF AN OFFICER FOR COLLECTING DUES AND DUTIES PROVIDED IN NO. 9 OF THE SUPPLEMENTARY RULES FOR STEAM NAVIGATION INLAND

FROM JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS TO CHINESE COMMISSIONERS

October 8, 1903

Gentlemen,

The provision contained in No. 9 of the Supplementary Rules governing steam navigation on Inland Waters published in the seventh moon of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü, regarding the appointment of an officer to collect dues and duties, not having in all cases been given effect to, we hav the honour to request that Your Excellencies' Government will again issue instructions to all provinces to give strict effect to this provision, as it is a matter of importance.

We trust that Your Excellencies will

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comply with the request contained in this despatch and that you will favour us with a reply.

We have the honour to be, etc.

FROM CHINESE COMMISSIONERS TO JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, August 18, 1903
(Chinese Calendar)

Gentlemen,

We have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch of this date to the effect that, the provision contained in No. 9 of the Supplementary Rules governing steam navigation on Inland Waters published in the seventh moon of the twenty-fourth year of Kuang-hsü, regarding the appointment of an officer to collect dues and duties, not having in all cases been given effect to, you request that instructions be again issued to all provinces to give strict effect to this provision, as it is a matter of importance.

We have noted the above and have communicated with proper authorities in order that action may be taken, and have now the honour to write this reply for Your Excellencies' information.

We have the honour to be, etc.

ANNEXES 6 AND 7

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE JAPANESE AND CHINESE COMMISSIONERS FOR TREATY REVISION REGARDING THE OPENING OF THE CITY OF PEKING

FROM CHINESE COMMISSIONERS TO JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, August 10, 1903
(Chinese Calendar)

Gentlemen,

According to the provision of Article X of this Treaty, regarding the establishment in Peking of a place of international residence and trade, it is agreed that in case of and after the complete withdrawal of the foreign troops, now guarding the Legations and Communications, a place in Peking outside the Inner City, convenient to both parties and free from objections, shall be selected and set apart as a place where merchants of all nationalities may reside and carry on trade. Within the limits of this place merchants of all nationalities shall be at liberty to lease land, build houses and warehouses, and establish places of business; but as to the leasing of houses and land belonging to Chinese private individuals, there must be willingness on the part of the owners and the terms thereof must be equitably arranged without any force or compulsion. All roads and bridges in this place will be under the jurisdiction and control of China. Foreigners residing in this place are to observe the Municipal and Police Regulations on the same footing as Chinese residents, and they are not to be entitled to establish a Municipality and Police of their own within its limits except with the consent of the Chinese authorities. When such place of international residence and trade shall have been opened and its limits properly defined, the foreigners who have been residing scattered both within and without the city walls, shall all be required to remove their residence thereto and they shall not be allowed to remain in separate places and thereby cause inconvenience in the necessary supervision by the Chinese authorities. The value of the land and buildings held by such foreigners shall be agreed upon equitably and due compensation therefore shall be paid. The period for such removal shall be determined in due time, and those who do not remove before the expiry of this period shall not be entitled to compensation.

We have considered it to be to our mutual advantage to come to the present basis of understanding in order to avoid future unnecessary negotiations, and we beg that Your Excellencies will consider and agree to it and will favour us with a reply.

We have the honour to be, etc.

FROM JAPANESE COMMISSIONERS TO CHINESE COMMISSIONERS

Shanghai, October 8, 1903

Gentlemen,

We have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellencies' despatch of this date in which you state that—

"According to the provision of Article

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X of this Treaty, regarding the establishment in Peking of a place of international residence and trade, it is agreed that in case of and after the complete withdrawal of the foreign troops, now guarding the Legations and Communications, a place in Peking outside the Inner City, convenient to both parties and free from objections, shall be selected and set apart as a place where merchants of all nationalities may reside and carry on trade. Within the limits of this place merchants of all nationalities shall be at liberty to lease land, build houses and warehouses, and establish places of business; but as to the leasing of houses and land belonging to Chinese private individuals, there must be willingness on the part of the owners and the terms thereof must be equitably arranged without any force or compulsion. All roads and bridges in this place will be under the jurisdiction and control of China. Foreigners residing in this place are to observe the Municipal and Police Regulations on the same footing as Chinese residents, and they are not to be entitled to establish a Municipality and Police of their own within its limits except with the consent of the Chinese authorities. When such place of international residence and trade shall have been opened and its limits properly defined, the foreigners who have been residing scattered both within and without the city walls, shall all be required to remove their residence thereto and they shall not be allowed to remain in separate places and thereby cause inconvenience in the necessary supervision by the Chinese authorities. The value of the land and buildings held by such foreigners shall be agreed upon equitably and due compensation therefor shall be paid. The period for such removal shall be determined in due time, and those who do not remove before the expiry of this period shall not be entitled to compensation.

"We have considered it to be to our mutual advantage to come to the present basis of understanding in order to avoid future unnecessary negotiations, and we beg that Your Excellencies will consider and agree to it and will favour us with a reply."

In reply we beg to inform you that we agree generally to all the terms contained in the despatch under acknowledgement. As to the detailed regulations, these shall in due time be considered and satisfactorily settled in accordance with Article X of this Treaty; but it is understood that such regulations shall not differ in any respect to our prejudice from those which may be agreed upon between China and other Powers. We have the honour to send Your Excellencies this communication in reply and for your information.

We have the honour to be, etc.

AGREEMENT CONCLUDED BETWEEN THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN AND THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Signed at Nanking, May 6, 1930

The Government of Japan and the National Government of the Republic of China have, through their respective representatives, agreed upon and concluded the following Articles:—

ARTICLE I

The Japanese and the Chinese Governments agree that all matters relating to rates of duty on the import and export of articles, drawbacks, transit dues and tonnage dues in the territories of Japan and the territories of China shall be regulated exclusively by the laws of Japan and of China respectively.

ARTICLE II

The Governments of Japan and of China shall reciprocally grant to each other and to the nationals of the other country, in customs duties, drawbacks and transit dues and all other similar internal charges, applied to the import and export of articles, and in tonnage dues, as well as in all matters connected therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded or to be accorded to its own nationals or to the Government and nationals of any other foreign country.

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Articles produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan or of China and imported into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, shall receive, in import duties, drawbacks and transit dues and all other similar internal charges, and in all matters connected therewith, treatment not to be accorded to the like articles produced or manufactured in any other foreign country.

Articles produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan or of China and exported to the territories of the other shall receive, in export duties, drawbacks and transit dues and all other similar internal charges, and in all matters connected therewith, treatment not less favourable than that accorded to the like articles produced or manufactured in the same territories and exported to any other foreign country.

In regard to tonnage dues and all matters connected therewith vessels of Japan and of China shall each receive in the territories of the other treatment not less favourable than that accorded or to be accorded to the vessels of any other foreign country.

ARTICLE III

The stipulations contained in the foregoing Articles as well as in the exchanged Notes annexed to the present Agreement shall be incorporated in, and form part of, a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation to be negotiated and concluded as soon as possible between the Empire of Japan and the Republic of China.

ARTICLE IV

The Japanese, Chinese and English texts of this Agreement have been carefully compared and verified; but in the event of there being any difference of meaning between them, the sense as expressed in the English text shall be held to prevail.

ARTICLE V

The present Agreement shall enter into force on the tenth day following the date of the signature thereof.

ANNEX I

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930)

Monsieur le Ministre,

With reference to the Agreement which we signed to-day I have the honour to state that it is the understanding of the Japanese Government:

1. That, beginning from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the Chinese Government will maintain: for a period of three years the rates of duty leviable under Items 1, 2 and 3 in Part I of the Schedule attached hereto, and will also maintain for a period of one year the rates of duty leviable under Item 4 in Part I of the said Schedule, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the respective periods on articles falling within such Items produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan and imported into the territories of China, subject, however, to the reservation made in the said Schedule by the Chinese Government concerning the increase of rates; and

2. That the Japanese Government will maintain for a period of three years from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the rates of duty leviable under the three Items in Part II of the Schedule attached hereto, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the said period on articles falling within such items produced or manufactured in the territories of China and imported into the territories of Japan.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to confirm the foregoing understanding.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency

Dr. Chengting T. Wang

SCHEDULE

Part I

No. of Item	Description of articles	Nos. in Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929
1	Cotton goods	1 to 10, 12 to 14, 22 to 24, 26 to 32,

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No. of Item	Description of articles	Nos. in Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929
		37, 38 40, 43, 46, 47, 51, 53 58, 59
2	Fishery and sea products	196 to 199, 202, 205, 206, 213, 216, 217, 218, 231
3	Wheat flour	289
4	Miscellaneous goods	362, 567, 568, 603 to 605 (a), 612, 647, 652 (b), 666 (b), 677 (c), 685, 706, 709 (f), 709 (g), 710, 715

The numbers which appear in Part I of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929, with the exception of the following numbers which cover only such articles as are enumerated thereunder :

652 (b)	Rubber shoes and boots, as also footgear made wholly or partly of rubber.
666 (b)	Clocks and movements assembled as a unit, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per doz.
677 (c)	Hats and caps, of felt made with other materials than beaver or hair, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.
706	Thermostatic containers and parts thereof, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.
709 (f)	Electrical machinery and parts thereof
710	Toys and games.
715	Vehicles: velocipedes (e. g., bicycles, etc.), not otheriwise enumerated, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per piece.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Part I of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the aforesaid Tariff, it being understood that, as regards the rates of duty on articles covered by the numbers not underlined, the Chinese Government reserves the right to increase the rates specified above by not more than two and a half per cent. ad valorem. In the case of specific rates of duty, the increase above provided for will be based either uniformly upon the original duty paying value by which the rates in the aforesaid Tariff were determined or uniformly upon the duty paying value which was adopted by the Tariff Valuation Commission in 1928.

The Chinese Government reserves the right to levy an excise on imported Cotton Yarn (No. 51) in addition to the Customs Import Duty.

Part II

No. of item	Description of articles	Nos. in existing Japanese Import Tariff
1	Grass cloth	299. 5, (over 48 centimetres in width excepted) C-1, a-1 to a-4, C-2, a-1 to a-4
2	Silk piece goods	303. 3, A, a, b.
3	Embroidered tissues	300 (Hand-work only)

Unless otherwise specified, the numbers which appear in Part II of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Item 1 in Part II of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force, and the rates of duty on articles mentioned in Items 2 and 3 in Part II of this Schedule shall be thirty per cent. less than those now levied under the Law relating to Import Duties on Luxuries and Similar Articles.

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930).

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day's date which reads as follows :

" With reference to the Agreement which we signed to-day I have the honour to state that it is the understanding of the Japanese Government :

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1. That, beginning from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the Chinese Government will maintain for a period of three years the rates of duty leviable under Items 1, 2 and 3 in Part I of the Schedule attached hereto, and will also maintain for a period of one year the rates of duty leviable under Item 4 in Part I of the said Schedule, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the respective periods on articles falling within such Items produced or manufactured in the territories of Japan and imported into the territories of China, subject, however, to the reservation made in the said Schedule by the Chinese Government concerning the increase of rates; and

2. That the Japanese Government will maintain for a period of three years from the date of the coming into force of the above-mentioned Agreement, the rates of duty leviable under the three Items in Part II of the Schedule attached hereto, as the maximum rates of Import Duty leviable during the said period on articles falling within such Items produced or manufactured in the territories of China and imported into the territories of Japan.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to confirm the foregoing understanding."

I have the honour to confirm, on behalf of the National Government of the Republic of China, that the foregoing understanding is correct.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc

SCHEDULE

Part I

No. of item	Description of articles	Nos. in Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929
1	Cotton goods	1 to 10, 12 to 14, 22 to 24, 26 to 32, 37, 38, 40, 43, 46, 47, 51, 53, 58, 59
2	Fishery and sea products	196 to 199, 202, 205, 206, 213, 216, 217, 218, 231
3	Wheat flour	280
4	Miscellaneous goods	302, 567, 568, 603 to 605 (a), 612, 647, 652, (b), 666 (b), 677 (c), 685, 706, 709 (f), 709 (g), 710, 715

The numbers which appear in Part I of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Chinese Customs Import Tariff of 1929, with the exception of the following numbers which cover only such articles as are enumerated thereunder:

652 (b) Rubber shoes and boots, as also footgear made wholly or partly of rubber.

666 (b) Clocks and movements assembled as a unit, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per doz.

677 (c) Hats and caps, of felt made with materials other than beaver of hair, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.

706 Thermostatic containers and parts thereof, value not over Hk. Tls. 15 per doz.

709 (f) Electrical machinery and parts thereof.

710 Toys and games.

715 Vehicles: velocipedes (e. g., bicycles etc.), not otherwise enumerated, value not over Hk. Tls. 40 per piece.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Part I of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the aforesaid Tariff, it being understood that, as regards the rates of duty on articles covered by the numbers not under-lined, the Chinese Government reserves the right to increase the rates specified above by not more than two and a half per cent. ad valorem. In the case of specific rates of duty, the increase above provided for will be based either uniformly upon the original duty paying value by which the rates in the aforesaid Tariff were determined or uniformly upon the duty paying value which was adopted by the Tariff Valuation Commission in 1928.

The Chinese Government reserves the right to levy an excise on imported Cotton Yarn (No. 51) in addition to the Customs Import Duty.

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Part II

No. of item	Description of articles	Nos. in existing Japanese Import Tariff
1	Gauze cloth	299. 5, (gauze 48 centimetres in width excepted) C-1, a-1 to a-4, C-2, a-1 to a-4.
2	Silk piece goods	303. 3, A, a, b.
3	Embroidered tissues	308 (Hand-work only)

Unless otherwise specified, the numbers which appear in Part II of this Schedule indicate the same articles as are mentioned under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force.

The rates of duty on articles mentioned in Item 1 in Part II of this Schedule shall remain the same as those stated under the corresponding numbers in the Japanese Import Tariff at present in force, and the rates of duty on articles mentioned in Items 2 and 3 in Part II of this Schedule shall be thirty per cent. less than those now levied under the Law relating to Import Duties on Luxuries and Similar Articles.

ANNEX II

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930)

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

With reference to the Agreement signed this day between China and Japan, I have the honour to request that you will be good enough to confirm, on behalf of the Japanese Government, my understanding that on the expiration of four months after the coming into force of the said Agreement, the reduced rates of the Chinese Customs Tariff heretofore leviable on articles imported or exported across the land frontiers between China and Japan will be abolished and the Customs Tariff without reduction will apply to such articles.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930)

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's Note of to-day's date which reads as follows :—

"With reference to the Agreement signed this day between China and Japan, I have the honour to request that you will be good enough to confirm, on behalf of the Japanese Government, my understanding that on the expiration of four months after the coming into force of the said Agreement, the reduced rates of the Chinese Customs Tariff heretofore leviable on articles imported or exported across the land frontiers between China and Japan will be abolished and the Customs Tariff without reduction will apply to such articles."

I have the honour to confirm, on behalf of the Japanese Government, that the above understanding is correct.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency

Dr. Chengting T. Wang, etc.

ANNEX III

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930).

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to remind Your Excellency that in the course of our negotiations regarding the Customs Tariff question, it was stated that the Chinese Government entertained the intention of abolishing as soon as possible all such taxes and charges detrimental to the promotion of trade in China as likin, native customs duties, coast-trade duty and transit dues and other like charges.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform

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me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government with a view to carrying into effect the aforesaid intention of the Chinese Government.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency
Dr. Chengting T. Wang, etc.

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930).

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day's date which reads as follows :—

"I have the honour to remind Your Excellency that in the course of our negotiations regarding the Customs Tariff question, it was stated that the Chinese Government entertained the intention of abolishing as soon as possible all such taxes and charges detrimental to the promotion of trade in China as likin, native customs duties, coast-trade duty and transit dues and other like charges.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government with a view to carrying into effect the aforesaid intention of the Chinese Government."

I have the pleasure to inform you that the Chinese Government is endeavouring to abolish as soon and as far as possible all such duties and charges as are mentioned in your Note under acknowledgement.

The Chinese Government has already issued a Mandate ordering the abolition of likin as from the 10th of October, 1930, and instructed the Minister of Finance to take all necessary measures for carrying this order into effect.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

ANNEX IV

Nanking, May 6th, 5 Showa (1930).

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that in view of the large number and amount of the unsecured and inadequately secured obligations of China due to Japanese creditors, a speedy consolidation thereof is considered highly desirable. It is suggested by my Government that for that purpose a conference of the representatives of creditors should be called by the Chinese Government at the earliest possible date.

I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government for effectuating the aforesaid consolidation.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) M. Shigemitsu.

His Excellency
Dr. Chengting T. Wang, etc.

Nanking, May 6th, 19th Year R. C. (1930).

Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day's date which reads as follows :—

"I have the honour to state that in view of the large number and amount of the unsecured and inadequately secured obligations of China due to Japanese creditors, a speedy consolidation thereof is considered highly desirable. It is suggested by my Government that for that purpose a conference of the representatives of creditors should be called by the Chinese Government at the earliest possible date.

"I shall be much obliged if Your Excellency will be good enough to inform me as to what measures have been or will be adopted by the Chinese Government for effectuating the aforesaid consolidation."

I have the pleasure to inform you that the Chinese Government has already commenced to set aside annually the sum of $5,000,000 from the Customs

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revenues for the purpose of consolidating the domestic and foreign obligations of China and that it intends to call a conference of the representatives of creditors on or before October 1st of this year at which an adequate plan for consolidation will be presented and discussed with a view to devising means (including an increase of the sum above mentioned) for effectuating the consolidation in question.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to you, Monsieur le Chargé d'Affaires, the assurance of my high consideration.

(Signed) Chengting T. Wang.

Mr. M. Shigemitsu, etc.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Signed at Washington, February 21, 1911

ARTICLE I The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other to carry on trade, wholesale and retail, to own or lease and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses and shops, to employ agents of their choice, to lease land for residential and commercial purposes, and generally to do anything incident to or necessary for trade upon the same terms as native subjects or citizens, submitting themselves to the laws and regulations there established.

They shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatever, to pay any charges or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects or citizens.

The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall receive, in the territories of the other, the most constant protection and security for their persons and property, and shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to native subjects or citizens, on their submitting themselves to the conditions imposed upon the native subjects or citizens.

They shall, however, be exempt in the territories of the other from compulsory military service either on land or sea, in the regular forces, or in the national guard, or in the militia; from all contributions imposed in lieu of personal service, and from all forced loans or military exactions or contributions.

ARTICLE II The dwellings, warehouses, manufactories and shops of the subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for purposes of residence or commerce, shall be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms prescribed by the laws, ordinances and regulations for nationals.

ARTICLE III Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, Deputy Consuls and Consular Agents in all ports, cities and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard to one of the Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls General, Consuls, Vice Consuls, Deputy Consuls and Consular Agents having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall, on condition of reciprocity, have the right to exercise the functions and to enjoy the exemptions and immunities which are or may hereafter be granted to the consular officers of the same rank of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations may in its discretion can-

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cel the same on communicating the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE IV There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects or citizens of each of the Contracting Parties, equally with the subjects or citizens of the most favored nation, shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports and rivers in the territories of the other which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, subject always to the laws of the country to which they thus come.

ARTICLE V The import duties on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, upon importation into the territories of the other, shall henceforth be regulated either by special arrangements between the two countries or by the internal legislation of each.

Neither Contracting Party shall impose any other or higher duties or charges on the exportation of any article to the territories of the other than are or may be payable on the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

Nor shall any prohibition be imposed by either country on the importation or exportation of any article from or to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the like article imported from or exported to any other country. The last provision is not, however, applicable to prohibitions or restrictions maintained or imposed as sanitary measures or for purposes of protecting animals and useful plants.

ARTICLE VI The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other exemption from all transit duties and a perfect equality of treatment with native subjects or citizens in all that relates to warehousing, bounties, facilities and drawbacks.

ARTICLE VII Limited-liability and other companies and associations, commercial, industrial, and financial, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws of either High Contracting Party and domiciled in the territories of such Party, are authorized, in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws of such other Party.

The foregoing stipulation has no bearing upon the question whether a company or association organized in one of the two countries will or will not be permitted to transact its business or industry in the other, this permission remaining always subject to the laws and regulations enacted or established in the respective countries or in any part thereof.

ARTICLE VIII All articles which are or may be legally imported into the ports of either High Contracting Party from foreign countries in national vessels may likewise be imported into those in vessels of the other Contracting Party, without being liable to any other or higher duties or charges of whatever denomination than if such articles were imported in national vessels. Such reciprocal equality of treatment shall take effect without distinction, whether such articles come directly from the place of origin or from any other foreign place.

In the same manner, there shall be perfect equality of treatment in regard to exportation, so that the same export duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, in the territories of each of the Contracting Parties on the exportation of any article which is or may be legally exported therefrom, whether such exportation shall take place in Japanese vessels or in vessels of the United States, and whatever may be the place of destination, whether a port of the other Party or of any third Power.

ARTICLE IX In all that the stationing, loading and unloading of vessels in the ports of the territories of the High Contracting Parties, no privileges shall be granted by either Party to national vessels which are not equally, in like cases, granted to the vessels of the other country; the intention of the Contracting Parties being that in these respects the respective vessels shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ARTICLE X Merchant vessels navigating under the flag of Japan or that

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of the United States and carrying the papers required by their national laws to prove their nationality shall in the United States and in Japan be deemed to be vessels of Japan or of the United States, respectively.

ARTICLE XI No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties of whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations or establishments of any kind shall be imposed in the ports of the territories of either country upon the vessels of the other which shall not equally, under the same conditions, be imposed on national vessels in general, or on vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply reciprocally to the respective vessels from whatever place they may arrive and whatever may be their place of destination.

ARTICLE XII Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties, whether belonging to the State or subsidized by it for the purpose, shall enjoy, in the ports of the territories of the other, the same facilities, privileges and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XIII The coasting trade of the High Contracting Parties is excepted from the provisions of the present Treaty and shall be regulated according to the laws of Japan and the United States, respectively. It is, however, understood that the subjects or citizens of either Contracting Party shall enjoy in this respect most-favoured-nation treatment in the territories of the other.

A vessel of one of the Contracting Parties, laden in a foreign country with cargo destined for two or more ports of entry in the territories of the other, may discharge a portion of her cargo at one of the said ports, and, continuing her voyage to the other port or ports of destination, there discharge the remainder of her cargo, subject always to the laws, tariffs and customs regulations of the country of destination; and, in like manner and under the same reservation, the vessels of one of the Contracting Parties shall be permitted to load at several ports of the other for the same outward voyages.

ARTICLE XIV Except as otherwise expressly provided in this Treaty, the High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce and navigation, any privilege, favour or immunity which either Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the subjects or citizens of any other State shall be extended to the subjects or citizens of the other Contracting Party gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other State shall have been gratuitous, and on the same or equivalent conditions, if the concession shall have been conditional.

ARTICLE XV The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territories of the other the same protection as native subjects or citizens in regard to patents, trade-marks and designs, upon fulfillment of the formalities prescribed by law.

ARTICLE XVI The present Treaty shall, from the date on which it enters into operation, supersede the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation dated the 22nd day of November, 1894; and from the same date the last-named Treaty shall cease to be binding.

ARTICLE XVII The present Treaty shall enter into operation on the 17th of July, 1911, and shall remain in force twelve years or until the expiration of six months from the date on which either of the Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the Treaty.

In case neither of the Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other six months before the expiration of the said period of twelve years of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of six months from the date on which either Party shall have given such notice.

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TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN JAPAN AND GREAT BRITAIN

Signed at London, April 3, 1911

ARTICLE I The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have full liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, and, conforming themselves to the laws of the country—

1. Shall, in all that relates to travel and residence, be placed in all respects on the same footing as native subjects.

2. They shall have the right, equally with native subjects, to carry on their commerce and manufacture, and to trade in all kinds of merchandise of lawful commerce, either in person or by agents, singly or in partnerships with foreign or native subjects.

3. They shall in all that relates to the pursuit of their industries, callings, professions, and educational studies be placed in all respects on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

4. They shall be permitted to own or hire and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses, shops, and premises which may be necessary for them, and to lease land for residential, commercial, industrial, and other lawful purposes, in the same manner as native subjects.

5. They shall, on condition of reciprocity, be at full liberty to acquire and possess every description of property, movable or immovable, which the laws of the country permit or shall permit the subjects or citizens of any other foreign country to acquire and possess, subject always to the conditions and limitations prescribed in such laws. They may dispose of the same by sale, exchange, gift, marriage, testaments, or in any other manner, under the same conditions which are or shall be established with regard to native subjects. They shall also be permitted, on compliance with the laws of the country, freely to export the proceeds of the sale of their property and their goods in general without being subjected as foreigners to other or higher duties than those to which subjects of the country would be liable under similar circumstances.

6. They shall enjoy constant and complete protection and security for their persons and property; shall have free and easy access to the Courts of Justice and other tribunals in pursuit and defence of their claims and rights; and shall have full liberty, equally with native subjects, to choose and employ lawyers and advocates to represent them before such Courts and tribunals; and generally shall have the same rights and privileges as native subjects in all that concerns the administration of justice.

7. They shall not be compelled to pay taxes, fees, charges, or contributions of any kind whatever, other or higher than those which are or may be paid by native subjects or the citizens of the most favoured nation.

8. And they shall enjoy a perfect equality of treatment with native subjects in all that relates to facilities for warehousing under bond, bounties, and drawbacks.

ARTICLE II The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other shall be exempted from all compulsory military services, whether in the army, navy, national guard, or militia; and from all forced loans and military requisitions or contributions unless imposed on them equally with native subjects as owners, lessees, or occupiers of immovable property.

In the above respects the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall not be accorded in the territories of the other less favourable treatment than that which is or may be accorded to subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE III The dwellings, warehouses, manufactories, and shops of the subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, and all premises appertaining thereto used for lawful purposes, shall

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be respected. It shall not be allowable to proceed to make a domiciliary visit to, or a search of, any such buildings and premises, or to examine or inspect books, papers, or accounts, except under the conditions and with the forms presented by the laws for native subjects.

ARTICLE IV Each of the High Contracting Parties may appoint Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents in all the ports, cities, and places of the other, except in those where it may not be convenient to recognize such officers. This exception, however, shall not be made in regard to one of the High Contracting Parties without being made likewise in regard to all other Powers.

Such Consuls-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls, and Consular Agents, having received exequaturs or other sufficient authorizations from the Government of the country to which they are appointed, shall have the right to exercise their functions, and to enjoy the privileges, exemptions, and immunities which are or may be granted to the Consular officers of the most favoured nation. The Government issuing exequaturs or other authorizations has the right in its discretion to cancel the same on explaining the reasons for which it thought proper to do so.

ARTICLE V In case of the death of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties in the territories of the other, without leaving at the place of his decease any person entitled by the laws of his country to take charge of and administer the estate, the competent Consular officer of the State to which the deceased belonged shall, upon fulfilment of the necessary formalities, be empowered to take custody of and administer the estate in the manner and under the limitations prescribed by the law of the country in which the property of the deceased is situated.

The foregoing provision shall also apply in case of a subject of one of the High Contracting Parties dying outside the territories of the other, but possessing property therein, without leaving any person there entitled to take charge of and administer the estate.

It is understood that in all that concerns the administration of the estates of deceased persons, any right, privilege, favour, or immunity which either of the High Contracting Parties has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the Consular officers of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the Consular officers of the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE VI There shall be between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties reciprocal freedom of commerce and navigation. The subjects of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have liberty freely to come with their ships and cargoes to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories of the other, which are or may be opened to foreign commerce, and conforming themselves to the laws of the country to which they thus come, shall enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions in matters of commerce and navigation as are or may be enjoyed by native subjects.

ARTICLE VII Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one High Contracting Party, upon importation into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, shall enjoy the lowest rates of customs duty applicable to similar articles of any other foreign origin.

No prohibition or restriction shall be maintained or imposed on the importation of any article, the produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties, into the territories of the other, from whatever place arriving, which shall not equally extend to the importation of the like articles, being the produce or manufacture of any other foreign country. This provision is not applicable to the sanitary or other prohibitions occasioned by the necessity of securing the safety of persons, or of cattle, or of plants useful to agriculture.

ARTICLE VIII The articles, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, enumerated in Part 1 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall not, on importation into Japan, be subjected to higher customs duties than those specified in the Schedule.

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The articles, the produce or manufacture of Japan, enumerated in Part 2 of the Schedule annexed to this Treaty, shall be free of duty on importation into the United Kingdom.

Provided that if at any time after the expiration of one year from the date this Treaty takes effect either of the High Contracting Parties desires to make a modification in the Schedule it may notify its desire to the other High Contracting Party, and thereupon negotiations for the purpose shall be entered into forthwith. If the negotiations are not brought to a satisfactory conclusion within six months from the date of notification, the High Contracting Party which gave the notification may, within one month, give six months' notice to abrogate the present Article, and on the expiration of such notice the present Article shall cease to have effect, without prejudice to the other stipulations of this Treaty.

ARTICLE IX Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, exported to the territories of the other, shall not be subjected on export to other or higher charges than those paid on the like articles exported to any other foreign country. Nor shall any prohibition or restriction be imposed on the exportation of any article from the territories of either of the two High Contracting Parties to the territories of the other which shall not equally extend to the exportation of the like article to any other foreign country.

ARTICLE X Articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of one of the High Contracting Parties, passing in transit through the territories of the other, in conformity with the laws of the country, shall be reciprocally free from all transit duties, whether they pass direct, or whether during transit they are unloaded, warehoused, and reloaded.

ARTICLE XI No internal duties levied for the benefit of the State, local authorities, or corporations which affect, or may affect, the production, manufacture, or consumption of any article in the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties shall for any reason be a higher or more burdensome charge on articles, the produce or manufacture of the territories of the other, than on similar articles of native origin.

The produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the High Contracting Parties imported into the territories of the other, and intended for warehousing or transit, shall not be subjected to any internal duty.

ARTICLE XII Merchants and manufacturers, subjects of one of the High Contracting Parties, as well as merchants and manufacturers domiciled and exercising their commerce and industries in the territories of such party, may, in the territories of the other, either personally or by means of commercial travellers, make purchases or collect orders, with or without samples, and such merchants, manufacturers, and their commercial travellers, while so making purchases and collecting orders, shall, in the matter of taxation and facilities, enjoy the most-favoured-nation treatment.

Articles imported as samples for the purpose above mentioned shall, in each country, be temporarily admitted free of duty on compliance with the Customs regulations and formalities established to assure their re-exportation or the payment of the prescribed customs duties if not re-exported within the period allowed by law. But the foregoing privilege shall not extend to articles which, owing to their quantity or value, cannot be considered as samples, or which owing to their nature, could not be identified upon re-exportation. The determination of the question of the qualification of samples for duty-free admission rests in all cases exclusively with the competent authorities of the place where the importation is effected.

ARTICLE XIII The marks, stamps, or seals placed upon the samples mentioned in the preceding Article by the Customs authorities of one country at the time of exportation, and the officially attested list of such samples containing a full description thereof issued by them, shall be reciprocally accepted by the Customs officials of the other as establishing their character so far as may be necessary to establish that the samples produced are those enumerated in the list. The Customs authorities

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of either country may, however, affix a supplementary mark to such samples in special cases where they may think this precaution necessary.

ARTICLE XIV The Chambers of Commerce, as well as such other Trade Associations and other recognized Commercial Associations in the territories of the High Contracting Parties as may be authorized in this behalf, shall be mutually accepted as competent authorities for issuing any certificates that may be required for commercial travellers.

ARTICLE XV Limited liability and other companies and associations, commercial, industrial, and financial, already or hereafter to be organized in accordance with the laws of either High Contracting Party, and registered in the territories of such Party, are authorized, in the territories of the other, to exercise their rights and appear in the Courts either as plaintiffs or defendants, subject to the laws of such other Party.

ARTICLE XVI Each of the High Contracting Parties shall permit the importation or exportation of all merchandise which may be legally imported or exported, and also the carriage of passengers from or to their respective territories, upon the vessels of the other; and such vessels, their cargoes and passengers shall enjoy the same privileges as, and shall not be subjected to any other or higher duties or charges than, national vessels and their cargoes and passengers.

ARTICLE XVII In all that regards the stationing, loading, and unloading of vessels in the ports, docks, roadsteads, and harbours of the High Contracting Parties, no privileges or facilities shall be granted by either Party to national vessels which are not equally, in like cases, granted to the vessels of the other country; the intention of the High Contracting Parties being that in these respects also the vessels of the two countries shall be treated on the footing of perfect equality.

ARTICLE XVIII All vessels which according to Japanese law are to be deemed Japanese vessels, and all vessels which according to British law are to be deemed British vessels, shall, for the purpose of this Treaty, be deemed Japanese and British vessels respectively.

ARTICLE XIX No duties of tonnage, harbour, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other analogous duties or charges of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of Government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations, or establishments of any kind, shall be imposed in the ports of either country upon the vessels of the other which shall not equally, under the same conditions, be imposed in like cases on national vessels in general, or vessels of the most favoured nation. Such equality of treatment shall apply to the vessels of either country from whatever place they may arrive and whatever may be their destination.

ARTICLE XX Vessels charged with performance of regular scheduled postal service of one of the High Contracting Parties shall enjoy in the territorial waters of the other the same special facilities, privileges, and immunities as are granted to like vessels of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXI The coasting trade of the High Contracting Parties is excepted from the provisions of the present Treaty, and shall be regulated according to the laws of Japan and the United Kingdom respectively. It is, however, understood that the subjects and vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy in this respect most-favoured-nation treatment in the territories of the other.

Japanese and British vessels may, nevertheless, proceed from one port to another, either for the purpose of landing the whole or part of their passengers or cargoes brought from abroad, or of taking on board the whole or part of their passengers or cargoes for a foreign destination.

It is also understood that, in the event of the coasting trade of either country being exclusively reserved to national vessels, the vessels of the other country, if engaged in trade to or from places not within the limits of the coasting trade so reserved, shall not be prohibited from the carriage between two ports of the former country of passengers holding through tickets, or mer-

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chandise consigned on through bills of lading to or from places not within the above-mentioned limits, and while engaged in such carriage these vessels and their cargoes shall enjoy the full privileges of this Treaty.

ARTICLE XXII If any seaman should desert from any ship belonging to either of the High Contracting Parties in the territorial waters of the other, the local authorities shall, within the limits of law, be bound to give every assistance in their power for the recovery of such deserter, on application to that effect being made to them by the competent Consular officer of the country to which the ship of the deserter may belong, accompanied by an assurance that all expenses connected therewith will be repaid.

It is understood that this stipulation shall not apply to the subjects of the country where the desertion takes place.

ARTICLE XXIII Any vessel of either of the High Contracting Parties which may be compelled, by stress of weather or by accident, to take shelter in a port of the other shall be at liberty to refit therein, to procure all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any dues other than such as would be payable in the like case by a national vessel. In case, however, the master of a merchant-vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray the expenses, he shall be bound to conform to the Regulations and Tariffs of the place to which he may have come.

If any vessel of one of the High Contracting Parties should run aground or be wrecked upon the coasts of the other, such vessel, and all parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereunto, and all goods and merchandise saved therefrom, including any which may have been cast into the sea, or the proceeds thereof, if sold, as well as all papers found on board such stranded or wrecked vessel, shall be given up to the owners or their agents when claimed by them. If there are no such owners or agents on the spot, then the same shall be delivered to the Japanese or British Consular officer in whose district the wreck or stranding may have taken place upon being claimed by him within the period fixed by the laws of the country, and such Consular officer, owners, or agents shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the salvage or other expenses which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck or stranding of a national vessel.

The High Contracting Parties agree, moreover, that merchandise saved shall not be subjected to the payment of any customs duty unless cleared for internal consumption.

In the case either of a vessel being driven in by stress of weather, run aground, or wrecked, the respective Consular officers shall, if the owner or master or other agent of the owner is not present, or is present and requires it, be authorized to interpose in order to afford the necessary assistance to their fellow-country-men.

ARTICLE XXIV The High Contracting Parties agree that, in all that concerns commerce, navigation, and industry, any favour, privilege, or immunity which either High Contracting Party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant, to the ships, subjects, or citizens of any other foreign State shall be extended immediately and unconditionally to the ships or subjects of the other High Contracting Party, it being their intention that the commerce, navigation, and industry of each country shall be placed in all respects on the footing of the most favoured nation.

ARTICLE XXV The stipulations of this Treaty do not apply to tariff concessions granted by either of the High Contracting Parties to contiguous States solely to facilitate frontier traffic within a limited zone on each side of the frontier, or to the treatment accorded to the produce of the national fisheries of the High Contracting Parties, or to special tariff favours granted by Japan in regard to fish and other aquatic products taken in the foreign waters in the vicinity of Japan.

ARTICLE XXVI The stipulations of the present Treaty shall not be applicable to any of His Britannic Majesty's Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, or Protectorates, beyond the Seas, unless notice of adhesion shall have been given on behalf of any such Dominion, Colony,

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Possession, or Protectrate by His Britannic Majesty's Representative at Tokio before the expiration of two years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XXVII The present Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible. It shall enter into operation on the 17th July, 1911, and remain in force until the 16th July, 1923. In case neither of the High Contracting Parties shall have given notice to the other twelve months before the expiration of the said period, of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue operative until the expiration of one year from the date on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it.

As regards the British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates to which the present Treaty may have been made applicable in virtue of Article 26, however, either of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to terminate it separately at any time on given twelve months' notice to that effect. It is undesrtood that the stipulations of the present and of the preceding Article referring to British Dominions, Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates apply also to the island of Cyprus.

IMPERIAL ORDINANCE NO. 208, WHICH BECAME APPLICABLE TO CANADA, JULY 20, 1935

ARTICLE I An import duty of 50 per cent. *ad valorem*, in addition to the import duties enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, shall, in accordance with the provisions of Article I of Law No. 45, 1934, and for the duration of one year from the date of coming into force of the present Ordinance, be imposed on articles produced or manufactured in countries with which the trade balance of Japan in 1934 was in excess in imports and which, at the time of coming into force of the present Ordinance, employ, in respect of goods produced or manufactured in Japan, arbitrary standards of value for the assessments of import duties and impose on such goods special taxes or duties in addition to ordinary imports duties. The same shall apply to articles manufactured at bonded factories with the aforesaid articles as material.

The articles mentioned in the preceding Paragraph are restricted to those of the articles enumerated in the Import Tariff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, which are set forth in the List appended to the present Ordinance.

The countries referred to in the first Paragraph hereof shall be proclaimed by the competent Minister of State.

ARTICLE II Any person who imports any of those of the articles enumerated in the Import Tarriff annexed to the Customs Tariff Law, which are set forth in the List appended to the present Ordinance, shall attach a Certificate of Origin to the Import Declaration; except when such article is mail matter or when the cost price of the same does not exceed ¥100.

The Certificate of Origin above referred to shall designate the marks, numbers, names, number and quantity of the article to be imported and also the locality where it was produced or manufactured, and shall be attested by the Imperial Consulate or, if it does not exist, by the Customs House, other Governmental or public office or the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, existing in the place where the said article was produced, manufactured, purchased or shipped; unless otherwise provided by treaty, in which case such treaty provisions shall prevail.

ARTICLE III The term "competent Minister of State", occurring in the present Ordinance, applies, in Chosen, to the Governor-General of Chosen, and, in Taiwan, to the Governor-General of Taiwan.

ANNEX

Import Tariff No.	Articles
16	Wheat.
22	Flours, meals or groats of grains, and starches :

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Import Tariff No.	Articles
	1. Wheat flour.
	6. Wheat starch (under "Other").
361	Pulp for paper making.
367	Packing paper and match paper, excluding tissue paper.
605	Parts of machinery, not otherwise provided for :
	11. Endless felts for paper making.
612	Wood :
	1. Cut, sawn or split, simply.
	F–1. Pine, fir, cedar, and other conifers.
	F–2. Chamaecyparis (white cedar, yellow cedar, etc.).
	F–3. Thuja (red cedar, etc.) and Tsuga (hemlock, etc).
	F–4. Abies (todomatsu, etc.), Picea (ezomatsu, spruce, etc.), Pines (benimatsu, etc.), and Larix (karamatsu, etc.).
	F–5. Other (douglas fir, etc.) :
	a. Not exceeding 60 millimetres in thickness.
	b. Not exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness.
	c. Exceeding 200 millimetres in thickness.
	d–1. Logs and cants :
	d–1. Exceeding 10 metres in length, not exceeding 30 centimetres in diameter at top end.
	d–3. Other.
	2. Other :
	E. Pine, fir, cedar, and other conifers (under "Other"), excluding Koyosan (Cunninghamia, sinensis).
647	Articles, not otherwise provided for :
	1. Gluten (under "Raw").

TRAITÉ DE PAIX ENTRE LE JAPON ET LA RUSSIE

Signé à Portsmouth, en français et anglais, le 5 septembre, 1905 (38éme année de Meiji)

ARTICLE I

Il y aura à l'avenir paix et amitié entre Leurs Majestés l'Empereur du Japon et l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, ainsi qu'entre Leurs Etats et sujets respectifs.

ARTICLE 2

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie, reconnaissant que le Japon possède en Corée des intérêts prédominants politiques, militaires et économiques, s'engage à ne point intervenir ni mettre d'obstacles aux mesures de direction, de protection et de controle que le Gouvernement Impérial du Japon pourrait considérer nécessaire de prendre en Corée.

Il est entendu que les sujets russes en Corée seront traités exactement de la même manière que les ressortissants des autres pays étrangers, à savoir qu'ils seront placés sur le même pied que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

Il est de même convenu que pour éviter toute cause de malentendu, les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'abstiendront, sur la frontière russo-coréenne, de prendre toute mesure militaire qui pourrait menacer la sécurité du territoire russe ou coréen.

ARTICLE 3

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent mutuellement :

1. A évacuer complètement et simultanément la Manchourie à l'exception du territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail de

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la presqu'île de Liaotung, conformément aux dispositions de l'Article additionnel 1 annexé à ce Traité ; et

2. À restituer entièrement et complètement à l'administration exclusive de la Chine toutes les parties de la Manchourie qui sont occupées maintenant par les troupes japonaises ou russes ou qui sont sous leur controle, à l'exception du territoire susmentionné.

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie déclare qu'il n'a point en Manchourie d'avantages territoriaux ou concessions préférentielles ou exclusives de nature à porter atteinte à la souveraineté de la Chine ou incompatibles avec le principe d'opportunité égale.

ARTICLE 4

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent réciproquement à ne mettre aucun obstacle aux mesures générales qui s'appliquent également à toutes les nations et que la Chine pourrait prendre pour le développement du commerce et de l'industrie en Manchourie.

ARTICLE 5

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie cède au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, avec le consentement du Gouvernement de Chine, le bail de Port Arthur, de Talien et des territoires et eaux territoriales adjacents, ainsi que tous les droits, privilèges et concessions se rattachant à ce bail ou en faisant partie, et il cède, de même, au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, tous les travaux et propriétés publics dans le territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail susmentionné.

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent mutuellement à obtenir du Gouvernement de Chine le consentement mentionné dans la stipulation ci-dessus.

Le Gouvernement Impérial du Japon donne, de sa part, l'assurance que les droits de propriété des sujets russes dans le territoire susmentionné seront parfaitement respectés.

ARTICLE 6

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie s'engage à céder au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon, sans compensation, avec le consentement du Gouvernement de Chine, le chemin de fer entre Tchan-Tchoun (Kouan-Tchen-Tsy) et Port Arthur et tous ses embranchements avec tous les droits, privilèges et propriétés y appartenant dans cette région, ainsi que toutes les mines de charbon dans ladite région, appartenant à ce chemin de fer ou en exploitation pour son profit.

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent mutuellement à obtenir du Gouvernement de Chine le consentement mentionné dans la stipulation ci-dessus.

ARTICLE 7

Le Japon et la Russie s'engagent à exploiter leurs chemins de fer respectifs en Manchourie exclusivement dans un but commercial et industriel, mais nullement dans un but stratégique.

Il est entendu que cette restriction ne s'applique pas aux chemins de fer dans le territoire sur lequel s'étend le bail de la presqu'île de Liaotung.

ARTICLE 8

Les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie, en vue de favoriser et de faciliter les relations et le traffic, concluront, aussitot que possible, une convention séparée pour le règlement de leurs services de raccordement de chemins de fer en Manchourie.

ARTICLE 9

Le Gouvernement Impérial de Russie cède au Gouvernement Impérial du Japon en perpétuité et en pleine souveraineté la partie sud de l'île de Sakhaline et toutes les îles qui y sont adjacentes, ainsi que tous les travaux et propriétés publics qui s'y trouvent. Le cinquantième parallèle de latitude nord est adopté comme la limite du territoire cédé. La ligne frontière exacte de ce territoire sera déterminée conformément aux dispositions de l'Article additionnel 2 annexé à ce Traité.

Le Japon et la Russie conviennent mutuellement de ne construire dans leurs possessions respectives sur l'île de Sakhaline et sur les îles qui y sont adjacentes aucune fortification ni travaux militaires semblables. De même, ils s'engagent respectivement à ne prendre aucune mesure militaire qui pourrait entraver la libre navigation des Détroits de La Pérpose et de Tartarie.

ARTICLE 10

Il est réservé aux sujets russes habitants du territoire cédé au Japon de

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vendre leurs propriétés immobilières et de se retirer dans leur pays ; mais, s'ils, préfèrent rester dans le territoire cédé, ils seront maintenus et protégés dans le plein exercice de leurs industries et droits de propriété à la condition de se soumettre aux lois et à la jurisdiction japonaises. Le Japon aura la pleine liberté de retirer le droit de résidence dans ce territoire à tous les habitants se trouvant dans l'incapacité politique ou administrative, ou de les déporter de ce territoire. Il s'engage toutefois à ce que les droits de propriété de ces habitants soient pleinement respectés.

ARTICLE 11

La Russie s'engage à s'entendre avec le Japon pour concéder aux sujets japonais des droits de pêche le long des cotes des possessions russes dans les Mers du Japon, d'Okhotsk et de Behring.

Il est convenu que l'engagement susmentionné ne portera pas atteinte aux droits déjà appartenant aux sujets russes ou étrangers dans ces régions.

ARTICLE 12

Le Traité de Commerce et de Navigation entre le Japon et la Russie ayant été annulé par la guerre, les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie s'engagent à adopter comme base de leurs relations commerciales, jusqu'à la conclusion d'un nouveau traité de commerce et de navigation sur la base du Traité qui était en vigueur antérieurement à la guerre actuelle, le système du traitement réciproque sur le pied de la nation la plus favorisée, y compris les tarifs d'importation, et d'exportation, les formalités de douane, les droits de transit et de tonnage et l'admission et le traitement des agents, des sujets et des vaisseaux d'un pays dans le territoire de l'autre.

ARTICLE 13

Aussitôt que possible aprés la mise en vigueur du présent Traité, tous les prisonniers de guerre seront réciproquement restitués. Les Gouvernements Impériaux du Japon et de Russie nommeront, chacun de son coté, un Commissaire spécial qui se chargera des prisonniers. Tous les prisonniers se trouvant entre les mains de l'un des Gouvernements seront remis au Commissaire de l'autre Gouvernement, ou à son représentant dûment autorisé, qui les recevra en tel nombre et dans tels ports convenables de l'État remettant que ce dernier aurait notifié d'avance au Commissaire de l'État recevant.

Les Gouvernements du Japon et de Russie présenteront l'un à l'autre, le plus tôt possible après que la remise des prisonniers aura été achevée, un compte documenté des dépenses directes faites respectivement par eux pour le soin et l'entretien des prisonniers depuis la date de la capture ou de la reddition jusqu'à celle de la mort ou de la remise. La Russie s'engage à rembourser au Japon, aussitot que possible aprés L'échange de ces comptes comme il est stipulé ci-dessus, la différence entre le montant réel ainsi dépensé par le Japon et le montant réel également déboursé, par la Russie.

THE CONVENTION EMBODYING BASIC RULES OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN JAPAN AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

Signed at Peking, January 20, 1925

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties agree that with the coming into force of the present Convention, diplomatic and consular relations shall be established between them.

ARTICLE II The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics agrees that the Treaty of September 5th, 1905, shall remain in full force.

It is agreed that the Treaties, Conventions and Agreements, other than the said Treaty of Portsmouth, which were concluded between Japan and Russia prior to November 7, 1917, shall be

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re-examined at a Conference to be subsequently held between the Governments of the High Contracting Parties and are liable to revision or annulment as altered circumstances may require.

ARTICLE III The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the revision of the Fishery Convention of 1907, taking into consideration such changes as may have taken place in the general conditions since the conclusion of the said Fishery Convention.

Pending the conclusion of a convention so revised, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall maintain the practices established in 1924 relating to the lease of fishery lots to Japanese subjects.

ARTICLE IV The Governments of the High Contracting Parties agree that upon the coming into force of the present Convention, they shall proceed to the conclusion of a treaty of commerce and navigation in conformity with the principles hereunder mentioned, and that pending the conclusion of such a treaty, the general intercourse between the two countries shall be regulated by those principles.

(1) The subjects or citizens of each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country: a / have liberty to enter, travel and reside in the territories of the other, and b / enjoy constant and complete protection for the safety of their lives and property.

(2) Each of the High Contracting Parties shall in accordance with the laws of the country accord in its territories to the subjects or citizens of the other, to the widest possible extent and on condition of reciprocity, the right of private ownership and the liberty to engage in commerce, navigation, industries, and other peaceful pursuits.

(3) Without prejudice to the right of each Contracting Party to regulate by its own laws the system of international trade in that country, it is understood that neither Contracting Party shall apply in discrimination against the other Party any measures of prohibition, restriction or impost which may serve to hamper the growth of the intercourse, economic or otherwise, between the two countries, it being the intention of both Parties to place the commerce, navigation and industry of each country, as far as possible, on the footing of the most favoured nation.

The Governments of the High Contracting Parties further agree that they shall enter into negotiations, from time to time as circumstances may require, for the conclusion of special arrangements relative to commerce and navigation to adjust and to promote economic relations between the two countries.

ARTICLE V The High Contracting Parties solemnly affirm their desire and intention to live in peace and amity with each other, scrupulously to respect the undoubted right of a State to order its own life within its own jurisdiction in its own way, to refrain and restrain all persons in any governmental service for them, and all organizations in receipt of any financial assistance from them, from any act overt or covert liable in any way whatever to endanger the order and security in any part of the territories of Japan or the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

It is further agreed that neither Contracting Party shall permit the presence in the territories under its jurisdiction—(a) of organizations or groups pretending to be the Government for any part of the territories of the other Party, or (b) of alien subjects or citizens who may be found to be actually carrying on political activities for such organizations or groups.

ARTICLE VI In the interest of promoting economic relations between the two countries, and taking into consideration the needs of Japan with regard to natural resources, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is willing to grant to Japanese subjects, companies and associations concessions for the exploitation of minerals, forest and other natural resources in all the territories of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

ARTICLE VII The present Convention shall be ratified.

Such ratification by each of the High Contracting Parties shall, with as little

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delay as possible, be communicated, through its diplomatic representative at Peking, to the Government of the other Party, and from the date of the letter of such communications this Convention shall come into full force.

CONVENTION DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTRE LE JAPON ET LA FRANCE

Signé à Paris, le 19 août, 1911

ARTICLE PREMIER

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté, avec leurs familles, d'entrer et de séjourner dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre. Sous la condition de se conformer aux lois du pays, ils jouiront des droits ci-après spécifiés :

1 Ils seront, en ce qui concerne le voyage et la résidence, traités sous tous rapports comme les nationaux ;

2 Ils auront, comme les nationaux, le droit de se livrer au commerce ou à l'industrie manufacturière et de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite, soit en personne, soit par des représentants, soit seuls, soit en association avec des étrangers on des nationaux ;

3 Ils seront, en ce qui concerne l'exercice de leur industrie, métier ou profession, la poursuite de leurs études ou investigations scientifiques, traités à tous égards, comme les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée ;

4 Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper les maisons, les manufactures, les magasins, les boutiques et les locaux qui peuvent leur être nécessaires et prendre à bail des terrains à l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre ;

5 Ils pourront, sous la condition de la réciprocité, librement acquérir et posséder toute espèce de propriété mobilière ou immobilière, que la loi du pays permet ou permettra d'acquérir ou de posséder aux ressortissants de tout autre pays étranger.

Ils pourront en disposer par voie de vente, échange, donation, mariage, testament, ou de toute autre manière sous les mêmes conditions qui sont ou seront établies à l'égard des nationaux eux-mêmes. Ils pourront aussi exporter librement le produit des ventes de leurs propriétés et tout ce qui leur appartient en général, sans pouvoir être soumis en tant qu'étrangers, à des droits autres ou plus élevés que ceux auxquels seraient soumis les nationaux dans les mêmes circonstances :

6 Ils jouiront d'une protection et sécurité constantes et complètes, pour leurs personnes et leurs propriétés ; ils auront un accès libre et facile auprès des cours et tribunaux de justice pour la poursuite et la défense de leurs droits, et ils seront, en outre, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, libres de choisir et d'employer des avocats, avoués et autres hommes de loi pour les représenter devant les cours et tribunaux, et d'une manière générale ils auront les mêmes droits et privilèges que les nationaux pour tout ce qui concerne l'administration de la justice ;

7 Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée de terre ou de mer, soit dans la garde nationale ou la milice, ainsi que de toutes les contributions imposées en lieu et place du service personnel. Ils seront exempts également de tous emprunts forcés et de toutes réquisitions ou contributions militaires, sauf ceux qui leur seront imposés, comme aux nationaux eux-mêmes, en leur qualité de possesseurs, locataires ou occupants de biens immeubles. Pour ce qui précède, les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes ne seront pas traités sur les territoires de l'autre moins bien que ne le sont ou ne le seront les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée ;

8 Ils ne seront contraints à subir des charges ou à payer des impôts, taxes ou contributions, de quelque nature que

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ce soit, autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés aux nationaux ou ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 2

Les habitations, magasins, manufactures et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre, ainsi que tous les locaux qui en dépendent, employés pour des buts licites, seront respectés. Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions, non plus que d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux eux-mêmes.

ARTICLE 3

Les ressortissants des Parties Contractantes jouiront de la liberté réciproque de commerce, et de navigation ; ils auront, de la même façon que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée, pleine liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre, qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur ; ils bénéficieront, en se conformant toujours aux lois du pays où ils arrivent, des mêmes droits, faveurs, libertés, immunités et exemptions en matière de commerce et de navigation, dont bénéficient ou bénéficieraient les nationaux eux-mêmes.

ARTICLE 4.

Les sociétés anonymes ou autres et les associations commerciales, industrielles et financières qui sont ou seront constituées conformément aux lois de l'une des Parties Contractantes et qui ont leur domicile dans les territoires de cette Partie, sont autorisées, dans les territoires de l'autre, en se conformant aux lois de celle-ci, à exercer leurs droits et à ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre.

ARTICLE 5

Les droits de douane perçus à l'entrée au Japon et en France sur les produits de l'autre pays ne pourront être autres ou plus élevés que ceux imposés aux produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé.

Les droits perçus à la sortie du Japon et de France sur les produits destinés à l'autre pays ne pourront également être autres ou plus élevés que ceux imposés aux mêmes produits destinés au pays le plus favorisé.

ARTICLE 6.

Les Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver nullement le commerce réciproque des deux pays par des prohibitions ou restrictions à l'importation, à l'exportation ou au transit.

Des exceptions à cette règle, en tant qu'elles seront applicables à tous les pays ou aux pays se trouvant dans les mêmes conditions, ne pourront avoir lieu que dans les cas suivants :

1 Pour les approvisionnements et munitions de guerre, dans des circonstances extraordinaires ;

2 Pour des raisons de sûreté publique ;

3 Par égard à la police sanitaire ou en vue de la protection des animaux ou des plantes utiles contre les maladies ou les insectes et parasites nuisibles ;

4 En vue de l'application aux marchandises étrangères des prohibitions ou restrictions édictées par des lois intérieures à l'égard de la production intérieure des marchandises similaires ou de la vente ou du transport à l'intérieur des marchandises similaires de la production nationale ;

5 Pour les marchandises qui sont ou seront l'objet d'un monopole d'Etat.

ARTICLE 7

Les marchandises de toute nature originaires du territoire de l'une des deux Parties Contractantes et importées sur le territoire de l'autre Partie ne pourront être assujetties à des droits d'accise, d'octroi ou de consommation perçus pour le compte de l'Etat, des communes ou corporations, supérieurs à ceux qui grèvent ou grèveraient les produits similaires de la production nationale ou, à défaut de ces produits, ceux de la nation la plus favorisée.

Les produits du sol et de l'industrie de l'un des deux pays importés dans le territoires de l'autre, et destinés à l'entreposage ou au transit, ne seront soumis à aucun droit intérieur.

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ARTICLE 8

Les importateurs de marchandises japonaises ou françaises seront réciproquement dispensés de l'obligation de produire des certificats d'origine.

Toutefois, dans le cas où un pays tiers ne serait pas lié avec l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes par la clause de la nation la plus favorisée, la production de certificats d'origine pourra être exceptionnellement exigée.

Dans ce cas, les certificats seront délivrés dans les lieux d'expédition, sièges d'un consulat, par le consul de carrière du pays dans lequel l'importation doit être faite, et, dans les autres lieux, par l'autorité douanière, et, à défaut de cette autorité, par les Chambres de commerce ou les autorités locales.

Lorsque la délivrance des certificats d'origine entraînera la perception de taxes quelconques dans l'un des pays, des taxes équivalentes pourront être établies par l'autre pays à l'occasion des certificats d'origine qu'il délivrera. Il en sera de même, le cas échéant, pour les factures consulaires.

ARTICLE 9

Les négociants et les industriels, ressortissants de l'une des Parties Contractantes, ainsi que les négociants et les industriels domiciliés et exerçant leur commerce et industrie dans les territoires de cette Partie, pourront, dans les territoires de l'autre, soit en personne, soit par des commis voyageurs, faire des achats ou recueillir des commandes, avec ou sans échantillons et modèles. Ces négociants, industriels et leurs commis voyageurs, en faisant ainsi des achats et en recueillant des commandes, jouiront, en toute manière, du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée. Toutefois dans le cas où les voyageurs de commerce japonais en France ou francais au Japon viendraient à être assujettis à un droit de patente, les voyageurs de commerce français au Japon ou japonais en France pourront être soumis à des impôts équivalents.

Les articles importés comme échantillons et modèles dans les buts susmentionnés, seront, dans chacun des deux Pays, admis temporairement en franchise de droits, en conformité des règlements et formalités de douane établis pour assurer leur réexportation ou le payment des droits de douane prescrits en cas de nonréexportation dans le délai prévu par la loi. Toutefois, ledit privilège ne s'étendra pas aux articles qui, à cause de leur quantité ou valeur, ne peuvent pas être considérés comme échantillons et modèles ou qui, à cause de leur nature, ne sauraient être identifiés lors de leur réexportation. Le droit de décider si un échantillon ou modèle est susceptible d'admission en franchise, appartient exclusivement, dans tous les cas, aux autorités douanières compétentes du lieu où l'importation a été effectuée.

Les Chambres de commerce existant sur les territoires des deux Parties Contractantes seront réciproquement reconnues comme les autorités compétentes pour délivrer tous certificats qui pourraient être requis par les voyageurs de commerce, en vue notamment d'affirmer leur identité.

ARTICLE 10

Tous les articles qui sont où pourront être légalement importés dans les ports de l'une des Parties Contractantes, par des navires nationaux, pourront de même, être importés dans ces ports par des navires de l'autre Partie Contractante, sans être soumis à aucun droit ou charge, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, autres où plus élevés que ceux auxquels les mêmes articles seraient soumis s'ils étaient importés par des navires nationaux. Cette égalité réciproque de traitement sera appliquée sans distinction, que ces articles viennent directement du lieu d'origine où de tout autre pays étranger.

Il y aura de même parfaite égalité de traitement pour l'exportation, de façon que les mêmes droits de sortie seront payés et les mêmes primes où drawbacks seront accordés, dans les territoires de chacune des Parties Contractantes, à l'exportation d'un article quelconque qui peut où pourra en être légalement exporté, que cette exportation se fasse par des navires japonais où par des navires français et quel que soit le lieu de destination, soit un port de l'autre Partie, soit un port d'une tierce Puissance.

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ARTICLE 11

En tout ce qui concerne le placement des navires, leur chargement, leur déchargement dans les eaux territoriales des Parties Contractantes, il ne sera accordé, par l'une des Parties, aux navires nationaux, aucun privilège, ni aucune facilité qui ne le soit également, en pareil cas, aux navires de l'autre Pays, la volonté des Parties Contractantes étant que, sous ces rapports, leurs bâtiments respectifs jouissent d'une parfaite égalité.

ARTICLE 12

Les navires marchands naviguant sous pavillon japonais et français et ayant à bord les documents requis par leurs lois nationales pour établir leur nationalité, seront respectivement considérés, en France et au Japon, comme navires japonais et français.

ARTICLE 13

Aucun droit de tonnage, de transit, de canal, de port, de pilotage, de phare, de quarantaine ou autres droits ou charges similaires ou analogues, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, levés-au nom ou au profit du gouvernement, de fonctionnaires publics, de particuliers, de corporations ou d'établissements quelconques, ne seront imposés dans les eaux territoriales de l'un des deux Pays sur les navires de l'autre sans qu'ils soient également imposés, dans les mêmes conditions, sur les navires nationaux en général, ou sur les navires de la nation la plus favorisée. Cette égalité de traitement sera appliquée réciproquement à leurs navires respectifs, de quelque endroit qu'ils arrivent et quel que soit le lieu de destination.

ARTICLE 14.

Les navires chargés d'un service postal régulier de l'une des Parties Contractantes, qu'ils appartiennent à l'État ou à une compagnie subventionnée par lui à cet effet, jouiront dans les eaux territoriales de l'autre, des mêmes facilités, privilèges et immunités que ceux qui sont accordés aux navires similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 15

Il est fait exception aux dispositions de la présente Convention pour le cabotage dont le régime reste soumis à la législation du Japon et de la France respectivement; il est entendu toutefois, que les Japonais en France et les Français au Japon, jouiront pour tout ce qui concerne le cabotage, des droits et privilèges qui sont ou seront accordés par cette même législation aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

Tout navire de l'une des Parties Contractantes, chargé à l'étranger d'une cargaison destinée à deux ou plusieurs ports d'entrée des territoires de l'autre, pourra décharger une partie de sa cargaison dans l'un desdits ports, et en continuant son voyage pour l'autre ou les autres ports de destination, y décharger le reste de sa cargaison, toujours en se conformant aux lois, aux tarifs et aux règlements de douane du pays de destination. De la même manière et sous la même restriction, tout navire de l'une des Parties Contractantes pourra charger dans les divers ports de l'autre, au cours du même voyage pour l'étranger.

ARTICLE 16

Les deux Hautes Parties Contractantes déclarent qu'elles sont adhérentes à la Convention d'Union de Paris du 20 mars 1883 pour la protection de la propriété industrielle; dans le cas où l'une d'entre elles cesserait d'adhérer à la Convention précitée, elles conviennent des stipulations suivantes:

Les ressortissants de chacune des Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre Partie, des mêmes droits que les nationaux eux-mêmes, pour tout ce qui concerne la protection des brevets d'invention, des marques de fabrique ou de commerce, des dessins et modèles industriels et de fabrication de toute espèce, et noms commerciaux, et des indications de provenance, et pour tout ce qui concerne la répression de la concurrence déloyale, sous réserve de l'accomplissement des formalités et des conditions imposées par la loi.

Tout produit portant une fausse indication de provenance dans laquelle un des Pays Contractants, ou un lieu situé sur les territoires de l'un d'eux, serait directement ou indirectement indiqué comme pays ou comme lieu d'origine, sera saisi à l'importation à la requête

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des autorités douanières ou ministère public où d'une partie intéresée, si la législation de chaque Pays Contractant l'admet, où bien, à défaut, sera soumis aux actions et moyens assurés en pareil cas par la loi aux nationaux.

ARTICLE 17

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes conviennent que, pour tout ce qui concerne le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation, tout privilège, faveur ou immunité quelconque, que l'une d'elles a déjà accordés ou accorderait à l'avenir au commerce, à l'industrie et à la navigation de tout autre État, seront étendus immédiatement et sans condition, au commerce, à l'industrie et à la navigation de l'autre Partie Contractante, leur intention étant que le commerce, l'industrie et la navigation de chaque pays jouissent sous tous rapports du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 18

Les stipulations de la présente Convention ne sont pas applicables :

1 Aux avantages particuliers actuellement accordés ou qui pourraient être ultérieurement accordés par l'une des Parties Contractantes à des États limitrophes pour faciliter le trafic frontière;

2 Aux faveurs spéciales résultant d'une union douanière ;

3 Aux pêches assimilées à la pêche nationale ;

4 Aux encouragements accordés ou qui pourraient être accordés à la marine marchande nationale.

ARTICLE 19

Les dispositions de la présente Convention sont applicables à l'Algérie. Elles pourront être ultérieurement étendues en tout ou partie aux colonies, possessions françaises et pays de protectorat par une déclaration concertée entre les deux gouvernments.

Il est entendu en outre que la présente Convention est applicable à toutes les colonies et possessions du Japon.

ARTICLE 20

La présente Convention sera ratifiée et l'échange des ratifications aura lieu à Tokyo ; les ratifications seront notifiées dans le plus bref délai possible aux Gouvernements du Japon et de la France par leurs Représentants respectifs ; à partir de la date de la dernière de ces deux notifications, la présente Convention entrera en vigueur et demeurera exécutoire pendant une période de dix années.

Toutefois, l'article 5 en vertu duquel les droits de douane perçus en France sur les produits d'origine japonaise et au Japon sur les produits d'origine française ne seront autres ou plus élevés que ceux perçus sur les produits similaires originaires du pays le plus favorisé, pourra être dénoncé à toute époque par chacune des deux Parties Contractantes, et dans ce cas, il cessera d'être exécutoire un an après cette dénonciation.

Au cas où douze mois avant la date d'expiration de la présente Convention aucune des deux Parties Contractantes n'aurait notifié son intention d'en faire cesser les effets, cet acte demeurera obligatoire jusqu'à l'expiration d'une année à partir du jour où l'une ou l'autre Partie Contractante l'aura dénoncé.

TRAITÉ DE COMMERCE ET DE NAVIGATION ENTER LE JAPON ET L'ALLEMAGNE

Signé à Berlin, le 24 Juin, 1911

ARTICLE 1

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté d'entrer et de séjourner en tout lieu des territoires de l'autre.

A condition de se conformer aux lois du Pays, ils jouiront des droits spécifiés ci-dessous :

1 Ils seront, pour tout ce qui concerne la résidence, les études et investigations, l'exercice de leurs métiers et professions et l'exécution de leurs entreprises industrielles et manufac-

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turières, placés, à tous égards, sur le même pied que les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée ;

2 Ils auront, comme les nationaux eux-mêmes, le droit de voyager dans toute l'étendue des territoires de l'autre et le droit de faire le trafic de tous articles de commerce licite ;

3 Ils pourront posséder ou louer et occuper des maisons, fabriques, magasins, boutiques et les locaux qui en dépendent. De même ils pourront louer des terrains à l'effet d'y résider ou de les utiliser dans un but licite commercial, industriel, manufacturier ou autre ;

4 En ce qui concerne la possession de biens mobiliers de quelque espèce que ce soit, la transmission, par succession testamentaire ou autre, des biens mobiliers de toute sorte qu'ils peuvent légalement acquérir entre vivants et en ce qui concerne le droit de disposer, de quelque manière que ce soit, des biens de toute sorte qu'ils auront acquis légalement, ils jouiront des mêmes privilèges, libertés et droits et ne seront soumis, sous ce rapport, à aucuns impôts ou charges plus élevés que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée ;

5 Ils pourront, sons la réserve de la réciprocité, acquérir et posséder toute sorte d'immeubles qui, d'après les lois du Pays, peuvent ou pourront être acquis ou possédés par les ressortissants d'une autre nation étrangère quelconque, en se conformant toujours aux conditions et restrictions prescrites par lesdites lois ;

6 Ils seront exempts de tout service militaire obligatoire, soit dans l'armée ou la marine, la garde nationale ou la milice, de même que de toutes taxes imposées en lieu et place du service personnel et de tous emprunts forcés. Ils ne pourront être assujettis à des réquisitions ou contributions militaires, quelles qu'elles soient, autrement que dans les mêmes conditions et sur le même pied que les nationaux ou les ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée ;

7 Ils ne seront contraints, sous aucun prétexte, à subir des charges on à payer des taxes autres ou plus élevées que celles qui sont ou seront imposées aux nationaux ou aux ressortissants de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 2

Les habitations, magasins, fabriques et boutiques des ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes dans les territoires de l'autre ainsi que tous les locaux qui en dépendent, seront respectés. Il ne sera point permis d'y procéder à des visites domiciliaires ou perquisitions ou d'examiner ou d'inspecter les livres, papiers ou comptes, sauf dans les conditions et formes prescrites par les lois à l'égard des nationaux.

ARTICLE 3

Il y aura entre les territoires des deux Hautes Parties Contractantes liberté réciproque de commerce et de navigation.

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes auront pleine liberté de se rendre avec leurs navires et leurs cargaisons dans les lieux, ports et rivières des territoires de l'autre qui sont ou pourront être ouverts au commerce extérieur ; ils sont, toutefois, tenus de se conformer toujours aux lois du Pays où ils arrivent.

ARTICLE 4

Les droits de douane perçus sur les articles, produits naturels ou fabriqués des territoires de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, à leur importation dans les territoires de l'autre, seront réglés, soit par des arrangements spéciaux entre les deux Pays, soit par la législation intérieure de chacun d'eux.

Aucune des Parties Contractantes n'imposera à l'exportation d'un article quelconque à destination des territoires de l'autre des droits ou charges quelconques autres ou plus élevés que ceux qui sont ou pourront être imposés à l'exportation des articles similaires à destination de tout autre pays étranger.

ARTICLE 5

Les Hautes Parties Contractantes s'engagent à n'entraver leurs relations commerciales réciproques par aucune prohibition d'importation, d'exportation ni de transit.

Des exception pourront toutefois être faites dans les cas suivants, en tant qu'elles sont appliquées à tous les autres pays on du moins à tous les pays

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qui se trouvent dans les mêmes conditions :

1 Relativement aux approvisionnements de guerre, dans des circonstances exceptionnelles ;

2 Pour des considérations affectant la sécurité publique ;

3 Pour cause de salubrité publique et en vue d'assurer la protection des animaux et des plantes utiles contre les maladies et les parasites ;

4 Dans le but d'appliquer à des marchandises étrangères des interdictions ou des restrictions établies par la législation intérieure à l'égard de la production, du placement ou du trafic de marchandises indigènes de même nature.

ARTICLE 6

Les ressortissants de chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les territoires de l'autre, d'une parfaite égalité de traitement avec les nationaux, quant à l'exemption de droits de transit et pour tout ce qui concerne le magasinage, les primes, les drawbacks ains que les facilités touchant l'importation ou l'exportation des marchandises.

ARTICLE 7

Les négociants et les industriels que, par l'exhibition d'une carte de légitimation industrielle, délivrée par les autorités de l'une des Parties Contractantes, prouvent qu'ils sont autorisés à exercer leur commerce ou industrie dans les territoires de cette Partie, pourront, dans les territoires de l'autre, soit en personne, soit par des commis voyageurs, faire des achats ou recueillir des commandes, avec ou sans échantillons. Ces négociants, industriels et leurs commis voyageurs, en faisant ainsi des achats et en recueillant des commandes, jouiront, en matière d'impositions et de facilités, du traitement de la nation la plus favorisée.

Les Parties Contractantes se donneront réciproquement connaissance des autorités chargées de délivrer les cartes de légitimation.

Les articles importés comme échantillons dans les buts mentionnés dans l'alinéa 1 seront, dans chacun des deux Pays, admis temporairement en franchise de droit, en conformité des règlements et formalités de douane, établis pour assurer leur réexportation ou le payement des droits de douane prescrits en cas de non-réexportation dans le délai prévu par la loi. Toutefois, ledit privilège ne s'étendra pas aux articles qui, à cause de leur quantité ou valeur, ne peuvent pas être considérés comme échantillons, ou qui, à cause de leur nature, ne sauraient être identifiés lors de leur réexportation. Le droit de décider si un échantillon est susceptible d'admission en franchise, appartient exclusivement dans tous les cas, aux autorités compétentes du lieu ou l'importation a été effectuée.

ARTICLE 8

Les marques de reconnaissance, estampilles ou cachets apposés au moment de l'exportation par les autorités douanières de l'une des Parties Contractantes aux échantillons mentionnés dans l'article précédent ainsi que la liste de ces échantillons qui est officiellement attestée par elles et en contient la description détaillée, seront réciproquement acceptés par les autorités douanières de l'autre pour établir leur caractère d'échantillons et leur assurer l'exemption de toute inspection, sauf en tant que cette dernière est nécessaire pour constater que les échantillons présentés sont identiques avec ceux énumérés dans la liste. Les autorités douanières de chacune des Parties Contractantes pourront toutefois apposer une marque supplémentaire aux échantillons dans les cas spéciaux où elles jugent nécessaire de prendre cette précaution.

ARTICLE 9

Les sociétés par actions (anonymes) et autres sociétés et associations commerciales, industrielles ou financières, y compris les compagnies d'assurance, domiciliées dans les territoires de l'une des Parties Contractantes et ayant l'existence légale d'après les lois qui y sont en vigueur, seront reconnues comme ayant l'existence légale dans les territoires de l'autre et autorisées à y ester en justice devant les tribunaux, soit pour intenter une action, soit pour y défendre d'après les lois de cette autre Partie.

Leur admission à l'exercice de leur industrie ou de leur commerce ainsi

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qu'à l'acquisition de biens dans les territoires de l'autre Partie se règle d'après les prescriptions qui y sont en vigueur. En tout cas, lesdites sociétés, associations et compagnies jouiront, dans ces territoires, des mêmes droits que ceux qui sont ou pourront être accordés à des sociétés, associations et compagnies similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 10

Tous les articles qui sont on pourront être légalement importés, dans les ports de l'une des Hautes Parties Contractantes, par des navires nationaux, pourront, de même, être importés dans ces ports par des navires de l'autre Partie Contractante, sans être soumis à aucuns droits ou charges, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, autres ou plus élevés que ceux auxquels les mêmes articles seraient soumis s'ils étaient importés par des navires nationaux. Cette égalité réciproque de traitement sera appliquée sans distinction, que ces articles viennent directement du lieu d'origine, ou de tout autre pays étranger.

Il y aura, de même, parfaite égalité de traitement pour l'exportation, de façon que les mêmes droits de sortie seront payés, et les mêmes primes et drawbacks seront accordés, dans les territoires de chacune des Parties Contractantes, à l'exportation d'un article quelconque qui peut ou pourra en être légalement exporté, que cette exportation se fasse par des navires japonais ou par des navires allemands et quel que soit le lieu de destination, soit un port de l'autre Partie, soit un port d'une tierce Puissance.

ARTICLE 11

En tout ce qui concerne le placement des navires, leur chargement, leur déchargement, dans les eaux territoriales des Hautes Parties Contractantes, il ne sera accordé par l'une des Parties aux navires nationaux aucun privilège ni aucune facilité qui ne le soit également, en pareils cas, aux navires de l'autre Pays, la volonté des Parties Contractantes étant que, sous ces rapports, les bâtiments respectifs soient traités sur le pied d'une parfaite égalité.

ARTICLE 12

Tous les navires qui, conformément aux lois allemandes, sont considérés comme navires allemands et tous les navires qui, conformément aux lois japonaises, sont considérés comme navires japonais seront considérés respectivement en tout ce qui concerne l'application de ce Traité comme navires allemands et japonais.

ARTICLE 13

Aucuns droits de tonnage, de transit, de canal, de port, de pilotage, de phare, de quarantaine ou autres droits ou charges similaires ou analogues, de quelque dénomination que ce soit, levés au nom ou au profit du Gouvernment, de fonctionnaires publics, de particuliers, de corporations ou d'établissements quelconques, ne seront imposés dans les eaux territoriales de l'un des deux Pays aux navires de l'autre, sans qu'ils soient également imposés, sous les mêmes conditions, aux navires nationaux en général ou aux navires de la nation la plus favorisée. Cette égalité de traitement sera appliquée réciproquement aux navires respectifs, de quelque endroit qu'ils arrivent et quel que soit le lieu de destination.

ARTICLE 14

Les navires chargés d'un service postal régulier de l'une des Haute Parties Contractantes jouiront, dans les eaux territoriales de l'autre, des mêmes facilités, privilèges et immunités que ceux qui sont accordées aux navires similaires de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 15

Les cabotage est excepté des dispositions du présent Traité et reste réservé au pavillon national. Il est toutefois entendu que, sous ce rapport, chacune des deux Parties peut réclamer pour ses navires les mêmes droits ou privilèges qui sont ou seront accordés par l'autre Partie aux navires de tout autre pays en tant qu'elle accorde aux navires de l'autre Partie les mêmes droits ou privilèges.

Ne sera pas considéré comme cabotage :

1. Le trafic des navires passant d'un port dans un autre, soit pour y débarquer des passagers ou décharger tout ou partie de leur cargaison apportés de l'étranger, soit pour y em-

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barquer des passagers ou charger tout ou partie de leur cargaison à destination étrangère,

2. Le transport, d'un port à l'autre, de passagers munis de billets directs, ou de marchandises expédiées avec connaissements directs délivrés à ou destinés pour l'étranger.

ARTICLE 16

En cas de naufrage, avaries en mer ou relâche forcée, chacune des Hautes Parties Contractantes devra donner aux navires de l'autre, qu'ils appartiennent à l'État ou à des particuliers, la même assistance et protection et les mêmes immunités que celles qui seront accordées en pareils cas aux navires nationaux. Les articles sauvés de ces vaisseaux naufragés ou avariés seront exempts de tous droits de douane, à moins qu'ils n'entrent dans la consommation intérieure, auquel cas ils seront tenus de payer les droits prescrits.

Les autorités locales devront, dès que faire se pourra, informer du naufrage ou des avaries le plus proche Consul de l'État du pavillon. Les Consuls des Pays Contractants sont autorisés à prêter l'aide nécessaire à leurs nationaux.

ARTICLE 17

Réserve faite des cas où ce Traité en dispose autrement d'une manière expresse, les Hautes Parties Contractantes conviennent qu'en tout ce qui concerne le commerce, la navigation et l'industrie toutes sortes de privilèges, faveurs ou immunités que l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes a déjà accordés ou accordera à l'avenir aux navires ou aux ressortissants de tout autre État, seront tention étant que, sauf les cas exception aux navires ou aux ressortissants de l'autre Partie Contractante, leur intention étant que, sauf les cas exceptionnels précités, le commerce, la navigation et l'industrie de chaque Pays soient placés, à tous égards, par l'autre sur le pied de la nation la plus favorisée.

ARTICLE 18

Les dispositions du présent Traité s'appliquent de même aux pays et territoires qui appartiennent à présent ou appartiendront à l'avenir au territoire douanier de l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes.

ARTICLE 19.

Le présent Traité entrera en vigueur le 17 juillet 1911 avec la Convention speciale et réciproque de Douane, signée en date de ce jour. Il restera obligatoire jusqu'au 16 juillet 1923.

Dans le cas où aucune des Parties Contractantes n'aurait notifié douze mois avant l'échéance de ce dernier terme, son intention de faire cesser les effets du Traité, celui-ci continuera à être exécutoire jusqu'à l'expiration d'une année à partir du jour où l'une ou l'autre des Parties Contractantes l'aura dénoncé.

Les Parties Contractantes se réservent cependant la faculté de dénoncer, jusqu'au 31 mars 1912, le présent Traité. Ledit Traité cessera dans ce cas ses effets le 31 décembre 1912. Il est entendu que les Parties Contractantes ne feront pas usage de la faculté mentionnée sans dénoncer simultanément la Convention de Douane citée dans l'alinéa I du présent article.

ARTICLE 20

Le présent Traité sera ratifié et les ratifications en seront echangées à Tokio, aussitôt que faire se pourra.

SUMMARY OF TRADE AGREEMENT BETWEEN JAPAN AND INDIA,

January, 1934

1. Most favoured nation treatment: In respect of customs duties, Japan and India shall reciprocally accord the most favoured nation treatment to any articles, produce or manufacture of the other country.

2. Negotiations to be held concerning modification of customs tariff: Subject to reservation by both countries of the right to make such changes in their customs tariffs as may be necessary for the protection of their own interests,

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Japan and India agree that, should any modification of customs tariffs by either country result in trade interests being adversely affected in any appreciable measure, they shall upon request of the country so affected enter into negotiations with the object of reconciling so far as possible trade interests of the two countries.

8. Measures to correct effects of exchange fluctuation: Nothing in this agreement shall be held to prohibit the imposition or the variation from time to time by the Government of India of special rates of customs duty on articles, the produce or manufacture of Japan, other or higher than those levied on similar articles produced or manufactured by any other country, at such rates as the Government of India may consider to be necessary to correct the effects of any variation of the exchange value of the yen relative to the rupee subsequent to December 31, 1933.

Imposing or varying, or on being requested by the Government of Japan to vary, such special rates of customs duty, the Government of India undertakes to give full consideration to relevant factors which tend to raise the export prices of Japanese goods, such as the purchase by Japan of raw materials in markets outside Japan and the adjustment of internal Japanese prices, and to limit such rates to what is necessary to correct the effect of the depreciation of the exchange value of the yen relative to the rupee on the duty-paid value of Japanese goods imported into India. Provided, that no charge in such rate shall be made until it has been in force for at least five weeks.

Reciprocally, the Government of Japan shall have the right of imposing or varying special rates of customs similar to those for which provision is made in paragraph 1 of this article (3), on articles, the produce or manufacture of India, under similar circumstances, and subject to conditions similar to those provided for in paragraphs 2 and 3 of this article (3). Provided, that the said right shall not accrue to the Government of Japan unless the exchange value of the rupee relative to the yen shall be depreciated below the value of .732 yen.

4. Customs duties on Japanese cotton piece-goods imported into India: Without prejudice to agreements concerning the most favoured nation treatment, and the measures to correct the effects of exchange fluctuation, customs duties to be imposed by the Government of India on Japanese cotton piece-goods should not exceed the following rates:

Duty on plain greys.....50 per cent. ad. valorem or 5.25 annas per pound.

Duty on others.....50 per cent. ad. valorem.

It is understood that the Government of India shall not impose on Japanese cotton piece-goods other than plain greys a specific duty exceeding 5.25 annas per pound subject to agreement concerning the most favoured nation treatment.

5. Importation of Japanese cotton piece-goods into India:

(a) Calculation of the quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods to be exported to India in a period of one year beginning April 1 shall be fixed in accordance with quantity of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in a period of one year beginning January 1 of the same year.

(b) It is to be noted that the period of one year for the purpose of fixing the quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods (or piece-goods year) shall be from April 1 to March 31 of the following year, while the period of one year for the purpose of calculating the quantity of Indian raw cotton to be exported to Japan (or cotton year) shall be from January 1 to December 31.

6. Basic quota and its modification: The basic quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods to be exported to India in a piece-goods year shall be 325,000,000 yards and it shall be linked with 1,000,000 bales of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in the corresponding cotton year.

(a) In case the export of Indian raw cotton to Japan in any cotton year should fall below the 1,000,000 bales quota, the Japanese cotton piece-goods for the corresponding piece-goods year shall be determined by reducing the above basic quota at the rate of 2,000,000 yards for every 10,000 bales of deficit.

(b) In case, however, such export in any cotton year should exceed the 1,000,000 bales quota, the Japanese cotton piece-goods for the corresponding piece-goods year shall be determined by increasing the above basic quota at the

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rate of 1,500,000 yards for every additional 10,000 bales, provided that quota should in no case exceed 400,000,000 yards.

(c) In case the export of Indian raw cotton to Japan in any cotton year should exceed 1,500,000 bales, the quantity thus exported in excess of 1,500,000 bales shall be for the purpose of determining the relevant quota of Japanese cotton piece-goods added to the quantity of raw cotton exported to Japan in the following cotton year.

(d) In respect of both cotton piece-goods and raw cotton re-exported the quantity shall be deducted from imported quantity.

(e) The year shall be divided into two half-yearly periods, the first half-yearly period running from April 1 to September 30 and the second half-yearly period from October 1 to March 31 of the following year.

(f) The quota for the second half-yearly period shall be provisionally fixed at the quantity which will be derived by deducting 200,000,000 yards from the yearly quota, calculated on the basis of estimated export of Indian raw cotton to Japan in the corresponding cotton year.

7. Adjustment: The adjustment of export of Japanese cotton piece-goods to India shall be made by the end of the said period on basis of exact quantity of Indian raw cotton exported to Japan in the corresponding cotton year, subject to rules of allowances between periods.

A transfer from the quota of the first half-yearly period to the quota of the second half-yearly period shall be permitted up to a maximum of 20,000,000 yards.

From the second half-yearly period to the first half-yearly period of the succeeding piece-goods year and vice versa, transfer up to a maximum of 20,000,000 yards shall be permitted.

8. Classification of quota into categories:

The quota of cotton piece-goods shall be classified into the following categories in conformity with the following percentages:

Plain greys..	45 per cent.
Bordered greys	13 per cent.
Bleached	8 per cent.
Coloured and other ..	34 per cent.

The percentage allotted to each of the above categories may be modified subject to the following conditions:

Increase in category either of bordered greys or bleached shall not exceed 20 per cent. of quantity allotted to that category, and an increase in any other category shall not exceed 10 per cent. of quantity allotted to that category.

9. Transfer: The quantity transferable from category either of bordered greys or bleached shall not exceed 20 per cent. of quantity allotted to that category and the quantity transferable from any other category shall not exceed 10 per cent. of quantity allotted to that category: and

The total quota of cotton piece-goods for any piece-goods year shall not be increased by the above modification of quantity allotted to each category.

10. The quota for the period intervening the enforcement of the arrangement and the commencement of the first piece-goods year:

(a) The quota of cotton piece-goods for the period between the date on which the present Indian customs on cotton piece-goods year begins shall be the proportionate fraction of the quantity that would have been allotted to the whole piece-goods year from April 11, 1933 to March 31, 1934, on the basis of the quantity of Indian raw cotton imported into Japan in the cotton year of 1933 (From January 1 to December 31).

(b) The quota for this period and the first half-yearly instalment of the first piece-goods year quota should be consolidated into one for the period of approximately nine months, ending at the end of September, 1934.

The treaty shall come into force immediately after an exchange of ratifications, and shall remain in force until March 31, 1937.

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TREATY BETWEEN THE FIVE POWERS CONCERNING THE LIMITATION OF NAVAL ARMAMENT

Signed at Washington, February 6, 1922

CHAPTER I

General Provisions Relating to the Limitation of Naval Armament.

ARTICLE I The Contracting Powers agree to limit their respective naval armaments as provided in the present Treaty.

ARTICLE II The Contracting Powers may retain respectively the capital ships which are specified in Chapter II, Part 1. On the coming into force of the present Treaty, but subject to the following provisions of this Article, all other capital ships, built or building, of the United States, the British Empire and Japan shall be dsposed of as prescribed in Chapter II, Part 2.

In addition to the capital ships specified in Chapter II, Part 1, the United States may complete and retain two ships of the West Virginia class now under construction. On the completion of these two ships the North Dakota and Delaware shall be disposed of as prescribed in Chapter II, Part 2.

The British Empire may, in accordance with the replacement table in Chapter II, Part 3, construct two new capital ships not exceeding 35,000 tons (35,560 metric tons) standard displacement each. On the completion of the said two ships the Thunderer, King George V, Ajax and Centurion shall be disposed of as prescribed in Chapter II, Part 2.

ARTICLE III Subject to the provisions of Article II, the Contracting Powers shall abandon their respective capital ship building programmes, and no new capital ships shall be constructed or acquired by any of the Contracting Powers except replacement tonnage which may be constructed or acquired as specified in Chapter II, Part 3.

Ships which are replaced in accordance with Chapter II, Part 3, shall be disposed of as prescribed in Part 2 of that Chapter.

ARTICLE IV The total capital ship replacement tonnage of each of the Contracting Powers shall not exceed in standard displacement, for the United States 525,000 tons(533,400 metric tons); for the British Empire 525,000 tons (533,400 metric tons); for France 175,000 tons (177,800 metric tons); for Italy 175,000 tons (177,800 metric tons); for Japan 315,000 tons (320,010 metric tons).

ARTICLE V No capital ship exceeding 35,000 tons (35,560 metric tons) standard displacement shall be acquired by, or constructed by, for, or within the jurisdiction of, any of the Contracting Powers.

ARTICLE VI No capital ship of any of the Contracting Powers shall carry a gun with a calibre in excess of 16 inches (406 millimetres).

ARTICLE VII The total tonnage for aircraft carriers of each of the Contracting Powers shall not exceed in standard displacement, for the United States 135,000 tons (137,160 metric tons); for the British Empire 135,000 tons (137,160 metric tons); for France 60,000 tons (60,960 metric tons); for Italy 60,000 tons (60,960 metric tons); for Japan 81,000 tons (82,296 metric tons).

ARTICLE VIII The replacement of aircraft shall be effected only as prescribed in Chapter II, Part 3, provided, however, that all aircraft carrier tonnage in existence or building on November 12, 1921, shall be considered experimental, and may be replaced, within the total tonnage limit prescribed in Article VII, without regard to its age.

ARTICLE IX No aircraft carrier exceeding 27,000 tons (27,432 metric tons) standard displacement shall be acquired by, or constructed by, for, or within the jurisdiction of, any of the Contracting Powers.

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However, any of the Contracting Powers may, provided that its total tonnage allowance of aircraft carriers is not thereby exceeded, build not more than two aircraft carriers, each of a tonnage of not more than 33,000 tons (33,528 metric tons) standard displacement, and in order to effect economy any of the Contracting Powers may use for this purpose any two of their ships, whether constructed or in course of construction, which would otherwise be scrapped under the provisions of Article II. The armament of any aircraft carriers exceeding 27,000 tons (27,432 metric tons) standard displacement shall be in accordance with the requirements of Article X, except that the total number of guns to be carried in case any of such guns be of a calibre exceeding 6 inches (152 millimetres), except anti-aircraft guns and guns not exceeding 5 inches (127 millimetres), shall not exceed eight.

ARTICLE X No aircraft carrier of any of the Contracting Powers shall carry a gun with a calibre in excess of 8 inches (203 millimetres). Without prejudice to the provisions of Article IX, if the armament carried includes guns exceeding 6 inches (152 millimetres) in calibre the total number of guns carried, except anti-aircraft guns and guns not exceeding 5 inches (127 millimetres), shall not exceed ten. If alternatively the armament contains no guns exceeding 6 inches (152 millimetres) in calibre, the number of guns is not limited. In either case the number of anti-aircraft guns and of guns not exceeding 5 inches (127 millimetres) is not limited.

ARTICLE XI No vessel of war exceeding 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) standard displacement, other than a capital ship or aircraft carrier, shall be acquired by, or constructed by, for, or within the jurisdiction of, any of the Contracting Powers. Vessels not specifically built as fighting ships nor taken in time of peace under government control for fighting purpose, which are employed on fleet duties or as troop transports or in some other way for the purpose of assisting in the prosecution of hostilities otherwise than as fighting ships, shall not be within the limitations of this Article.

ARTICLE XII No vessel of war of any of the Contracting Powers, hereafter laid down, other than a capital ship, shall carry a gun with a calibre in excess of 8 inches (203 millimetres).

ARTICLE XIII Except as provided in Article IX, no ship designated in the present Treaty to be scrapped may be reconverted into a vessel of war.

ARTICLE XIV No preparations shall be made in merchant ships in time of peace for the installation of warlike armaments for the purpose of converting such ships into vessels of war, other than the necessary stiffening of decks for the mounting of guns not exceeding 6 inches (152 millimetres) calibre.

ARTICLE XV No vessel of war constructed within the jurisdiction of any of the Contracting Powers for a non-Contracting Power shall exceed the limitations as to displacement and armament prescribed by the present Treaty for vessels of a similar type which may be constructed by or for any of the Contracting Powers; provided however, that the displacement for aircraft carriers constructed for a non-Contracting Power shall in no case exceed 27,000 tons (27,432 metric tons) standard displacement.

ARTICLE XVI If the construction of any vessel of war for a non-Contracting Power is undertaken within the jurisdiction of any of the Contracting Powers such Power shall promptly inform the other Contracting Powers of the date of the signing of the contract and the date on which the keel of the ship is laid; and shall also communicate to them the particulars relating to the ship prescribed in Chapter II, Part 3, Section 1 (b), (4) and (5).

ARTICLE XVII In the event of a Contracting Power being engaged in war, such Power shall not use as a vessel of war any vessel of war which may be under construction within its jurisdiction for any other Power, or which may have been constructed within its jurisdiction for another Power and not delivered.

ARTICLE XVIII Each of the Contracting Powers undertakes not to dispose by gift, sale or any mode of transfer of any vessel of war in such a manner that such vessel may become a

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vessel of war in the Navy of any foreign Power.

ARTICLE XIX The United States, the British Empire and Japan agree that the status quo at the time of the signing of the present Treaty, with regard to fortifications and naval bases, shall be maintained in their respective territories and possessions specified hereunder:

(1) The insular possessions which the United States now holds or may hereafter acquire in the Pacific Ocean, except (a) those adjacent to the coast of the United States, Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone, not including the Aleutian Islands, and (b) the Hawaiian Islands;

(2) Hongkong and the insular possessions which the British Empire now holds or may hereafter acquire in the Pacific Ocean, east of the meridian of 110° east longitude, except (a) those adjacent to the coast of Canada, (b) the Commonwealth of Australia and its Territories, and (c) New Zealand;

(3) The following insular territories and possessions of Japan in the Pacific Ocean, to wit: the Kurile Islands, the Bonin Islands, Amami-Oshima, the Loochoo Islands, Formosa and the Pescadores, and any insular territories or possessions in the Pacific Ocean which Japan may hereafter acquire.

The maintenance of the status quo under the foregoing provisions implies that no new fortifications or naval bases shall be established in the territories and possessions specified; that no measures shall be taken to increase the existing naval facilities for the repair and maintenance of naval forces, and that no increase shall be made in the coast defences of the territories and possessions above specified. This restriction, however, does not preclude such repair and replacement of worn-out weapons and equipment as is customary in naval and military establishments in time of peace.

ARTICLE XX The rules for determining tonnage displacement prescribed in Chapter II, Part 4, shall apply to the ships of each of the Contracting Powers.

CHAPTER II
Rules Relating to the Execution of the Treaty—Definition of Terms

PART 1
Capital Ships Which may be Retained by the Contracting Powers

In accordance with Article II ships may be retained by each of the Contracting Powers as specified in this Part.

Ships which may be retained by the United states.

Name:	Tonnage
Maryland	32,600
California	32,300
Tennessee	32,300
Idaho	32,000
New Mexico	32,000
Mississippi	32,000
Arizona	31,400
Pennsylvania	31,400
Oklahoma	27,500
Nevada	27,500
New York	27,000
Texas	27,000
Arkansas	26,000
Wyoming	26,000
Florida	21,825
Utah	21,825
North Dakota	20,000
Delaware	20,000
Total tonnage	500,650

On the completion of the two ships of the West Virginia class and the scrapping of the North Dakota and Delaware, as provided in Article II, the total tonnage to be retained by the United States will be 525,850 tons.

Ships which may be retained by the British Empire.

Name:	Tonnage
Royal Sovereign	25,750
Royal Oak	25,750
Revenge	25,750
Resolution	25,750
Ramillies	25,750
Malaya	27,500
Valiant	27,500
Barham	27,500
Queen Elizabeth	27,500
Warspite	27,000
Benbow	25,000

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Name:	Tonnage
Emperor of India	25,000
Iron Duke	25,000
Marlborough	25,000
Hood	41,200
Renown	26,500
Repulse	26,500
Tiger	28,500
Thunderer	22,500
King George V	23,000
Ajax	23,000
Centurion	23,000
Total tonnage	580,450

On the completion of the two new ships to be constructed and the scrapping of the Thunderer, King George V, Ajax, and Centurion, as provided in Article II, the total tonnage to be retained by the British Empire will be 558,950 tons.

Ships which may be retained by France.

Name:	Tonnage (metric tons)
Bretagne	23,500
Lorraine	23,500
Provence	23,500
Paris	23,500
France	23,500
Jean Bart	23,500
Courtbet	23,500
Condorcet	18,890
Diderot	18,890
Voltaire	18,890
Total tonnage	221,170

France may lay down new tonnage in the years 1927, 1929, and 1931, as provided in Part 3, Section 2.

Ships which may be retained by Italy.

Name:	Tonnage (metric tons)
Andrea Doria	22,700
Caio Duilio	22,700
Conte Di Cavour	22,500
Giulio Cesare	22,500
Leonardo Da Vinci	22,500
Dante Alighieri	19,500
Roma	12,600
Napoli	12,600
Vittorio Emanuele	12,600
Regina Elena	12,600
Total tonnage	182,800

Italy may lay down new tonnage in the years 1927, 1929, and 1931, as provided in Part 3, Section 2.

Ships which may be retained by Japan.

Name:	Tonnage
Mutsu	33,800
Nagato	33,800
Hiuga	31,260
Ise	31,260
Yamashiro	30,600
Fu-so	30,600
Kirishima	27,500
Haruna	27,500
Hiyei	27,500
Kongo	27,500
Total tonnage	301,320

PART 2

Rules for Scrapping Vessels of War

The following rules shall be observed for the scrapping of vessels of war which are to be disposed of in accordance with Articles II and III.

I. A vessel to be scrapped must be placed in such condition that it cannot be put to combatant use.

II. This result must be finally effected in any one of the following ways:

(a) Permanent sinking of the vessel.

(b) Breaking the vessel up. This shall always involve the destruction or removal of all machinery, boilers and armour, and all deck, side and bottom plating.

(c) Converting the vessel to target use exclusively. In such case all the provisions of paragraph III of this Part, except sub-paragraph (6), in so far as may be necessary to enable the ship to be used as a mobile target, and except sub-paragraph (7), must be previously complied with. Not more than one capital ship may be retained for this purpose at one time by any of the Contracting Powers.

(d) Of the capital ships which would otherwise be scrapped under the present Treaty in or after the year 1931, France and Italy may each retain two sea-going vessels for training purposes exclusively, that is, as gunnery or torpedo schools. The two vessels retained by France shall be of the Jean Bart class, and of those retained by Italy one shall be the Dante Alighieri, the other of the Giulio Cesare class. On retaining these ships for the purpose

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above stated, France and Italy respectively undertake to remove and destroy their conning-towers, and not use the said ships as vessels of war.

III. (a) Subject to the special exceptions contained in Article IX, when a vessel is due for scrapping, the first stage of scrapping, which consists in rendering a ship incapable of further warlike service, shall be immediately undertaken.

(b) A vessel shall be considered incapable of further warlike service when there shall have been removed and landed, or else destroyed in the ship :

(1) All guns and essential portions of guns, fire-control tops and revolving parts of all barbettes and turrets ;

(2) All machinery for working hydraulic or electric mountings ;

(3) All fire-control instruments and range-finders ;

(4) All ammunition, explosives and mines ;

(5) All torpedoes, warheads and torpedo tubes ;

(6) All wireless telegraphy installations ;

(7) The conning tower and all side armour, or alternatively all main propelling machinery ; and

(8) All landing and flying-off platforms and all other aviation accessories.

IV. The periods in which scrapping of vessels is to be effected are as follows :

(a) In the case of vessels to be scrapped under the first paragraph of Article II, the work of rendering the vessels incapable of further warlike service, in accordance with paragraph III of this Part, shall be completed within six months from the coming into force of the present Treaty, and the scrapping shall be finally effected within eighteen months from such coming into force.

(b) In the case of vessels to be scrapped under the second and third paragraphs of Article II, or under Article III, the work of rendering the vessel incapable of further warlike service in accordance with paragraph III of this Part shall be commenced not later than the date of completion of its successor, and shall be finished within six months from the date of such completion. The vessel shall be finally scrapped, in accordance with paragraph II of this Part, within eighteen months from the date of completion of its successor. If, however, the completion of the new vessel be delayed, then the work of rendering the old vessel incapable of further warlike service in accordance with paragraph III of this Part shall be commenced within four years from the laying of the keel of the new vessel, and shall be finished within six months from the date on which such work was commenced, and the old vessel shall be finally scrapped in accordance with paragraph II of this Part within eighteen months from the date when the work of rendering it incapable of further warlike service was commenced.

PART 3

Replacement

The replacement of capital ships and aircraft carriers shall take place according to the rules in Section I and the tables in Section II of this Part.

SECTION I

Rules for Replacement

(a) Capital ships and aircraft carriers twenty years after the date of their completion may, except as otherwise provided in Article VIII and in the tables in Section II of this Part, be replaced by new construction, but within the limits prescribed in Article IV and Article VII. The keels of such new construction may, except as otherwise provided in Article VIII and in the tables in Section II of this Part, be laid down not earlier than seventeen years from the date of completion of the tonnage to be replaced, provided, however, that no capital ship tonnage, with the exception of the ships referred to in the third paragraph of Article II, and the replacement tonnage specifically mentioned in Section II of this Part, shall be laid down until ten years from November 12, 1921.

(b) Each of the Contracting Powers shall communicate promptly to each of the other Contracting Powers the following information :

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(1) The names of the capital ships and aircraft carriers to be replaced by new construction;

(2) The date of governmental authorization of replacement tonnage;

(3) The date of laying the keels of replacement tonnage;

(4) The standard displacement in tons and metric tons of each new ship to be laid down, and the principal dimensions, namely, length at waterline, extreme beam at or below waterline, mean draft at standard displacement;

(5) The date of completion of each new ship and its standard displacement in tons and metric tons, and the principal dimensions, namely, length at water-line, extreme beam at or below waterline, mean draft at standard displacement, at time of completion.

(c) In case of loss or accidental destruction of capital ships or aircraft carriers, they may immediately be replaced by new construction subject to the tonnage limits prescribed in Articles IV and VII and in conformity with the other provisions of the present Treaty, the regular replacement programme being deemed to be advanced to that extent.

(d) No retained capital ships or aircraft carriers shall be reconstructed except for the purpose of providing means of defence against air and submarine attack, and subject to the following rules: The Contracting Powers may, for that purpose, equip existing tonnage with bulge or blister or anti-air attack deck protection, providing the increase of displacement thus effected does not exceed 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) displacement for each ship. No alterations in side armour, in calibre, number or general type of mounting of main armament shall be permitted except:

(1) in the case of France and Italy, which countries within the limits allowed for bulge may increase their armour protection and the calibre of the guns now carried on their existing capital ships so as not to exceed 16 inches (406 millimetres) and

(2) the British Empire shall be permitted to complete, in the case of the Renown, the alterations to armour that have already been commenced but temporarily suspended.

SECTION II

REPLACEMENT AND SCRAPPING OF CAPITAL SHIPS

UNITED STATES

Year	Ships laid down	Ships completed	Ships scrapped (age in parentheses)	Ships retained Summary	
				Pre-Jutland	Post-Jutland
			Maine (20), Missouri (20), Virginia (17), Nebraska (17), Georgia (17), New Jersey (17), Rhode Island (17), Connecticut (17), Louisiana (17), Vermont (16), Kansas (16), Minnesota (16), New Hampshire (15), South Carolina (13), Michigan (13), Washington (0), South Dakota (0), Indiana (0), Montana (0), North Carolina (0), Iowa (0), Massachusetts (0), Lexington (0), Constitution (0), Constellation (0), Saratoga (0), Ranger (0), United	17	1
1922	—	A, B**	States (0)*, Delaware (12), North Dakota (12)	15	3
1923	—	—	—	15	3
1924	—	—	—	15	3
1925	—	—	—	15	3
1926	—	—	—	15	3
1927	—	—	—	15	3
1928	—	—	—	15	3
1929	—	—	—	15	3
1930	—	—	—	15	3

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Year	Ships laid down	Ships completed	Ships scrapped (age in parentheses)	Ships retained Summary Pre-Jutland	Post-Jutland
1931	C, D	—	—	15	3
1932	E, F	—	—	15	3
1933	G	—	—	15	3
1934	H, I	C, D	Florida (23), Utah (23), Wyoming (22)	12	5
1935	J	E, F	Arkansas (23), Texas (21), New York (12)	9	7
1936	K, L	G	Nevada (20), Oklahoma (20),	7	8
1937	M	H, I	Arizona (21), Pennsylvania (21),	5	10
1938	N, O	J	Mississipi (21),	4	11
1939	P, Q	K, L	New Mexico (20), Idaho (20),	2	13
1940	—	M	Tennessee (20)	1	14
1941	—	N, O	California (20), Maryland (20)	0	15
1942	—	P, Q	2 ships West Virginia class	0	15

* The United States may retain the Oregon and Illinois, for non-combatant purposes, after complying with the provisions of Part 2, III, (b).

** Two West Virginia class.

Note.—A, B, C, D, etc., represent individual capital ships of 35,000 tons displacement, laid down and completed in the years specified.

REPLACEMENT AND SCRAPPING OF CAPITAL SHIPS

BRITISH EMPIRE

Year	Ships laid down	Ships completed	Ships scrapped (age in parentheses)	Ships retained Summary Pre-Jutland	Post-Jutland
			Commonwealth (16), Agamemnon (18), Dreadnought (15), Bellerophon (12), St. Vincent (11), Inflexible (13), Superb (12), Neptune (10), Hercules (10), Indomitable (13), Temeraire (12), New Zealand (9), Lion (9), Princess Royal (9), Conquerer (9), Monarch (9), Orion (9), Australia (8), Agincourt (7), Erin (7), 4 building or projected.*	21	1
1922	A. B.	—	—	21	1
1923	—	—	—	21	1
1924	—	—	—	21	1
1925	—	A. B.	King George V (13), Ajax (12), Centurion (12), Thunderer (13),	17	3
1926	—	—	—	17	3
1927	—	—	—	17	3
1928	—	—	—	17	3
1929	—	—	—	17	3
1930	—	—	—	17	3
1931	C. D.	—	—	17	3
1932	E. F.	—	—	17	3
1933	G	—	—	17	3
1934	H. I.	C. D.	Iron Dulke (20), Marlborough (20), Emperor of India (20), Benbow (20),	13	5
1935	J	E. F.	Tiger (21), Queen Elizabeth (20), Warspite (20), Barham (20),	9	7
1936	K. L.	G	Malaya (20), Royal Sovereign (20),	7	8
1937	M	H. I.	Revenge (21), Resolution (21),	5	10
1938	N. O.	J	Royal Oak (22),	4	11
1939	P. Q.	K. L.	Valiant (23), Repulse (23),	2	13
1940	—	M	Renown (24)	1	14
1941	—	N. O.	Ramillies (24), Hood (21)	0	15
1942	—	P. Q.	A (17), B (17)	0	15

* The British Empire may retain the Colossus and Collingwood for non-combatant purpose after complying with the provisions of Part 2, III, (b).

** Two 35,000-ton ships, standard displacement.

Note.—A, B, C, D, etc., represent individual capital ships of 35,000 tons standard displacement laid down and completed in the years specified.

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REPLACEMENT AND SCRAPPING OF CAPITAL SHIPS

FRANCE

Year	Ships laid down	Ships completed	Ships scrapped (age in parentheses)	Ships retained Summary Pre-Jutland	Post-Jutland
1922	—	—	—	7	0
1923	—	—	—	7	0
1924	—	—	—	7	0
1925	—	—	—	7	0
1926	—	—	—	7	0
1927	35,000 tons	—	—	7	0
1928	—	—	—	7	0
1929	35,000 tons	—	—	7	0
1930	—	35,000 tons	Jean Bart (17), Courbet (17)	5	(*)
1931	35,000 tons	—	—	5	(*)
1932	35,000 tons	35,000 tons	France (18)	4	(*)
1933	35,000 tons	—	—	4	(*)
1934	—	35,000 tons	Paris (20), Bretagne (20)	2	(*)
1935	—	35,000 tons	Provence (20)	1	(*)
1936	—	35,000 tons	Lorraine (20)	0	(*)
1937	—	—	—	0	(*)
1938	—	—	—	0	(*)
1939	—	—	—	0	(*)
1940	—	—	—	0	(*)
1941	—	—	—	0	(*)
1942	—	—	—	0	(*)

* Within tonnage limitations; number not fixed.

Note.—France expressly reserves the right of employing the capital ship tonnage allotment as she may consider advisable, subject solely to the limitations that the displacement of individual ships should not surpass 35,000 tons, and that the total capital ship tonnage should keep within the limits imposed by the present Treaty.

REPLACEMENT AND SCRAPPING OF CAPITAL SHIPS

ITALY

Year	Ships laid down	Ships completed	Ships scrapped (age in parentheses)	Ships retained Summary Pre-Jutland	Post-Jutland
1922	—	—	—	6	0
1923	—	—	—	6	0
1924	—	—	—	6	0
1925	—	—	—	6	0
1926	—	—	—	6	0
1927	35,000 tons	—	—	6	0
1928	—	—	—	6	0
1929	35,000 tons	—	—	6	0
1930	—	—	—	6	0
1931	35,000 tons	35,000 tons	Dante Alghieri (19)	5	(*)
1932	45,000 tons	—	—	5	(*)
1933	25,000 tons	35,000 tons	Leonardo da Vinci (19)	4	(*)
1934	—	—	—	4	(*)
1935	—	35,000 tons	Guilio Cesare (21)	3	(*)
1936	—	45,000 tons	Conte di Cavour (21),		
		—	Duilio (21)	1	(*)
1937	—	25,000 tons	Andres Doria (21)	0	(*)

* Within tonnage limitations; number not fixed.

Note.—Italy expressly reserves the right of employing the capital ship tonnage allotment as she may consider advisable, subject solely to the limitations that the displacement of individual ships should not purpass 35,000 tons, and the total capital ship tonnage should keep within the limits imposed by the present Treaty.

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REPLACEMENT AND SCRAPPING OF CAPITAL SHIPS
JAPAN

Year	Ships laid down	Ships completed	Ships scrapped (age in parentheses)	Ships retained Summary	
				Pre-Jutland	Post-Jutland
			Hizen (20), Mikasa (20), Kashima (16), Katori (16), Satsuma (12), Aki (11), Settsu (10), Ikoma (14), Ibuki (12), Kurama (11), Amagi (0), Akagi (0), Kaga (0) Tosa (0), Takao (0), Atago (0). Projected programme 8 ships not laid down.*	8	2
1922	—	—	—	8	2
1923	—	—	—	8	2
1924	—	—	—	8	2
1925	—	—	—	8	2
1926	—	—	—	8	2
1927	—	—	—	8	2
1928	—	—	—	8	2
1929	—	—	—	8	2
1930	—	—	—	8	2
1931	A	—	—	8	2
1932	B	—	—	8	2
1933	C	—	—	8	2
1934	D	A	Kongo (21)	7	3
1935	E	B	Hiyei (21), Haruna (20)	5	4
1936	F	C	Kirishima (21)	4	5
1937	G	D	Fuso (22)	3	6
1938	H	E	Yamashiro (21)	2	7
1939	I	F	Isé (22)	1	8
1940	—	G	Hiuga (22)	0	9
1941	—	H	Nagato (21)	0	9
1942	—	I	Mutsu (22)	0	9

* Japan may retain the Shikishima and Asahi for non-combatant purposes, after complying with the provisions of Part 2, III, (b).

Note.—A, B, C, D, etc., represent individual capital ships of 35,000 tons standard displacement, laid down and completed in the years specified.

Note Applicable to All the Tables in Section II

The order above prescribed in which ships are to be scrapped is in accordance with their age. It is understood that when replacements begin according to the above tables the order of scrapping in the case of the ships of each of the Contracting Powers may be varied at its option; provided, however, that such Power shall scrap in each year the number of ships above stated.

PART 4

Definitions

For the purpose of the present Treaty, the following expressions are to be understood in the sense defined in this Part.

Capital Ship

A capital ship, in the case of ships hereafter built, is defined as a vessel of war, not an aircraft carrier, whose displacement exceeds 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) standard displacement, or which carries a gun with a calibre exceeding 8 inches (203 millimetres).

Aircraft Carrier

An aircraft carrier is defined as a vessel of war with a displacement in excess of 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) standard displacement designed for the specific and exclusive purpose of carrying aircraft. It must be so constructed that aircraft can be launched therefrom and landed thereon, and not designed and constructed for carrying a more powerful armament than that allowed to it under Article IX or Article X as the case may be.

Standard Displacement

The standard displacement of a ship

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is the displacement of the ship complete, fully manned, engined, and equipped ready for sea, including all armament and ammunition, equipment, outfit, provisions and fresh water for crew, miscellaneous stores and implements of every description that are intended to be carried in war, but without fuel or reserve feed water on board.

The word "ton" in the present Treaty, except in the expression "metric tons", shall be understood to mean the ton of 2,240 pounds (1,016 kilos).

Vessels now completed shall retain their present ratings of displacement tonnage in accordance with their national system of measurement. However, a Power expressing displacement in metric tons shall be considered for the application of the present Treaty as owning only the equivalent displacement in tons of 2,240 pounds.

A vessel completed hereafter shall be rated at its displacement tonnage when in the standard condition defined herein.

CHAPTER III

Miscellaneous Provisions

ARTICLE XXI If during the term of the present Treaty the requirements of the national security of any Contracting Power in respect of naval defence are, in the opinion of that Power, materially affected by any change of circumstances the Contracting Powers will, at the request of such Power, meet in conference with a view to the reconsideration of the provisions of the Treaty and its amendment by mutual agreement.

In view of possible technical and scientific developments, the United States, after consultation with the other Contracting Powers shall arrange for a conference of all the Contracting Powers which shall convene as soon as possible after the expiration of eight years from the coming into force of the present Treaty to consider what changes, if any, in the Treaty may be necessary to meet such developments.

ARTICLE XXII Whenever any Contracting Power shall become engaged in a war which in its opinion affects the naval defence of its national security, such Power may after notice to the other Contracting Powers suspend for the period of hostilities its obligations under the present Treaty other than those under Articles XIII and XVII, provided that such Power shall notify the other Contracting Powers that the emergency is of such a character as to require such suspension.

The remaining Contracting Powers shall in such case consult together with a view to agreement as to what temporary modifications, if any, should be made in the Treaty as between themselves. Should such consultation not produce agreement, duly made in accordance with the constitutional methods of the respective Powers, any one of said Contracting Powers may, by giving notice to the other Contracting Powers, suspend for the period of hostilities its obligations under the present Treaty, other than those under Articles XIII and XVII.

On the cessation of hostilities the Contracting Powers will meet in conference to consider what modifications, if any, should be made in the provisions of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE XXIII The present Treaty shall remain in force until December 31st, 1936, and in case none of the Contracting Powers shall have given notice two years before that date of its intention to terminate the Treaty, it shall continue in force until the expiration of two years from the date on which notice of termination shall be given by one of the Contracting Powers, whereupon the Treaty shall terminate as regards all the Contracting Powers. Such notice shall be communicated in writing to the Government of the United States, which shall immediately transmit a certified copy of the notification to the other Powers and inform them of the date on which it was received. The notice shall be deemed to have been given and shall take effect on that date. In the event of notice of termination being given by the Government of the United States, such notice shall be given to the diplomatic representatives at Washington of the other Contracting Powers, and the notice shall be deemed to have been given and shall take on the date of the communication made to the said diplomatic representatives.

Within one year of the date on which

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notice of termination by any Power has taken effect, all the Contracting Powers shall meet in conference.

ARTICLE XXIV The present Treaty shall be ratified by the Contracting Powers in accordance with their respective constitutional methods and shall take effect on the date of the deposit of all the ratifications, which shall take place at Washington as soon as possible. The Government of the United States will transmit to the other Contracting Powers a certified copy of the procès-verbal of the deposit of ratifications.

The present Treaty, of which the French and English texts are both authentic, shall remain deposited in the archives of the Government of the United States, and duly certified copies thereof shall be transmitted by that Government to the other Contracting Powers.

THE LONDON NAVAL TREATY OF 1930

PART 1

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties agree not to exercise their rights to lay down the keels of capital ship replacement tonnage during the years 1931-1936 inclusive as provided in Chapter II, Part 3 of the Treaty for the Limitation of Naval Armament signed between them at Washington on the 6th February, 1922, and referred to in the present Treaty as the Washington Treaty.

This provision is without prejudice to the disposition relating to the replacement of ships accidentally lost or destroyed contained in Chapter II, Part 3, Section 1, paragraph (c) of the said Treaty.

France and Italy may, however, build the replacement tonnage which they were entitled to lay down in 1927 and 1929 in accordance with the provisions of the said Treaty.

ARTICLE II 1. The United States, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and Japan shall dispose of the following capital ships as provided in this Article:

United States:
"Florida".
"Utah".
"Arkansas" or "Wyoming".

United Kingdom:
"Benbow".
"Iron Duke".
"Marlborough".
"Emperor of India".
"Tiger".

Japan:
"Hiyei".

(a) Subject to the provisions of subparagraph (b), the above ships, unless converted to target use exclusively in accordance with Chapter II, Part 2, paragraph II (c) of the Washington Treaty, shall be scrapped in the following manner:

One of the ships to be scrapped by the United States, and two of those to be scrapped by the United Kingdom shall be rendered unfit for warlike service, in accordance with Chapter II, Part 2, paragraph III (b) of the Washington Treaty, within twelve months from the coming into force of the present Treaty. These ships shall be finally scrapped, in accordance with paragraph II (a) or (b) of the said Part 2, within twenty-four months from the said coming into force. In the case of the second of the ships to be scrapped by the United States, and of the third and fourth of the ships to be scrapped by the United Kingdom, the said periods shall be eighteen and thirty months respectively from the coming into force of the present Treaty.

(b) Of the ships to be disposed of under this Article, the following may be retained for training purposes:

by the United States:
"Arkansas" or "Wyoming".
by the United Kingdom:
"Iron Duke".
by Japan:
"Hiyei".

These ships shall be reduced to the condition prescribed in Section V of Annex II to Part 2 of the present Treaty. The work of reducing these vessels to the required condition shall begin, in the case of the United States and the United Kingdom, within twelve months, and in the case of Japan within eighteen months from the coming

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into force of the present Treaty; the work shall be completed within six months of the expiration of the above-mentioned periods.

Any of these ships which are not retained for training purposes shall be rendered unfit for warlike service within eighteen months, and finally scrapped within thirty months, of the coming into force of the present Treaty.

2. Subject to any disposal of capital ships which might be necessitated, in accordance with the Washington Treaty, in the building by France or Italy of the replacement tonnage referred to in Article I of the present Treaty, all existing capital ships mentioned in Chapter II, Part 3, Section II of the Washington Treaty and not designated above to be disposed of may be retained during the term of the present Treaty.

3. The right of replacement is not lost by delay in laying down replacement tonnage, and the old vessel may be retained until replaced even though due for scrapping under Chapter II, Part 3, Section II of the Washington Treaty.

ARTICLE III 1. For the purposes of the Washington Treaty, the definition of an aircraft carrier given in Chapter II, Part 4 of the said Treaty is hereby replaced by the following definition:

> The expression "aircraft carrier" includes any surface vessel of war, whatever its displacement, designed for the specific and exclusive purpose of carrying aircraft and so constructed that aircraft can be launched therefrom and landed thereon.

2. The fitting of a landing-on or flying-off platform or deck on a capital ship, cruiser or destroyer, provided such vessel was not designed or adapted exclusively as an aircraft carrier, shall not cause any vessel so fitted to be charged against or classified in the category of aircraft carriers.

3. No capital ship in existence on the 1st April, 1930, shall be fitted with a landing-on platform or deck.

ARTICLE IV 1. No aircraft carrier of 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) or less standard displacement mounting a gun above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre shall be acquired by or constructed by or for any of the High Contracting Parties.

2. As from the coming into force of the present Treaty in respect of all the High Contracting Parties, no aircraft carrier of 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) or less standard displacement mounting a gun above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre shall be constructed within the jurisdiction of any of the High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE V An aircraft carrier must not be designed and constructed for carrying a more powerful armament than that authorized by Article IX or Article X of the Washington Treaty, or by Article IV of the present Treaty, as the case may be.

Wherever in the said Articles IX and X the calibre of 6 inches (152 mm.) is mentioned, the calibre of 6.1 inches (155 mm.) is substituted therefor.

PART II

ARTICLE VI 1. The rules for determining standard displacement prescribed in Chapter II, Part 4 of the Washington Treaty shall apply to all surface vessels of war of each of the High Contracting Parties.

2. The standard displacement of a submarine is the surface displacement of the vessel complete (exclusive of the water in non-watertight structure) fully manned, engined, and equipped ready for sea, including all armament and ammunition, equipment, outfit, provisions for crew, miscellaneous stores, and implements of every description that are intended to be carried in war, but without fuel, lubricating oil, fresh water or ballast water of any kind on board.

3. Each naval combatant vessel shall be rated at its displacement tonnage when in the standard condition. The word "ton", except in the expression "metric tons", shall be understood to be the ton of 2,240 pounds (1,016 kilos).

ARTICLE VII 1. No submarine the standard displacement of which exceeds 2,000 tons (2,032 metric tons) or with a gun above 5.1-inch (130 mm.) calibre shall be acquired by or constructed by or for any of the High Contracting Parties.

2. Each of the High Contracting Parties may, however, retain to build or acquire a maximum number of three

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submarines of a standard displacement not exceeding 2,800 tons (2,845 metric tons); these submarines may carry guns not above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre. Within this number, France may retain one unit, already launched, of 2,880 tons (2,926 metric tons), with guns the calibre of which is 8 inches (203 mm.).

3. The High Contracting Parties may retain the submarines which they possessed on the 1st April, 1930, having a standard displacement not in excess of 2,000 tons (2,032 metric tons) and armed with guns above 5.1-inch (130 mm.) calibre.

4. As from the coming into force of the present Treaty in respect of all the High Contracting Parties, no submarine the standard displacement of which exceeds 2,000 tons (2,032 metric tons) or with a gun above 5.1-inch (130 mm.) calibre shall be constructed within the jurisdiction of any of the High Contracting Parties, except as provided in paragraph 2 of this Article.

ARTICLE VIII Subject to any special agreements which may submit them to limitation, the following vessels are exempt from limitation:

(a) naval surface combatant vessels of 600 tons (610 metric tons) standard displacement and under;

(b) naval surface combatant vessels exceeding 600 tons (610 metric tons), but not exceeding 2,000 tons, (2,032 metric tons) standard displacement, provided they have none of the following characteristics:

(1) mount a gun above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre;

(2) mount more than four guns above 3-inch (76 mm.) calibre;

(3) are designed or fitted to launch torpedoes;

(4) are designed for a speed greater than twenty knots.

(c) naval surface vessels not specifically built as fighting ships which are employed on fleet duties or as troop transports or in some other way than as fighting ships, provided they have none of the following characteristics:

(1) mount a gun above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre;

(2) mount more than four guns above 3-inch (76 mm.) calibre;

(3) are designed or fitted to launch torpedoes;

(4) are designed for a speed greater than twenty knots;

(5) are protected by armour plate;

(6) are designed or fitted to launch mines;

(7) are fitted to receive aircraft on board from the air;

(8) mount more than one aircraft-launching apparatus on the centre line; or two, one on each broadside;

(9) if fitted with any means of launching aircraft into the air, are designed or adapted to operate at sea more than three aircraft.

ARTICLE IX The rules as to replacement contained in Annex I to this Part II are applicable to vessels of war not exceeding 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) standard displacement, with the exception of aircraft carriers, whose replacement is governed by the provisions of the Washington Treaty.

ARTICLE X Within one month after the date of laying down and the date of completion respectively of each vessel of war, other than capital ships, aircraft carriers and the vessels exempt from limitation under Article 8, laid down or completed by or for them after the coming into force of the present Treaty, the High Conracting Parties shall communicate to each of the other High Contracting Parties the information detailed below:

(a) the date of laying the keel and the following particulars:

classification of the vessel;
standard displacement in tons and metric tons;
principal dimensions, namely:
length at water-line, extreme beam at or below water-line;
mean draft at standard displacement;
calibre of the largest gun.

(b) the date of completion together with the foregoing particulars relating to the vessel at that date.

The information to be given in the case of capital ships and aircraft carriers is governed by the Washington Treaty.

ARTICLE XI Subject to the provisions of Article 2 of the present Treaty, the rules for disposal contained in Annex II to this Part II shall be applied to all vessels of war to be disposed of under the said Treaty, and to aircraft carriers as defined in Article 3.

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ARTICLE XII 1. Subject to any supplementary agreements which may modify, as between the High Contracting Parties concerned, the lists in Annex III to this Part II, the special vessels shown therein may be retained and their tonnage shall not be included in the tonnage subject to limitation.

2. Any other vessel constructed, adapted or acquired to serve the purposes for which these special vessels are retained shall be charged against the tonnage of the appropriate combatant category, according to the characteristics of the vessels, unless such vessel conforms to the characteristics of vessels exempt from limitation under Article 8.

3. Japan may, however, replace the minelayers "Aso" and "Tokiwa" by two new minelayers before the 31st December, 1936. The standard displacement of each of the new vessels shall not exceed 5,000 tons (5,080 metric tons); their speed shall not exceed twenty knots, and their other characteristics shall conform to the provisions of paragraph (b) of Article 8. The new vessels shall be regarded as special vessels and their tonnage shall not be chargeable to the tonnage of any combatant category. The "Aso" and "Tokiwa" shall be disposed of in accordance with Section I or II of Annex II to this Part II, on completion of the replacement vessels.

4. The "Asama", "Yakumo", "Izumo", "Iwaté" and "Kasuga" shall be disposed of in accordance with Section I or II of Annex II to this Part II when the first three vessels of the "Kuma" class have been replaced by new vessels. These three vessels of the "Kuma" class shall be reduced to the condition prescribed in Section V, sub-paragraph (b) 2 of Annex II to this Part II, and are to be used for training ships, and their tonnage shall not thereafter be included in the tonnage subject to limitation.

ARTICLE XIII Existing ships of various types, which, prior to the 1st April, 1930, have been used as stationary training establishments or hulks, may be retained in a non-seagoing condition.

ANNEX I

Rules for Replacement

Section I Except as provided in Section III of this Annex and Part III of the present Treaty, a vessel shall not be replaced before it becomes "over-age". A vessel shall be deemed to be "over-age" when the following number of years have elapsed since the date of its completion :

(a) For a surface vessel exceeding 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) but not exceeding 10,000 tons (10,160 metric tons) standard displacement :

(i) if laid down before the 1st January, 1920 : 16 years ;

(ii) if laid down after the 31st December, 1919 : 20 years.

(b) For a surface vessel not exceeding 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement :

(i) if laid down before the 1st January, 1921 : 12 years ;

(ii) if laid down after the 31st December, 1920 : 16 years.

(c) For a submarine : 13 years.

The keels of replacement tonnage shall not be laid down more than three years before the year in which the vessel to be replaced becomes "over-age"; but this period is reduced to two years in the case of any replacement surface vessel not exceeding 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement.

The right of replacement is not lost by delay in laying down replacement tonnage.

Section II Except as otherwise provided in the present Treaty, the vessel or vessels, whose retention would cause the maximum tonnage permitted in the category to be exceeded, shall, on the completion or acquisition of replacement tonnage, be disposed of in accordance with Annex II to this part II.

Section III In the event of loss or accidental destruction a vessel may be immediately replaced.

ANNEX II

Rules for Disposal of Vessels of War

The present Treaty provides for the disposal of vessels of war in the following ways :

(i) by scrapping (sinking or breaking up);

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(ii) by converting the vessel to a hulk;

(iii) by converting the vessel to target use exclusively;

(iv) by retaining the vessel exclusively for experimental purposes;

(v) by retaining the vessel exclusively for training purposes.

Any vessel of war to be disposed of, other than a capital ship, may either be scrapped or converted to a hulk at the option of the High Contracting Party concerned.

Vessels, other than capital ships, which have been retained for target, experimental or training purposes, shall finally be scrapped or converted to hulks.

Section I Vessels to be scrapped.

(a) A vessel to be disposed of by scrapping, by reason of its replacement, must be rendered incapable of warlike service within six months of the date of the completion of its successor, or of the first of its successors if there are more than one. If, however, the completion of the new vessel or vessels be delayed, the work of rendering the old vessel incapable of warlike service shall, nevertheless, be completed within four and a half years from the date of laying the keel of the new vessel, or of the first of the new vessels; but should the new vessel, or any of the new vessels, be a surface vessel not exceeding 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement, this period is reduced to three and a half years.

(b) A vessel to be scrapped shall be considered incapable of warlike service when there shall have been removed and landed or else destroyed in the ship:

(1) all guns and essential parts of guns, fire control tops and revolving parts of all barbettes and turrets;

(2) all hydraulic or electric machinery for operating turrets;

(3) all fire control instruments and rangefinders;

(4) all ammunition, explosives, mines and mine rails;

(5) all torpedoes, war heads, torpedo tubes and training racks;

(6) all wireless telegraphy installations;

(7) all main propelling machinery, or alternatively the armoured conning tower and all side armour plate;

(8) all aircraft cranes, derricks, lifts and launching apparatus. All landing-on or flying-off platforms and decks, or alternatively all main propelling machinery;

(9) in addition, in the case of submarines, all main storage batteries, air compressor plants and ballast pumps.

(c) Scrapping shall be finally effected in either of the following ways within twelve months of the date on which the work of rendering the vessel incapable of warlike service is due for completion:

(1) permanent sinking of the vessel;

(2) breaking the vessel up; this shall always include the destruction or removal of all machinery, boilers and armour, and all deck, side and bottom plating.

Section II Vessels to be converted to hulks.

A vessel to be disposed of by conversion to a hulk shall be considered finally disposed of when the conditions prescribed in Section I, paragraph (b), have been complied with, omitting subparagraphs (6), (7) and (8), and when the following have been effected:

(1) mutilation beyond repair of all propeller shafts, thrust blocks, turbine gearing or main propelling motors, and turbines or cylinders of main engines;

(2) removal of propeller brackets;

(3) removal and breaking up of all aircraft lifts, and the removal of all aircraft cranes, derricks and launching apparatus.

The vessel must be put in the above condition within the same limits of time as provided in Section I for rendering a vessel incapable of warlike service.

Section III Vessels to be converted to target use.

(a) A vessel to be disposed of by conversion to target use exclusively shall be considered incapable of warlike service when there have been removed and landed, or rendered unserviceable on board, the following:

(1) all guns;

(2) all fire control tops and instruments and main fire control communication wiring;

(3) all machinery for operating gun mountings or turrets;

(4) all ammunition, explosives, mines, torpedoes and torpedo tubes;

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(5) all aviation facilities and accessories.

The vessel must be put into the above condition within the same limits of time as provided in Section I for rendering a vessel incapable of warlike service.

(b) In addition to the rights already possessed by each High Contracting Party under the Washington Treaty, each High Contracting Party is permitted to retain, for target use exclusively, at any one time:

(1) not more than three vessels (cruisers or destroyers), but of these three vessels only one may exceed 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement;

(2) one submarine.

(c) On retaining a vessel for target use, the High Contracting Party concerned undertakes not to recondition it for warlike service.

Section IV Vessels retained for experimental purposes.

(a) A vessel to be disposed of by conversion to experimental purposes exclusively shall be dealt with in accordance with the provisions of Section III (a) of this Annex.

(b) Without prejudice to the general rules, and provided that due notice be given to the other High Contracting Parties, reasonable variation from the conditions prescribed in Section III (a) of this Annex, in so far as may be necessary for the purposes of special experiment, may be permitted as a temporary measure.

Any High Contracting Party taking advantage of this provision is required to furnish full details of any such variations and the period for which they will be required.

(c) Each High Contracting Party is permitted to retain for experimental purposes exclusively at any one time:

(1) not more than two vessels (cruisers or destroyers), but of these two vessels only one may exceed 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement;

(2) one submarine.

(d) The United Kingdom is allowed to retain, in their present conditions, the monitor "Roberts", the main armament guns and mountings of which have been mutilated, and the seaplane carrier "Ark Royal", until no longer required for experimental purposes. The retention of these two vessels is without prejudice to the retention of vessels permitted under (c) above.

(e) On retaining a vessel for experimental purposes the High Contracting Party concerned undertakes not to recondition it for warlike service.

Section V Vessels retained for training purposes.

(a) In addition to the rights already possessed by any High Contracting Party under the Washington Treaty, each High Contracting Party is permitted to retain for training purposes exclusively the following vessels:

United States: 1 capital ship ("Arkansas" or "Wyoming");

France: 2 surface vessels, one of which may exceed 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement;

United Kingdom: 1 capital ship ("Iron Duke");

Italy: 2 surface vessels, one of which may exceed 3,000 tons (3,048 metric tons) standard displacement;

Japan: 1 capital ship ("Hiyei"), 3 cruisers ("Kuma" class).

(b) Vessels retained for training purposes under the provisions of paragraph (a) shall, within six months of the date on which they are required to be disposed of, be dealt with as follows:

1. Capital Ships.

The following is to be carried out:

(1) removal of main armament guns, revolving parts of all barbettes and turrets; machinery for operating turrets; but three turrets with their armament may be retained in each ship;

(2) removed of all ammunition and explosives in excess of the quantity required for target practice training for the guns remaining on board;

(3) removal of conning tower and the side armour belt between the foremost and aftermost barbettes;

(4) removal or mutilation of all torpedo tubes;

(5) removal or mutilation on board of all boilers in excess of the number required for a maximum speed of eighteen knots.

2. Other surface vessels retained by France, Italy and Japan.

The following is to be carried out:

(1) removal of one half of the guns, but four guns of main calibre may be

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retained on each vessel;

(2) removal of all torpedo tubes;

(3) removal of all aviation facilities and accessories;

(4) removal of one half of the boilers.

(c) The High Contracting Party concerned undertakes that vessels retained in accordance with the provisions of this Section shall not be used for any combatant purpose.

ANNEX III

Special vessels

UNITED STATES

Name and type of vessel	Displacement. Tons
Aroostook—Minelayer	4,950
Oglala—Minelayer	4,950
Baltimore—Minelayer	4,413
San Francisco—Minelayer	4,083
Cheyenne—Monitor	2,800
Helena—Gunboat	1,392
Isabel—Yacht	938
Niagara—Yacht	2,600
Bridgeport—Destroyer tender	11,750
Dobbin—Destroyer tender	12,450
Melville—Destroyer tender	7,150
Whitney—Destroyer tender	12,450
Holland—Submarine tender	11,570
Henderson—Naval transport	10,000
	91,496

FRANCE

Name and type of vessel	Displacement. Tons
Castor-Minelayer	3,150
Pollux—Minelayer	2,461
Commandant-Teste—Seaplane carrier	10,000
Aisne—Despatch vessel	600
Marne „ „	600
Ancre „ „	604
Scarpe „ „	604
Suippe „ „	604
Dunkerque „ „	644
Laffaux „ „	644
Bapaume „ „	644
Nancy „ „	644
Calais „ „	644
Lassigny „ „	644
Les Epsages „ „	644
Remiremont „ „	644
Tahure „ „	644
Toul „ „	644
Epinal „ „	644
Liévin „ „	644
(——)—Netlayer	2,293
	28,644

BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

Name and type of vessel	Displacement. Tons
Adventure—Minelayer (United Kingdom)	6,740
Albatross—Seaplane carrier (Australia)	5,000
Erebus—Monitor (United Kingdom)	7,200
Terror—Monitor (United Kingdom)	7,200
Marshal Soult—Monitor (United Kingdom)	6,400
Clive—Sloop (India)	2,021
Medway—Submarine depot ship (United Kingdom)	15,000
	49,561

ITALY

Name and type of vessel	Displacement. Tons
Miraglia—Seaplane carrier	4,880
Fan di Bruno—Monitor	2,800
Monte Grappa—Monitor	605
Montello—Monitor	605
Monte Cengio—Exmonitor	500
Monte Novegno—Exmonitor	500
Campania—Sloop	2,070
	11,960

JAPAN

Name and type of vessel	Displacement. Tons
Aso—Minelayer	7,180
Tokiwa— „	9,240
Asama—Old cruiser	9,240
Yakumo „ „	9,010
Izumo „ „	9,180
Iwaté „ „	9,180
Kasuga „ „	7,080
Yodo—Gunboat	1,320
	61,430

PART III

The President of the United States of America, His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, have agreed as between themselves to the provisions of this Part III:

ARTICLE XIV The naval combatant vessels of the United States, the British Commonwealth of Nations and Japan, other than capital ships, aircraft car-

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riers and all vessels exempt from limitation under Article 8, shall be limited during the term of the present Treaty as provided in this Part III, and, in the case of special vessels, as provided in Article 12.

ARTICLE XV For the purpose of this Part III the definition of the cruiser and destroyer categories shall be as follows :

Cruisers.

Surface vessels of war, other than capital ships or aircraft carriers, the standard displacement of which exceeds 1,850 tons (1,880 metric tons), or with a gun above 5.1-inch (130 mm.) calibre.

The cruiser category is divided into two sub-categories, as follows :

(a) cruisers carrying a gun above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre ;

(b) cruisers carrying a gun not above 6.1-inch (155 mm.) calibre.

Destroyers.

Surface vessels of war the standard displacement of which does not exceed 1,850 tons (1,880 metric tons), and with a gun not above 5.1-inch (130 mm.) calibre.

ARTICLE XVI 1. The completed tonnage in the cruiser, destroyer and submarine categories which is not to be exceeded on the 31st December, 1936, is given in the following table :

Categories	United States	British Commonwealth of Nations	Japan
Cruisers :			
(a) with guns of more than 6'1-inch (155 mm.) calibre.	180,000 tons (182,880 metric tons)	146,800 tons (149,149 metric tons)	108,400 tons (110,134 metric tons)
(b) with guns of 6'1-inch (155 mm.) calibre or less.	143,500 tons (145,796 metric tons)	192,200 tons (195,275 metric tons)	100,450 tons (102,057 metric tons)
Destroyers	150,000 tons (152,400 metric tons)	150,000 tons (152,400 metric tons)	105,500 tons (107,188 metric tons)
Submarines	52,700 tons (53,543 metric tons)	52,700 tons (53,543 metric tons)	52,700 tons (53,543 metric tons)

2. Vessels which cause the total tonnage in any category to exceed the figures given in the foregoing table shall be disposed of gradually during the period ending on the 31st December, 1936.

3. The maximum number of cruisers of sub-category (a) shall be as follows: for the United States, eighteen ; for the British Commonwealth of Nations, fifteen ; for Japan twelve.

4. In the destroyer category not more than sixteen per cent. of the allowed total tonnage shall be employed in vessels of over 1,500 tons (1,524 metric tons) standard displacement. Destroyers completed or under construction on the 1st April, 1930, in excess of this percentage may be retained, but no other destroyers exceeding 1,500 tons (1,524 metric tons) standard displacement shall be constructed or acquired until a reduction to such sixteen per cent. has been effected.

5. Not more than twenty-five per cent. of the allowed total tonnage in the cruiser category may be fitted with a landing-on platform or deck for aircraft.

6. It is understood that the submarines referred to in paragraphs 2 and 3 of Article VII will be counted as part of the total submarine tonnage of the High Contracting Party concerned.

7. The tonnage of any vessels retained under Article XIII or disposed of in accordance with Annex II to Part II of the present Treaty shall not be included in the tonnage subject to limitation.

ARTICLE XVII A transfer not exceeding ten per cent. of the allowed total tonnage of the category or sub-category into which the transfer is to be made shall be permitted between cruisers of sub-category (b) and destroyers.

ARTICLE XVIII The United States contemplates the completion by 1935 of fifteen cruisers of sub-category (a) of an aggregate tonnage of 150,000 tons (152,400 metric tons). For each of the three remaining cruisers of sub-category (a) which it is entitled to construct the United States may elect to substitute 15,166 tons (15,409 metric tons) of cruisers of sub-category (b). In case the United States shall construct one or more of such three remaining

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on business of various kinds—commercial, industrial and otherwise.

ARTICLE IV The Government of China shall permit joint undertakings, in Eastern Inner Mongolia, of the subjects of Japan and citizens of China, in agriculture and industries auxiliary thereto.

ARTICLE V With respect to the three preceding Articles, the subjects of Japan shall produce before the local authorities the passports duly issued for the purpose of registration, and shall also submit themselves to the police laws and regulations and taxes of China.

In civil and criminal suit, the Japanese consular officer, where a Japanese subject is the defendant, and the Chinese official, where a Chinese citizen is the defendant, shall respectively try and decide the case, both the Japanese consular official and the Chinese official being permitted each to send his agent to attend the trial of the other to watch the proceeding; provided that in civil suits arising out of land disputes between Japanese subjects and Chinese citizens, the cases shall be tried and decided by the joint tribunal composed of the property authorized official of the two countries, in accordance with the laws and local usages of China.

In the future when the judicial system in the said regions shall have been completely reformed, all civil and criminal suits involving Japanese subjects shall be wholly tried and decided by the law-courts of China.

ARTICLE VI The Government of China engage to open of their own accord, as early as possible, cities and towns in Eastern Inner Mongolia, for the residence and trade of foreigners.

ARTICLE VII The Government of China agree to a speedy fundamental revision of various agreements and contracts relating to the Kirin-Changchun Railway, on the basis of the terms embodied in railway loan agreements which China has heretofore entered into with various foreign capitalists.

If, in future, the Chinese Government grant to foreign capitalists, in matters that relate to railway loans, more advantageous terms than those in the various existing railway loan agreements, the above-mentioned Kirin-Changchun Railway Loan Agreement shall, if so desired by Japan, be further revised.

ARTICLE VIII Except as otherwise provided in this Treaty, all existing treaties between Japan and China with respect to Manchuria shall remain in force.

ARTICLE IX The present Treaty shall take effect on the day of its signature.

DECLARATION CONCERNING THE NON-ALIENATION OF THE PROVINCE OF FUKIEN

The Tsung-Li Yamên to the Japanese Minister

Peking, April 26, 1898.

Prince Ch'ing and the Ministers of the Tsung-li Yamên have the honour to reply to a communication from the Minister of Japan dated 2nd day, 3rd intercalary month, 24th year Kuang-Hsü (April 22, 1898), which reads as follows:

"A telegram has just been received from the Minister of Foreign Affairs, which reads as follows:

"'The Government of Japan has viewed with constant deep concern the difficulties which the Government of China has recently been confronted. The declaration made at the time of the evacuation of Weihaiwei is evidence of this. It is to be apprehended that trouble may arise with consequences disastrous to China. In all this there is no mistaking what our real purpose is.

"'In view of the present state of affairs, the Government of Japan, mindful of its own interests, cannot act as if entirely in ignorance of passing events, but must take proper measures to meet any situation that may arise. You will ask the Government of China to make a declaration that it will not cede or lease to any other Power any portion of its territory within the Province of Fu-kien.'"

Referring to his oral statements made in a personal interview, the Minister of Japan requests that a reply be given to his communication.

The Princes and the Ministers have

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the honour to state that the Province of Fu-kien, with all the territory in the interior and along the sea-coast within its limits, which is an important part of China, China will never cede or lease to any other Power whatsoever; and to request that this reply be communicated to the Government of Japan.

The Princes and the Ministers avail themselves of this opportunity to renew to the Minister of Japan the assurances of their most distinguished consideration.

EXCHANGE OF NOTES*

From the Japanese Minister

Peking, the 25th day of May of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

A report has reached me to the effect that the Chinese Government has the intention of permitting foreign nations to establish, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; and also of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the abovementioned establishments.

I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will be good enough to give me reply stating whether or not the Chinese Government really entertains such an intention.

I avail, etc.

From Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs

Peking, the 25th day of May of the 4th year of Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of this day's date which I have noted.

In reply I beg to inform you that the Chinese Government hereby declares that it has given no permission to foreign nations to construct, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; nor does it entertain an intention of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the abovementioned establishments.

I avail, etc.,

* Translation from Chinese text as printed in Rockhill, p. 181. Printed also in Hertslet, p. 1154

SINO-JAPANESE UNDERSTANDING ENTERED INTO IN 1905

Made Public, January 14, 1932

In 1905, when the Treaty concerning Manchuria and the supplementary agreement to it were concluded, the Japanese Government insisted on the insertion in the text of the Treaty definite engagements on certain matters. Since, however, the Chinese Government found it difficult for internal political reasons to consent to the publication of such engagements, it was agreed that these should be merely recorded in the Minutes of the Conference, which were drawn up both in Japanese and Chinese and signed by the Japanese and Chinese Plenipotentiaries. These unpublished understandings totalled sixteen in number. An English version summarising these provisions was submitted, in February, 1906, to the British and the United States Governments in strict confidence by the Japanese Government.

Inasmuch as there seems to be some doubt as to the existence of these understandings in the Minutes of the Conference, and as people even in positions of influence in China have openly denied it, the Government think the present a fit occasion to publish the abovementioned communication made to the Governments of Great Britain and the United States.

Whereas the protocols of the Conference recently held between the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and China with regard to Manchuria are to be kept strictly secret in deference to the desire of the Chinese Government, only such portions of those Protocols as

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cruisers of sub-category (a), the sixteenth unit will not be laid down before 1933 and will not be completed before 1936; the seventeenth will not be laid down before 1934 and will not be completed before 1937; the eighteenth will not be laid down before 1935 and will not be completed before 1938.

ARTICLE XIX Except as provided in Article XX, the tonnage laid down in any category subject to limitation in accordance with Article XVI shall not exceed the amount necessary to reach the maximum allowed tonnage of the category, or to replace vessels that become "over-age" before the 31st December, 1936. Nevertheless, replacement tonnage may be laid down for cruisers and submarines that become "over-age" in 1937, 1938 and 1939, and for destroyers that become "over-age" in 1937 and 1938.

ARTICLE XX Notwithstanding the rules for replacement contained in Annex I to Part II:

(a) The "Frobisher" and "Effingham" (United Kingdom) may be disposed of during the year 1936. Apart from the cruisers under construction on the 1st April, 1930, the total replacement tonnage of cruisers to be completed, in the case of the British Commonwealth of Nations, prior to the 31st December, 1936, shall not exceed 91,000 tons (92,456 metric tons).

(b) Japan may replace the "Tama" by new construction to be completed during the year 1936.

(c) In addition to replacing destroyers becoming "over-age" before the 31st December, 1936, Japan may lay down, in each of the years 1935 and 1936, not more than 5,200 tons (5,283 metric tons) to replace part of the vessels that become "over-age" in 1938 and 1939.

(d) Japan may anticipate replacement during the term of the present Treaty by laying down not more than 19,200 tons (19,507 metric tons) of submarine tonnage, of which not more than 12,000 tons (12,192 metric tons) shall be completed by the 31st December, 1936.

ARTICLE XXI If, during the term of the present Treaty, the requirements of the national security of any High Contracting Party in respect of vessels of war limited by Part III of the present Treaty are in the opinion of that Party materially affected by new construction of any Power other than those who have joined in Part III of this Treaty, that High Contracting Party will notify the other Parties to Part III as to the increase required to be made in its own tonnages within one or more of the categories of such vessels of war, specifying particularly the proposed increases and the reasons therefor, and shall be entitled to make such increase. Thereupon the other Parties to Part III of this Treaty proportionate increase in the category or categories specified; and the said other Parties shall promptly advise with each other through diplomatic channels as to the situation thus presented.

PART IV

ARTICLE XXII The following are accepted as established rules of International Law:

(1) In their action with regard to merchant ships, submarines must conform to the rules of International Law to which surface vessels are subject.

(2) In particular, except in the case of persistent refusal to stop on being duly summoned, or of active resistance to visit or search, a warship, whether surface vessel or submarine, may not sink or render incapable of navigation a merchant vessel without having first placed passengers, crew and ship's papers in a place of safety. For this purpose the ship's boats are not regarded as a place of safety unless the safety of the passengers and crew is assured, in the existing sea and weather conditions, by the proximity of land, or the presence of another vessel which is in a position to take them on board.

The High Contracting Parties invite all other Powers to express their assent to the above rules.

PART V

ARTICLE XXIII The present Treaty shall remain in force until the 31st December, 1936, subject to the following exceptions:

(1) Part IV shall remain in force without limit of time;

(2) the provisions of Articles III, IV and V, and of Article XI and Annex II to Part II so far as they relate to aircraft

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carriers, shall remain in force for the same period as the Washington Treaty.

Unless the High Contracting Parties should agree otherwise by reason of a more general agreement limiting naval armaments, to which they all become parties, they shall meet in conference in 1935 to frame a new treaty to replace and to carry out the purposes of the present Treaty, it being understood that none of the provisions of the present Treaty shall prejudice the attitude of any of the High Contracting Parties at the conference agreed to.

ARTICLE XXIV 1. The present Treaty shall be ratified by the High Contracting Parties in accordance with their respective constitutional methods and the ratifications shall be deposited at London as soon as possible. Certified copies of all the procès-verbaux of the deposit of ratifications will be transmitted to the Governments of all the High Contracting Parties.

2. As soon as the ratifications of the United States of America, of His Majesty the King of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, the Emperor of India, in respect of each and all of the Members of the British Commonwealth of Nations as enumerated in the preamble of the present Treaty, and of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan have been deposited, the Treaty shall come into force in respect of the said High Contracting Parties.

3. On the date of the coming into force referred to in the preceding paragraph, Parts I, II, IV and V of the present Treaty will come into force in respect of the French Republic and the Kingdom of Italy if their ratifications have been deposited at that date; otherwise these Parts will come into force in respect of each of those Powers on the deposit of its ratification.

4. The rights and obligations resulting from Part III of the present Treaty are limited to the High Contracting Parties mentioned in paragraph 2 of this Article. The High Contracting Parties will agree as to the date on which, and the conditions under which, the obligations assumed under the said Part III by the High Contracting Parties mentioned in paragraph 2 of this Article will bind them in relation to France and Italy; such agreement will determine at the same time the corresponding obligations of France and Italy in relation to the other High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE XXV After the deposit of the ratifications of all the High Contracting Parties, His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland will communicate the provisions inserted in Part IV of the present Treaty to all Powers which are not signatories of the said Treaty, inviting them to accede thereto definitely and without limit of time.

Such accession shall be effected by a declaration addressed to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

ARTICLE XXVI The present Treaty, of which the French and English texts are both authentic, shall remain deposited in the archives of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Duly certified copies thereof shall be transmitted to the Governments of all the High Contracting Parties.

TREATY RESPECTING SOUTH MANCHURIA AND EASTERN INNER MONGOLIA

Signed at Peking, May 25, 1915

ARTICLE I The High Contracting Parties mutually agree to extend the term of the lease of Port Arthur and Dairen, and the term relating to the South Manchuria Railway and to the Antung-Mukden Railway, to a period of ninety-nine years respectively.

ARTICLE II The subjects of Japan shall be permitted in South Manchuria to lease land necessary either for erecting buildings for various commercial and industrial uses or for agricultural purposes.

ARTICLE III The subjects of Japan shall have liberty to enter, travel and reside in South Manchuria and to carry

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on business of various kinds—commercial, industrial and otherwise.

ARTICLE IV The Government of China shall permit joint undertakings, in Eastern Inner Mongolia, of the subjects of Japan and citizens of China, in agriculture and industries auxiliary thereto.

ARTICLE V With respect to the three preceding Articles, the subjects of Japan shall produce before the local authorities the passports duly issued for the purpose of registration, and shall also submit themselves to the police laws and regulations and taxes of China.

In civil and criminal suit, the Japanese consular officer, where a Japanese subject is the defendant, and the Chinese official, where a Chinese citizen is the defendant, shall respectively try and decide the case, both the Japanese consular official and the Chinese official being permitted each to send his agent to attend the trial of the other to watch the proceeding; provided that in civil suits arising out of land disputes between Japanese subjects and Chinese citizens, the cases shall be tried and decided by the joint tribunal composed of the property authorized official of the two countries, in accordance with the laws and local usages of China.

In the future when the judicial system in the said regions shall have been completely reformed, all civil and criminal suits involving Japanese subjects shall be wholly tried and decided by the law-courts of China.

ARTICLE VI The Government of China engage to open of their own accord, as early as possible, cities and towns in Eastern Inner Mongolia, for the residence and trade of foreigners.

ARTICLE VII The Government of China agree to a speedy fundamental revision of various agreements and contracts relating to the Kirin-Changchun Railway, on the basis of the terms embodied in railway loan agreements which China has heretofore entered into with various foreign capitalists.

If, in future, the Chinese Government grant to foreign capitalists, in matters that relate to railway loans, more advantageous terms than those in the various existing railway loan agreements, the above-mentioned Kirin-Changchun Railway Loan Agreement shall, if so desired by Japan, be further revised.

ARTICLE VIII Except as otherwise provided in this Treaty, all existing treaties between Japan and China with respect to Manchuria shall remain in force.

ARTICLE IX The present Treaty shall take effect on the day of its signature.

DECLARATION CONCERNING THE NON-ALIENATION OF THE PROVINCE OF FUKIEN

The Tsung-Li Yamên to the Japanese Minister

Peking, April 26, 1898.

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"'In view of the present state of affairs, the Government of Japan, mindful of its own interests, cannot act as if entirely in ignorance of passing events, but must take proper measures to meet any situation that may arise. You will ask the Government of China to make a declaration that it will not cede or lease to any other Power any portion of its territory within the Province of Fu-kien.'"

Referring to his oral statements made in a personal interview, the Minister of Japan requests that a reply be given to his communication.

The Princes and the Ministers have

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the honour to state that the Province of Fu-kien, with all the territory in the interior and along the sea-coast within its limits, which is an important part of China, China will never cede or lease to any other Power whatsoever; and to request that this reply be communicated to the Government of Japan.

The Princes and the Ministers avail themselves of this opportunity to renew to the Minister of Japan the assurances of their most distinguished consideration.

EXCHANGE OF NOTES*

From the Japanese Minister

Peking, the 25th day of May of the 4th year of Taisho.

Excellency,

A report has reached me to the effect that the Chinese Government has the intention of permitting foreign nations to establish, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; and also of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the above-mentioned establishments.

I have the honour to request that Your Excellency will be good enough to give me reply stating whether or not the Chinese Government really entertains such an intention.

I avail, etc.

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Peking, the 25th day of May of the 4th year of Republic of China.

Monsieur le Ministre,

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In reply I beg to inform you that the Chinese Government hereby declares that it has given no permission to foreign nations to construct, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; nor does it entertain an intention of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the above-mentioned establishments.

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SINO-JAPANESE UNDERSTANDING ENTERED INTO IN 1905

Made Public, January 14, 1932

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Inasmuch as there seems to be some doubt as to the existence of these understandings in the Minutes of the Conference, and as people even in positions of influence in China have openly denied it, the Government think the present a fit occasion to publish the above-mentioned communication made to the Governments of Great Britain and the United States.

Whereas the protocols of the Conference recently held between the Plenipotentiaries of Japan and China with regard to Manchuria are to be kept strictly secret in deference to the desire of the Chinese Government, only such portions of those Protocols as

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possess the character of executory agreements are given in the following summary :

1. The railway between Changchun and Kirin will be constructed by China with capital to be raised by herself. She, however, agrees to borrow from Japan the insufficient amount of capital, which amount being about one-half of the total sum required. The contract concerning the loan shall, in due time, be concluded, following, mutatis mutandis, the loan contract entered into between the board of the Imperial Railways of North China and the Anglo-Chinese Syndicate. The term of the loan shall be twenty-five years, redeemable in yearly instalments.

2. The military railway constructed by Japan between Mukden and Hsinmintun shall be sold to China at a price to be fairly determined in consultation by Commissioners appointed for the purpose by the two Governments. China engages to reconstruct the line, making it her own railway, and to borrow from a Japanese corporation or corporations one half of the capital required for the portion of the line east of Liao-ho for a term of eighteen years repayable in yearly instalments, and a contract shall be concluded, for the purpose following, mutatis mutandis, the loan contract entered into between the Board of the Imperial Railways of North China and the Anglo-Chinese Syndicate.

All the other military railways in different localities shall be removed with the evacuation of the regions.

3. The Chinese Government engage, for the purpose of protecting the interest of the South Manchuria Railway, not to construct, prior to the recovery by them of the said railway, any main line in the neighbourhood of and parallel to that railway, or any branch line which might be prejudicial to the interest of the above-mentioned railway.

4. China declares that she will adopt sufficient measures for securing Russia's faithful observance of the Russo-Chinese treaties with regard to the railways which Russia continues to possess in the northern part of Manchuria, and that it is her intention, in case Russia acts in contravention of such treaty stipulations, to approach her strongly with a view to have such action fully rectified.

5. When in the future, negotiations are to be opened between Japan and Russia for regulation of the connecting railway services (Article VIII of the Treaty of Peace between Japan and Russia), Japan shall give China previous notice. China shall communicate to Russia her desire to take part in the negotiations through commissioners to be despatched by her on the occasion, and Russia consenting, shall participate in such negotiations.

6. With regard to the mines in the Province of Fengtien, appertaining to the railway, whether already worked or not, fair and detailed arrangements shall be agreed upon for mutual observance.

7. The affairs relating to the connecting services as well as those of common concern in respect of the telegraph lines in the Province of Fengtien and the cables between Port Arthur and Yentai shall be arranged from time to time as necessity may arise in consultation between the two countries.

8. The regulations respecting the places to be opened in Manchuria, shall be made by China herself, but the Japanese Minister at Peking must be previously consulted regarding the matter.

9. If no objection be offered on the part of Russia respecting the navigation of the Sungari (by Japanese vessels), China shall consent to such navigation after negotiations.

10. The Chinese Plenipotentiaries declare that immediately after the withdrawal of the Japanese and Russian troops from Manchuria, China will proceed to take, in virtue of her sovereign right, full administrative measures to guarantee peace in that region and endeavour, by the same right, to promote good and remove evil as well as steadily to restore order, so that the residents of that region, natives and foreigners, may equally enjoy the security of life and occupation under the perfect protection of the Chinese Government. As to the means of restoring order, the Chinese Government are to take by themselves all adequate measures.

11. While relations of intimate friendship subsisted as at the present time between China and Japan, Japan and Russia had unfortunately engaged

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in war and fought in the territory of China. But peace has now been re-established and hostilities in Manchuria have ceased. And while it is undeniable that Japanese troops, before their withdrawal, have the power of exercising the rights occurring from military occupation, the Chinese Government declare that certain Japanese subjects in Manchuria have recently been observed to sometimes interfere with the local Chinese administration and to inflict damage to public and private property of China.

The Japanese Plenipotentiaries, considering that, should such interference and infliction of damage have been carried beyond military necessity, they are not proper acts, declare that they will communicate the purport of the above declaration of the Chinese Government to the Government of Japan, so that proper steps may be taken for controlling Japanese subjects in the Province of Fengtien and promote the friendly relations between the two nations, and also for preventing them in future, from interfering with the Chinese administration or inflicting damage to public or private property without military necessity.

12. In regard to any public or private property of China which may have been purposely destroyed or used by Japanese subjects without any military necessity, the Governments of the two countries shall respectively make investigations and cause fair reparation to be made.

13. When the Chinese local authorities intend to despatch troops for the purpose of subduing native bandits in the regions not yet completely evacuated by Japanese troops, they shall not fail to previously consult with the Commander of the Japanese troops stationed in those regions so that all misunderstandings may be avoided.

14. The Japanese Plenipotentiaries declare that the Railway Guards stationed between Changchun and the boundary line of the leased territory of Port Arthur and Talien, shall not be allowed, before their withdrawal, to unreasonably interfere with the local administration of China or to proceed without permission beyond the limits of the railway.

15. Chinese local authorities, who are to reside at Yingkou, shall be allowed, even before the withdrawal of the Japanese troops, to proceed to that place and transact their official business. The date of their departure is to be determined, as soon as possible after the definite conclusion of this Treaty, by the Japanese Minister to China in consultation with the Waiwupu. As there is still in that place a considerable number of Japanese troops, quarantine regulations as well as regulations for the prevention of contagious diseases, shall be established by the authorities of the two countries in consultation with each other so that epidemics may be avoided.

16. The revenue of the Maritime Customs at Yingkou shall be deposited with the Yokohama Specie Bank and delivered to the Chinese local authorities at the time of evacuation. As to the revenue of the native Customs at that place and the taxes and imposts at all other places, which are to be appropriated for local expenditures, a statement of receipts and expenditures shall be delivered to the Chinese local authorities at the time of evacuation.

DECLARATION ON THE ABOLITION OF EXTRATERRITORIALITY IN MANCHOUKUO, AUGUST 9, 1935

1. It was made clear in the Imperial Rescript issued in March, 1933, in connection with our decision to withdraw from the League of Nations, and also in the Japan-Manchoukuo Protocol signed on September 15, 1932, that Japan's policy toward Manchoukuo is based on the principle of enabling that country to make wholesome progress as an independent state, while maintaining an inseparable and interdependent relationship with this country, thus

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advancing our national policy: to preserve the stability of Eastern Asia and to make known throughout the world our devotion to justice and righteousness.

Now, Manchoukuo has made steady and brilliant progress ever since its establishment. Internally, it has pursued constructive programmes along all lines—political, economic, administrative,—while externally it has striven to win the respect and confidence of the Powers. In the matter of extraterritoriality, Manchoukuo, following Japan's example, has been preparing for its abolition by setting up a judicial system and by effecting reforms in various departments, such as police and taxation. In fact, more than ¥8,000,000 is set aside in the budget of the Empire for the fiscal year 1934 for such purposes.

2. Japan has for many years enjoyed the privileges of extraterritoriality in Manchuria. Prior to the establishment of Manchoukuo, extraterritoriality was essential to the developmnt of Japanese interests there. But extraterritoriality is gradually losing its importance which diminishes with the progress of the above-mentioned Japan's policy toward Manchoukuo. Indeed, it is now necessary to abolish extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo if we are to afford that Empire free scope for development, establish a closer union and co-operation between our two peoples, make possible the general advancement of Japanese interests in all directions, and, finally, strengthen permanently the inseparable and friendly relations between the two countries. The South Manchuria Railway zone, acquired by us in consequence of a war with Russia on which we staked our national fortunes, has for the past thirty years been under our assiduous administration. It has served as the base of operations for Japanese activities in Manchuria. But it is now deemed necessary to adjust and transfer our administrative rights in that area for reasons involved in the abolition of extraterritoriality, in order to meet the new situation arising from the establishment of Manchoukuo.

3. For these reasons, at the Cabinet meeting of August 9th, the Japanese Government decided on the following general principles concerning the abolition of extraterritoriality and the adjustment and transfer of administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway zone, according to which the authorities concerned will be instructed to devise concrete measures and to put these gradually into effect.

a. Concerning extraterritoriality in Manchoukuo, its abolition should be effected in keeping with the spirit of the treaties in force, in gradual stages, and to accord with the degree of completion of the governmental systems and organs of Manchoukuo, but especially with a view to avoid any sudden and violent changes in the life of Japanese communities in Manchoukuo, to insure more securely for Japanese throughout that Empire facilities for residence and safety and free development, and, in particular, to facilitate the smooth operation of Japan's policy toward the Empire.

b. The South Manchuria Railway zone will, of course, be retained by Japan as heretofore. But the administrative rights exercised by Japan in the zone will be adjusted and transferred, according to circumstances, keeping step with the gradual abolition of extraterritoriality, under similar considerations as above.

4. It should be added that Japan's rights in the leased territory of Kwantung are quite different from those in the South Manchuria Railway zone in their legal origin, their character, and various other respects. Thus it goes without saying that the adjustment and transfer of administrative rights in the South Manchuria Railway zone has no connection with Japan's rights in the Kwantung Leased Territory.

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AGREEMENT CONCERNING THE TRANSFER OF THE NORTH MANCHURIA RAILWAY

Signed in Tokyo, March 23, 1935

ARTICLE I

The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall cede to the Government of Manchoukuo all the rights they possess concerning the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), in consideration of which the Government of Manchoukuo shall pay to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the sum of one hundred and forty million (140,000,000) yen in Japanese currency.

ARTICLE II

All the rights of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics concerning the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) shall pass to the Government of Manchoukuo upon the coming into force of the present Agreement, and at the same time the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) shall be placed under the complete occupation and the sole management of the Government of Manchoukuo.

ARTICLE III

1 Upon the coming into force of the present Agreement, the senior members of the administration of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall be released from their duties. The said senior members of the administration of the Railway shall hand over all the archives, records, papers and documents of whatever description in their charge to their respective successors in the new administration of the Railway.

It is understood that the term the "senior members of the administration of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway)" employed in the present Article indicates :

(A) All the members of the Board of Directors and of the Audit Committee.

(B) The general manager and assistant manager of the Administration.

(C) The assistant chief controller.

(D) All the managers and submanagers of the Departments of the Board of Directors, the Audit Committee, the Control and the Administration. All agents for commission, engineers for commission. All the senior agents, advisers and chiefs of the sections and sub-sections.

2 With the aim of ensuring the normal functioning of the Railway, the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics agree to place at the disposal of the new administration the following persons from among the senior members of the administration of the Railway who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics as advisers for one month from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement :

(A) The general manager of the Administration.

(B) The manager of General Affairs Office of the Administration.

(C) The manager of the Motive Power Department of the Administration.

(D) The chief of the Financial Department of the Administration.

(E) The manager of the Commercial Department of the Administration.

3 At any time after the coming into force of the present Agreement, the Government of Manchoukuo may dismiss any or all of the following persons :

(A) All the chiefs of railway sections, stations and depots.

(B) The chiefs of all the following auxiliary enterprises of the Railway :

a Forest concessions and lumbering.
b Coalmines.
c Power stations.
d Printing plant.
e Auxiliary enterprises of the Commercial Department.
f Nursery and green-houses in Harbin.

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g Main workshops of the Ways Department.
h Wool-washing works and hydro-loading works.
i Water works in Harbin.
j Soft-drinks factory.
k Saw-mill.
l Gradations of beans.
m Waste-cleaning works.
n Grand Hotel.
o Health resorts and sanatoria.
p Hospitals and clinics.
q Library.
r Economic Bureau.

4 The persons referred to in Section 1 of the present Article shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo and to retain their railway lodgings for one month after the coming into force of the present Agreement.

The persons referred to in Section 2 of the present Article shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo and to retain their railway lodgings for two months after the coming into force of the present Agreement.

Those persons who have been dismissed by virtue of Section 3 of the present Article shall have the right to receive their regular salary for one month from the date of their dismissal. They shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo and to retain their railway lodgings for two months from the date of their dismissal.

ARTICLE IV

The Government of Manchoukuo shall succeed to the assets and liabilities of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in accordance with the list of assets and liabilities of the Railway as on December 31st, 1933, presented by the Delegation of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on March 22nd, 1934, to the Delegation of the Government of Manchoukuo through the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Japan, as supplemented by the lists which were made on March 17th and March 21st, 1935, in order to show the changes sustained by the assets and liabilities included in the first list from the date of the first list up to the date of the last list and also to show the new assets and liabilities which have arisen on and after January 1st, 1934.

It is agreed that the provisions of Section 4, Article IX of the Agreement on General Principles for the Settlement of the Questions between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Republic of China signed at Peking on May 31st, 1924, and those of Section 3, Article I of the Agreement between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Government of the Autonomous Three Eastern Provinces of the Republic of China signed at Mukden on September 20th, 1924, shall remain in force.

ARTICLE V

The Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall have the right to maintain the following property for the use of their Consulate General in Harbin in the form of a permanent and rent-free lease :

a The land and buildings now occupied by the said Consulate General :
Locality : Yio-Ching-Kai, Chin-Chia-Kang.
Area : 14,873.68 square metres.
Buildings :
Office, No. 1049 ; 2,174.90 square metres.
Residence, No. 1047 ; 685.37 square metres.
Residence, No. 1048 ; 1,447.61 square metres.
Garage and its annex, No. 1051 ; 245.88 square metres.
Guard-room, No. 1052 ; 38.90 square metres.

b The land and building now occupied by the officials of the said Consulate General :
Locality : Hai-Cheng-Kai, Chin-Chia-Kang.
Area : 2,530 square metres.
Building : No. 934 ; 258.51 square metres.

The following property shall be leased rent-free and sine die to the Consul General of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin on the day of the coming into force of the present Agreement, and shall immediately thereafter be placed and remain under the occupation and management of the community

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of the citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin to be used solely for the purposes prescribed hereunder:

a The IVth School of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), situated at No. 35, Shang-Wu-Kai, Tao-Li, Harbin, with all the buildings and property to be found there, to be used for the elementary and secondary education of the said community.

b The land known under No. 949, at the corner of Kao-Shi-Kai and Ching-Cha-Kai, Tao-Li, Harbin, with all the buildings on it, which are to be used in the future as a hospital.

Within one month from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, a library shall be selected, for the use of the above-mentioned IVth School, from the books of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) Library in Harbin, by mutual agreement between the local authorities of Manchoukuo and the Consul General of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin. The books so selected shall be transferred to the said School.

ARTICLE VI

The properties occupied by the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) which are claimed by the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics as belonging to them and not to the Railway, and the properties existing in the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics which are claimed by the Government of Manchoukuo as belonging to the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), are regarded as having been mutually renounced by respective Governments in favour of the other Government, and neither Government shall in future raise against the other Government any demand concerning the said properties.

The above provisions shall not apply to the properties (buildings and their sites and other railway properties) of the Transbaikal Railway now existing at Manchuli, and the properties of the Ussuri Railway now existing at Suifenho, which are actually occupied respectively by the said two Railways and shall remain their property under their management.

ARTICLE VII

Out of the sum of one hundred and forty million (140,000,000) yen in Japanese currency referred to in Article I of the present Agreement, the sum of forty-six million seven hundred thousand (46,700,000) yen shall be paid in cash in accordance with the provisions of Article VIII of the present Agreement, and the settlement for the remaining sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen shall be effected in the form of payments made by the Government of Manchoukuo for goods delivered to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in accordance with the provisions of Article IX of the present Agreement.

ARTICLE VIII

Out of the sum of forty-six million seven hundred thousand (46,700,000) yen to be paid in cash in accordance with the provisions of Article VII of the present Agreement, the sum of twenty-three million three hundred thousand (23,300,000) yen shall be paid simultaneously with the signing of the present Agreement.

The remaining sum of twenty-three million four hundred thousand (23,400,000) yen as well as the simple interest at the rate of three per cent. per annum is to be paid by the Government of Manchoukuo to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in the form of the Treasury Bonds of the Government of Manchoukuo. The said Treasury Bonds are to be issued of the following amounts and mature on the dates indicated hereunder: six million three hundred and seventy-six thousand five hundred (6,376,500) yen maturing on December 23rd, 1935; six million two hundred and forty-four thousand eight hundred and seventy-five (6,244,875) yen maturing on September 23rd, 1936; six million one hundred and thirteen thousand two hundred and fifty (6,113,250) yen maturing on June 23rd, 1937; five million nine hundred and eighty-one thousand six hundred and twenty-five (5,981,625) yen maturing on March 23rd,

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1938. The Treasury Bonds of the Government of Manchoukuo mentioned above are to be issued in favour of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and are to be delivered by the Representative of the Government of Manchoukuo to the Representative of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics simultaneously with the signing of the present Agreement, and shall be paid at the Industrial Bank of Japan, Ltd.

In case the exchange rate of the yen in terms of the Swiss franc calculated on the basis of the respective exchange rates of the yen and the Swiss franc in London on the day before the date of payment of any of the second and subsequent instalments provided for in the present Article should be lower or higher by eight per cent. or more in comparison with the exchange rate of the yen in terms of the Swiss franc as calculated on the basis of the respective exchange rates of the yen and the Swiss franc in London on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, the amount of the said instalment shall be increased or decreased, as the case may be, so that the value in Swiss francs of the instalment shall be the same as it is on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

In case the present gold parity of the Swiss franc (one Swiss franc being equivalent to nine thirty-firsts of one gramme of fine gold) should be altered or in case the convertibility of the Swiss franc into gold should be suspended, the following method shall be adopted in place of the method provided for in the preceding paragraph.

In case the weight of fine gold whose value, when calculated on the basis of the price of gold and the exchange rate of the yen in London on the day before the date of payment of any of the second and subsequent instalments provided for in the present Article, is equal to the amount of the instalment, should be less or more by eight per cent. or more in comparison with the weight of fine gold whose value, when calculated on the basis of the price of gold and the exchange rate of the yen in London on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, is equal to the said instalment, the amount of the instalment shall be increased or reduced, as the case may be, so that the value in fine gold of the instalment shall be the same as it is on the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

ARTICLE IX

The settlement for the sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen, to be effected in the form of payments made by the Government of Manchoukuo for the goods delivered to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as provided for in Article VII of the present Agreement, shall be executed in the following manner :

1 The Trade Representation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Japan will make contracts for the purchase of goods produced or manufactured in Manchoukuo or Japan, with the subjects or juridical persons of either of these two countries, up to the sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen indicated in Article VII within the period of six months from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement. The delivery of the goods thus purchased shall be effected to the Trade Representation in Japan by the above-mentioned subjects or juridical persons within the period of three years from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement in accordance with the terms of the contracts concerned, it being understood that the goods so delivered in the course of each of the six equal periods of six months constituting the said three years shall not exceed in value the sum of thirty-one million one hundred thousand (31,100,000) yen and that the total amount of the goods delivered in the course of each of the three equal periods of one year constituting the said three years shall not exceed in value the sum of thirty-one million one hundred thousand (31,100,000) yen.

2 The terms of payment for the goods shall be arranged in such a way that for each such period of six months in the course of the said three years the Government of Manchoukuo shall make payment not exceeding the sum of

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fifteen million five hundred and fifty thousand (15,550,000) yen for the delivery of the goods mentioned in the foregoing Section and in case any balance of that sum shall for any reason remain unpaid at the end of any such period of six months, such balance shall be paid off during the next six months and so on, so that the whole sum of ninety-three million three hundred thousand (93,300,000) yen shall be paid off by the end of the said three years.

3 It is agreed that should the above-mentioned contracts not be concluded within the period of six months after the coming into force of the present Agreement, the Trade Representation shall have the right to make such contracts after the expiration of the said period of six months, and further that, should any of the parties other than the Trade Representation to the contracts concluded in accordance with the forgoing provisions of the present Article fail to carry out such contracts or to fulfil such contracts in a proper manner for which reason these contracts are abrogated, the Trade Representation shall in each case have the right to conclude fresh contracts with other subjects or juridical persons of Manchoukuo or Japan, in which case the latter contracts may provide for the payment for and the delivery of the goods to be effected after the three years' term above mentioned.

4 The contracts in the present Article shall be concluded either c.i.f. or f.o.b. at the choice of the Trade Representation and shall provide for payments in cash for goods by the Government of Manchoukuo.

5 When the Trade Representation have concluded a contract for the purchase of goods with the subjects or juridical persons of Manchoukuo or Japan, the Trade Representation shall give the Financial Attaché to the Legation of Manchoukuo in Japan a résumé of the contract, mentioning the names of the parties to the contract, the description, place of origin and quantity of the goods, to be paid, the date and place of delivery of the goods and of the payment therefor, as well as any other terms of the payment and delivery, including any provisions for payment in advance. The said résumé shall be attested by both parties to the contract. Besides this, so far as circumstances permit, certificates of origin issued by any chamber of commerce and industry in Manchoukuo or Japan in respect of the goods, or by any other organization authorized to issue such certificates by the Government of either of these two countries, shall be presented to the Financial Attaché by the seller of the goods.

The Financial Attaché, upon receipt of the résumé of the contract, provided its contents do not conflict with the provisions of the present Article, shall notify, not later than within seven days thereafter, the Trade Representation and the seller of the goods concerned to the effect that the Government of Manchoukuo undertake to effect payment for the goods in conformity with the said résumé of the contract.

For the purpose of obtaining a settlement of his accounts the seller of the goods shall hand to the Trade Representation the document entitling the Trade Representation to dispose of the said goods (bill of lading, invoice etc.).

The Financial Attaché, upon receipt of the notification given by the Trade Representation to the effect that the delivery of the goods referred to in the résumé of the contract has been accomplished, shall issue a cheque to order drawn with the Industrial Bank of Japan, Ltd. as payer, the seller of the goods as payee and the price of the goods as its face amount, and shall deliver it to the seller on the date of payment, and, in case the presentation of the certificates of origin of the goods above referred to shall have been prevented at the time of presentation of the résumé of the contract, against such certificates. The seller of the goods shall give a receipt for the said cheque. Payment in advance to the seller of the goods may be effected in a similar manner by the Financial Attaché in conformity with the résumé of the contract against the advice of the Trade Representation to the effect that such payment shall be made.

6 It is understood that in the present Article the term "goods manufactured in Manchoukuo or Japan" indicates goods manufactured within either of the said

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two countries from raw materials imported from any other countries as well as from raw materials produced in either and that the term "juridical persons of Manchoukuo or Japan" indicates the juridical persons which are or may be incorporated in accordance with the law of Manchoukuo or Japan respectively.

ARTICLE X

1 Three month's notice shall be given to each of the employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), other than those included in the provisions of Article III of the present Agreement, who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and whom the Government of Manchoukuo may desire to dismiss from reasons of convenience on the part of the Government of Manchoukuo after the coming into force of the present Agreement.

2 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who may be dismissed shall have the right to remain in Manchoukuo for two months after their dismissal in order to dispose of their personal affairs.

3 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall continue in the full enjoyment of their rights in movable and immovable property in accordance with the laws of Manchoukuo.

4 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics shall enjoy the full right to dispose of their property in accordance with the laws of Manchoukuo and to carry their property out of Manchoukuo either in its original form or in its money equivalent in any foreign currency.

5 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who have retired through dismissal or of their own accord and who leave for the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics within two months after their retirement, shall be granted the privilege of free transport over the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) for themselves, their families, and their personal and household effects either to the station of Manchuli or to the station of Suifenho, at their own option.

ARTICLE XI

1 The various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments—(discharge allowances and other sums due to employees in respect of service on the Railway, employees' savings in the Relief Savings Association and the payments additional thereto on the part of the Railway including interest, pensions and block grants in accordance with the regulations of the Relief Savings Association, as well as pensions and compensations for personal injuries according to the "Regulations of 1912 relating to the indemnification of persons who have met with accidents")—to employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who may be dismissed or may retire of their own accord after the coming into force of the present Agreement, so far as such allowances and payments are in respect of the period before the coming into force of the present Agreement, shall be individually reckoned and paid out in accordance with the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, as modified by the provisions of the present Article.

Note. Discharge allowances for the period up to November 11th, 1930, are to be paid according to the rates existing up to November 11th, 1930.

2 Employees who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and who are dismissed or retire of their own accord after the coming into force of the present Agreement shall be considered as employees who have been dismissed as the result of the abolition of offices, so far as concerns the calculation of the various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments.

3 Discharge allowances and other

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payments relative to service concerning the Railway, and compensations for injuries sustained in such service, as well as savings and the prescribed interest thereon, shall be paid within a fortnight from the day of dismissal or retirement, provided that in respect of persons who shall be dismissed, half the amount of such savings shall be paid within two months from the date of the notice of such dismissal.

The block grants to persons who have been in the service of the Railway for less than ten years as well as payments additional to savings together with the prescribed interest thereon shall be paid in four equal instalments within two years from the date of dismissal or retirement. The first instalment shall be paid within a fortnight, and the second instalment at the end of a year after the date of dismissal or retirement, and the third and the fourth instalments shall be paid at the end respectively of six and twelve months after the payment of the second instalment. As regards the last three of these instalments, the Government of Manchoukuo shall issue bonds for the amounts due drawn up in the name of the respective persons and maturing on the dates prescribed above. These bonds shall be delivered to the respective recipients simultaneously with the payment of the first instalment above referred to and shall not be transferred thereafter to any other person.

Persons who have been in the service of the Railway for ten years or more shall be deemed entitled to pensions without undergoing the examination of their working efficiency, and the said pensions, instead of being paid annually, shall be paid in a block grant, that is to say, a sum eight and a half times the sum payable annually in respect of a pension shall be paid to the recipient in four equal instalments in the course of two years, in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph.

Note. 1 The examination of the working efficiency of employees who have been in the service of the Railway for less than ten years will be effected according to the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

Note. 2 Pensions for personal injuries, instead of being paid annually, shall be paid in block grants, that is to say, a sum eight and a half times the sum payable annually shall be paid to the recipients in the same manner as for persons who have been in the service of the Railway for ten years or more.

4 Employees of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) who are in debt to the Railway shall have the sum of their indebtedness deducted from the various descriptions of retiring allowances and other payments due to them.

5 The various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments shall be paid in the currency of Manchoukuo at the exchange rate against the rouble of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) existing at the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement and applied by the said Railway for settlements with their employees. The recipients of these retiring allowances and payments shall be allowed to remit the money they have received to other countries after having converted it into foreign currency.

6 The various descriptions of retiring allowances and payments and the bonds of the Government of Manchoukuo shall be paid or delivered to the legal recipients direct, but persons who have returned to the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics can empower the Consul General of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Harbin or any other person to receive them. Persons who have given such authority shall at the same time inform the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) to that effect.

7 Those persons who have retired before the coming into force of the present Agreement and are now being paid pensions shall continue to receive the pensions as previously in accordance with the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, irrespective of whether the said regulations shall remain in force, be

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modified or abrogated thereafter. In this case Section 5 of the present Article shall be applied as regards the exchange rate against the rouble of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), and, in case the legal recipients should be returning or should have returned to the territory of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, as regards remittances to other countries.

8 The sums which are to be paid out by the Administration or the Relief Savings Association of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) to employees who are citizens of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and of which neither the legal recipients nor their proxies or successors have demanded payment up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, shall be disposed of in accordance with the regulations of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) in force up to the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement.

9 Employees who have been dismissed or have retired after the coming into force of the present Agreement shall, during a period of one month from the date of their dismissal or retirement, retain their full rights with regard to their railway lodgings under the same conditions as before.

ARTICLE XII

It is understood that the term "North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway)" includes all the rights, enterprises and properties appurtenant thereto.

ARTICLE XIII

The Governments of Manchoukuo and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, with a view to promote and facilitate the intercourse and traffic between the two countries, shall conclude, within three months from the date of the coming into force of the present Agreement, a separate agreement, which will provide for the settlement of questions concerning the conveyance of passengers, luggage and goods in transit, direct service for passengers, luggage and goods between railway stations of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and those of the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway), and also, technical conditions permitting, direct services without reloading of goods between the Ussuri Railway and the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) via the station of Suifenho.

Within the period of the said three months, the two Governments shall conclude another separate agreement which will provide for telegraphic connection between the telegraphic lines hitherto operated by the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway) and those of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

ARTICLE XIV

The present Agreement shall come into force on the date of its signature.

NOTE GIVEN BY KOKI HIROTA, JAPANESE FOREIGN MINISTER, TO CONSTANTIN YOURENEFF, THE RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR TO JAPAN

Tokyo, March 23, 10 Showa (1935)

Monsieur l'Ambassadeur,

As the result of the guarantee given this day by the Japanese Government to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics regarding the fulfilment by the Government of Manchoukuo of all the obligations of payment which the latter are under in favour of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in accordance with the provisions of the Agreement for the Cession to Manchoukuo of the Rights of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics concerning the North Manchuria Railway (Chinese Eastern Railway),

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signed this day by the Plenipotentiaries of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and Manchoukuo, I have the honour to inform Your Excellency as follows :

In case any difficulties should arise in connection with the execution of payments on the part of the Government of Manchoukuo, the Japanese Government will make every effort necessary under the given circumstances in order that the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics may receive all the payments due to them from the Government of Manchoukuo wholly and within the respective limits of time prescribed by the said Agreement, so that the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics may suffer absolutely no loss in connection with the said difficulties.

I avail myself, etc.

Koki Hirota

His Excellency Monsieur Constantin Youreneff.

CUSTOMS TARIFF LAW AMENDED AND REVISED TO JUNE, 1933

Article I Customs duties shall be levied upon articles imported from foreign countries in accordance with the annexed Tariff.

Article II Duties upon articles charged with ad valorem duty shall be levied on the value on arrival at the time of importation.

Article III With regard to articles, the produce or manufacture of territories not enjoying the benefit of a conventional arrangement, a benefit not exceeding the limits stipulated in such arrangement may, if necessary, be extended to such articles by means of Imperial Ordinance, specifying the territory and articles concerned.

Article IV With regard to the produce or manufactures or exports of, or articles passing through a country where Japanese vessels, produce or manufactures, or articles passing through Japanese territory are subject to a less favourable treatment than the vessels, produce or manufactures of, or articles passing through other countries, such articles may be designated by Imperial Ordinance so that special duties, not exceeding in amount their value, may be imposed upon them, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

Article V With regard to articles benefitting from export bounties in foreign countries, duties corresponding in amount to such bounties may be levied on them by Imperial Ordinance, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

Article V-2 When any important industry in this country is in danger of being injuriously affected by the importation of articles for the purpose of dumping or by the dumping of imported articles, such articles may be designated in accordance with the provisions of Imperial Ordinance after investigation by the Dumping Investigation Committee, and on such articles may be imposed during a specified period of time duties not exceeding in amount their proper value, in addition to the duties enumerated in the annexed Tariff.

In case the articles designated according to the provisions of the foregoing paragraph have already been imported and are owned by or in the possession of a dumper or his agent, the additional duty mentioned in the said paragraph may be collected from such dumper or agent.

The additional duty stipulated in the preceding paragraph shall be collected in the same way as a national tax.

Article VI The import duty on rice, hulled or unhulled, may in case of a famine be reduced by Imperial Ordinance for a specified period to a rate not lower than forty sen per hundred kin.

Article VII The following articles shall be exempt from import duties :—

1 Articles for the use of the Imperial Household.

2 Articles belonging to a foreign ruler and his family and suite, visiting Japan.

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3 Arms, ammunition, and explosives imported by the Army or the Navy.
4 Mineral oils for fuel imported by the Government.
4-b Mineral oils for direct use as fuel, with a specific gravity exceeding 0.904 at 15° C., provided such oils are imported under Government permission according to the provisions of an Ordinance.
5 Warships.
6 Articles for the personal use of foreign Ambassadors and Ministers and other envoys of similar standing accredited to Japan, and articles for the official use of foreign Embassies and Legations in Japan, with the exception of those belonging to countries which enforce restrictions upon the free entry of articles for the personal use of the Japanese Ambassador, Minister or such other envoy, or of articles for the official use of the Japanese Embassy or Legation. In the case of such countries a reciprocal arrangement shall be applied.
7 Articles for the personal use of the staff of the Embassies or Legations in Japan of countries where similar courtesy is extended to the staff of the Japanese Embassy or Legation, and articles for the official use of the Consulates in Japan of countries where similar courtesy is extended to the Japanese Consulates.
8 Decorations, medals and badges presented to persons resident in this country.
9 Records and other documents.
10 Articles that are imported for use as specimens or objects of reference in the schools, museums, commercial museums and other institutions maintained by the Government or a municipality, or in private schools designated by Ordinance, and for the importation of which permission of the Minister of Finance has been obtained.
11 Supplies contributed for the purpose of charity or relief, or articles contributed to orphan asylums, asylums for the old, charity hospitals and such other charity institutions and which are used for the direct purpose of charity.
11-b Articles of use for ceremony or worship contributed to a shrine, temple, church or chapel.
12 Articles of Government monopoly imported by the Government.
13 Samples of merchandise only fit for use as such.
14 Personal effects of travellers, and their professional tools and implements, which the Customs authorities consider proper in view of the personal status of such travellers.
15 Articles sent home by the Imperial military forces, warships, or official missions abroad.
16 Personal effects and household articles in transportation on account of the change of residence, provided such effects and articles have already been used.
17 Exported articles which are reimported within five years unaltered in character and form from what they were at the time of exportation, excepting alcohol, alcoholic liquors, sugar, and those articles which had been exempted from import duty or granted a rebate under the provisions of Article VIII or Article IX.
18 Receptacles specified by Ordinance for containing exports and which are reimported, excepting such as had been exempted from import duty under the provisions of Article VIII.
19 Fish, shell-fish, mollusca, sea animals, sea weeds and other aquatic products caught or gathered by vessels which set out from Japan, and manufactures thereof of a simple process, provided they are imported by such vessels or vessels attached thereto.
20 Articles for ship's use delivered to warships and mercantile vessels bound for foreign countries, except those mentioned in Article X.
21 Wreckage and fittings of shipwrecked Japanese vessels.
22 Articles exported on vessels clearing from Japan but which are brought back owing to the wreckage of such vessels, except those

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articles which had been exempted from import duty or granted a rebate under the provisions of Article VIII or Article IX.

23 Animals for breeding and protective serum or vaccine against animal plague, imported by the State, Do, Fu, Ken or other public bodies, by industrial juridical persons designated by the Government, or by persons under permission of the Government.

Article VIII The following articles are exempted from import duty in case they are to be re-exportd within one year from the date of their importation, but the deposit of security corresponding to the amount of duty may be required at the time of importation :—

1 Articles designated by Ordinance and which are imported to have work done upon them.
2 Receptacles of imported articles, designated by Ordinance.
2-b Articles to be used as receptacles of export goods and designated by Ordinance.
3 Articles imported for repair.
4 Articles imported for the purpose of scientific research.
5 Articles imported for trial.
6 Samples imported for the purpose of procuring orders.
6-b Articles imported as samples of workmanship.
7 Articles for use in public performances imported by travelling public entertainers visiting Japan.
8 Articles imported for exhibiting at an exposition, competition or prize show, etc.

Article IX Import duties on materials to be used for manufacturing export articles designated by Ordinance, may be exempted or refunded, wholly or partly, according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

Import duties on materials to be used for manufacturing lead foil for packing tea, zinc sheet not exceeding 0.17 millimetre, or oil or oil-cake designated by Ordinance, may be exempted or refunded wholly or partly, according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

In case import duties are exempted according to the provisions of the foregoing two paragraphs, the deposit of security corresponding to the amount of duties may be required at the time of importation.

Any person who obtains or attempts to obtain by fraud or other illegal means the refundment mentioned in the first or second paragraph of this Article, shall be dealt with according to the provisions of Article LXXV of the Customs Law.

Article X Iron or steel materials, equipments, parts of equipments, engines or parts of engines, which are to be used for shipbuilding or repair, and which are designated by Ordinance, may be exempted from import duties according to the provisions of the Ordinance.

Article XI The importation of the articles mentioned below is prohibited:—

1 Opium and utensils for smoking opium, excepting those imported by the Government.
2 Counterfeit, altered or imitation coins, paper money, bank-notes and negotiable papers.
3 Books, pictures, carvings and other articles, liable to injure public security or morals.
4 Articles which infringe rights in patents, utility-models, designs and trade-marks, and copyrights.

IMPORT TARIFF OF THE PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES[1]

N. B. In the column of Conventional Tariff, F. denotes France, I. Italy and C. China. Where the duty number is marked *, it means that the articles in question are subject to the provisions of the Luxury Tariff Law.

The extra column for "Specific Duty etc.," is due to the fact that on June, 16, 1932, a law was passed providing that, with certain exceptions, "Specific duties .. .. shall for the time being be assessed at the rate of 135 per cent." The figures in this extra column are calculated on this basis.

1 The rates are variable by order of the Government subject to the Commerce Adjustment and Safeguarding Law, for which see p. 443.

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Tariff rates were amended by Law No. 37, 1935 as follows: 1 Under the item "Artificial musk" in No. 220 two subdivisions were made as under: Musk xylol 100 kin ¥125.00 others Ad val. 35%; 2 Precious stones under No. 412 were also subdivided as under: Precious stones, Precious stones specifically shaped for use in machines or for engineering purposes Ad val. 5%, others Ad val. 10%; 3 Magnesium in No. 463 (2) was altered so as to be read "Magnesium and magnecium alloy"; 4 No. 620 was amended so as to be read: "Platinum, vanadium or catalyzers containing its chemical compound free of duty;" 5 No. 631 concerning vulcanized fibres was amended and is to be read as under:

Vulcanized fibres (rods, plates, sheets, tubes, etc.) 100 kin ¥26.00.

Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff		
		Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	GROUP I			
	Plants and Animals (living)			
1	Plants, twigs, stems, stalks and roots (for planting or grafting)		free	
2	Fungi for culture:			
	1. Saccharifying fungi, known as "Koji"	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
3	Horses	ad val.	5%	
4	Bulls, oxen and cows	"	10%	
5	Sheep		free	
6	Goats		free	
7	Swine	ad val.	20%	
8	Poultry		free	
9	Fish, shellfish and mollusca:			
	1. Fry; shellfish or mollusca, seed and breeding, and roe		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
10	Bees		free	
10–2	Silkworms' eggs		free	
11	Animals, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	20%	
	GROUP II			
	Grains, Flours, Starches and Seeds			
12	Rice and paddy [1]	100 kin	1.00	1.35
13	Barley	"	0.60	0.81
16	Wheat	"	2.50	
17	Oats	"	0.65	0.87
17-2	Millet, (Setaria italica or Setaria italica var. germanica, Panicum Crus galli var. Frumentaceum)	"	0.50	0.67

1 According to the provisions of Article II of the Rice Law, the import duty on rice and paddy shall be 2 yen per 100 kin up to December 31st, 1933 (Amended by Imperial Ordinance No. 378 of 1932).

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
18	Millet, "Kao-liang" (Andropogon vulgaris)	100 kin	1.00	
19	Indian corn	"	1.70	
20	Buckwheat	"	0.50	0.67
21	Beans and pease :			
	1. Soy beans	"	0.70	0.94
	2. Red or white beans, small (Phaseolus subtrilobata)	"	0.55	0.74
	6. Ground nuts :			
	A. Unshelled	"	1.25	1.68
	B. Other	"	1.80	2.43
22	Flours, meals or groats of grains, and starches :			
	1. Wheat flour	"	4.30	
	2. Oatmeal	"	9.55	12.89
	5. Corn starch	"	2.30	3.10
23	Sesame seed	"	0.50	0.67
25	Rapeseed and mustardseed	"	0.85	1.14
26	Linseed		free	
27	Cotton seed		free	
29	Seeds of clover and other pasture grasses		free	
	GROUP III			
	Beverages, Comestibles and Tobacco			
*31	Vegetables, fruits and nuts :			
	1. Preserved with sugar, molasses, syrup or honey	100 kin including receptacles	12.70	17.14
	2. Other :			
	A. Vegetables			
	A–1. preserved in tin	"	7.90	10.66
	A–2. preserved in bottle	"	7.60	10.26
	A–3. preserved in jar	"	1.95	2.63
	A–4. Other	ad val.	30%	
	B. Other :			
	B–1. preserved in tin	100 kin including receptacles	7.25	9.78
	Convention :—			
	Fruits preserved in tin	"	8.50	11.47
	B–2. preserved in bottle	"	3.20	4.32
	B–3. preserved in jar			
	B–4. Other :			
	a. Fresh fruits	100 kin	4.00	5.40
	Convention :—			
	Citrons			
	b. Dried fruits	"	6.90	9.31
	c. Nuts	"	7.85	10.59
	d. Other	ad val.	30%	
31–2	Cocoanuts	100 kin	2.10	2.88

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
32	Tea :			
	1. Black tea	100 kin	88.10	118.93
	2. Black dust tea	"	29.50	39.82
	3. Pouchong tea	"	6.00	8.10
	4. Other	"	10.60	14.31
34	Coffee :			
	1. In the bean	"	15.10	20.38
	2. Other	"	25.10	33.88
35	Chicory and other coffee substitutes	ad val.	35%	
36	Cocoa (not sugared):			
	1. In the bean	100 kin	6.00	8.10
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	26.00	35.10
37	Pepper :			
	1. In the seed	100 kin	7.30	9.85
	2. Other	"	24.60	33.21
38	Curry :			
	1. In powder	"	25.20	34.02
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
39	Mustard :			
	1. In powder	100 kin including receptacles	23.30	36.45
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
40	Sugar :2			
	1. Under No. 11 Dutch standard	100 kin	2.50	3.37
	2. Under No. 22 Dutch standard	"	3.95	5.33
	3. Other	"	5.30	7.15
	Rock candy sugar, cube sugar, loaf sugar, and similar sugar	"	7.40	9.99
42	Molasses :2			
	1. Containing not more than 60% by weight of sugar calculated as cane sugar	"	1.30	1.75
	2. Other	"	2.50	3.37
*45	Confectioneries and cakes	100 kin including receptacles	32.00	43.20
46	Jams, fruit jellies and the like	"	26.30	35.50
47	Biscuits (not sugared)	"	20.40	27.54
48	Macaroni, vermicelli and the like	100 kin	8.80	11.88
49	Fruit-juices and syrups :			
	1. Fruits-juices (sugared) and syrups :			
	A. In bottle or tin	100 kin including receptacles	15.30	20.65
	B. Other	100 kin	10.70	14.44

2 On sugar, molasses and syrups taken delivery of from the factories or bonded districts for the purpose of being consumed in the Empire, consumption tax shall be imposed.

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	11.00	14.85
50	Sauces :			
	1. In cask	100 kin	11.80	15.93
	2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	10.80	14.58
51	Vinegar	100 litres	18.00	24.30
52	Meats, poultry and game :			
	Preserved in tin, bottle or jar	ad val.	25%	
52-2	Fish, shellfish and mollusca :	"	10–20%	
	Sardines in oil	100 kin	28.20	38.07
	Other	ad val.	20%	
53	Butter, artificial butter and ghee	100 kin	50.00	
54	Cheese	"	39.30	53.05
55	Condensed milk :	100 kin including receptacles		
	1. Dried		25.00	
	2. Other	"	15.70	
56	Infant foods	"	24.30	32.80
57	Meat extract	"	86.80	117.18
*60	Mineral waters, soda water, and similar beverages, not containing sugar or alcohol	100 litres	16.00	21.60
*63	Beer, ale, porter and stout	"	16.40	22.14
64	Wines, including port, sherry, vermouth, madeira, marsala, St. Raphael, etc.:			
	In bottle	"	81.90	110.56
65	Champagne and other sparkling wines	"	170.00	229.50
66-2	Salt		free	
68	Tobacco :			
	Cigars, cigarettes and cut tobacco	ad val.	355%	
	GROUP IV			
	Skins, Hairs, Bones, Horns, Teeth, Tusks, Shells and Manufactures thereof			
*70	Fur manufactures, not otherwise provided for	"	50%	
*72	Leather :			
	1. A. Lacquered, japanned or enamelled :			
	a. Plain and black, tannin tanned	ad val.	40%	
	b. Other	"	20%	
	B. Dyed or coloured, excluding roller leather	100 kin	145.00	195.75
	C–1, a. Sole leather : Back, bend, butt, strip	"	27.10	36.58

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	2. Of chamois including imitation chamois leather	100 kin	74.40	100.44
*73	Leather manufactures, not otherwise provided for: Belts, belting and hoses, for machinery	"	37.20	50.22
79	Bones, animal, excluding those for medicinal use		free	
86	Shells of mollusca		free	
87	Tortoise shells		free	
*91	Pearls	ad val.	5%	
92	Sponges	"	20%	
	GROUP V			
	Oils, Fats, Waxes, and Manufactures thereof			
100	Ground nut oil	100 kin	4.60	6.21
101	Soy bean oil	"	2.50	3.37
102	Cotton seed oil	"	4.45	6.00
106	Cod-liver oil	ad val.	20%	
108	Animal fats:			
	1. Lard	100 kin	9.00	12.15
	2. Beef tallow	"	1.20	1.62
112	Mineral oils:			
	1. Crude oil (including topping) and heavy oil (residual): Distillates to 275° C. by fractional distillation:			
	A. Not exceeding 20% by volume	100 American gallons	1.70	2.29
	B. Not exceeding 25% by volume	"	2.05	2.76
	C. Not exceeding 30% by volume	"	2.40	3.24
	D. Not exceeding 35% by volume	"	2.75	3.71
	E. Not exceeding 40% by volume	"	3.10	4.18
	F. Other	"	3.45	4.65
	Note.—Those containing more than 45% are subject to an additional duty at the rate of 7 sen per 100 American gallons for every additional 1%.		*	
	2. Other, including lubricating oils which contain animal and vegetable oils or fats, soap, etc.:			

* The duty on articles under this category is equal to the sum of the general tariff and the additional duty for excess volume as mentioned above, multiplied by 135 per cent. in accordance with Law No. 4 of 1932. In assessing this duty, all fractional amounts less than one sen shall be discarded.

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	The specific gravity at 15° C.:			
	A. Not exceeding 0.8762	100 American gallons	8.00	10.80
	B. Not exceeding 0.9218	"	7.00	9.45
	C. Other	100 kin	1.60	2.16
113	Vaseline :			
	1. Each weighing not more than 1 kilogramme including receptacles	"	15.90	21.46
	2. Other	"	3.50	4.72
114	Paraffin wax :			
	1. Having melting point up to 45° C.:			
	A. In crude form, separated from shale oil		free	
	B. Other	"	6.00	
	2. Other	"	12.00	16.20
*117	Soaps :			
	1. Perfumed	100 kin including inner packings	28.60	38.61
	2. Other	100 kin	5.70	7.69

GROUP VI

Drugs, Chemicals, Medicines, Compounds or Preparations thereof, and Explosives

143	Crude india-rubber, crude gutta-percha and substitutes thereof		free	
144	Gum arabic, shellac, rosin, and other gums and gum resins, not otherwise provided for excluding those for medicinal use		free	
164	Caustic soda and caustic potash:			
	1. Refined	100 kin	12.80	17.28
	2. Other	"	1.50	2.02
165	Soda ash and natural soda	"	0.35	0.47
168	Nitrate of soda (Chili saltpetre):			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
174	Nitrate of potash (saltpetre)	100 kin	3.05	4.11
175	Chloride of and sulphate of potash :			
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
176	Chlorate of potash	100 kin	4.20	
177	Bichromate of potash and bichromate of soda	"	5.10	6.88
189	Sulphate of ammonium :			

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	1. Refined	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other		free	
190	Carbonate of ammonium and bicarbonate of ammonium	100 kin	3.45	4.65
193	Acetate of calcium	"	0.41	0.55
195	Formalin	"	5.10	6.88
196	Wood spirit or methyl alcohol		free	
197	Alcohol	1 litre	1.20	1.62
197-2	Denatured alcohol	"	1.20	1.62
198	Glycerin	100 kin	18.00	24.30
200	Rongalite, blankit, decrolin and similar reducing agents	"	23.70	31.99
202	Milk sugar	"	11.20	15.12
204	Naphthalin		free	
208	Chemical products derived from coal-tar distillates (excluding carbolic acid, salicylic acid, bakelite, medicines and flavours other than benzaldehyde, nitrobenzol and nitrotoluol):			
	1. Aniline and aniline-salt	"	14.50	19.57
	2. Beta-naphthol	"	18.70	25.24
	3. Oxynaphthoic acid and its derivatives	"	100.00	135.00
	4. Other	ad val.	35%	
209-2	Antipyrin	100 kin	82.00	110.70
209-3	Pyramidon	"	161.00	217.35
212	Hydrochlorate of quinine	"	135.00	182.25
212-2	Sulphate of quinine	"	60.00	81.00
217	Casein		free	
*222	Tooth powders, tooth washes, toilet powders, and other prepared perfumeries, not otherwise provided for	"	50%	
228	Gelatin capsules	100 kin including inner packings	90.20	121.77
228-2	Wafers	ad val.	30%	
229	Drugs, chemicals and medicines, not otherwise provided for	"	20%	
230	Compounds or preparations of drugs, chemicals and medicines, not otherwise provided for	"	30%	
231	Explosives :			
	1. Gunpowder	100 kin	29.50	39.82
	2. Dynamite	"	11.00	14.85
	3. Detonators	100 kin including inner packings	37.00	49.95
	4. Fuses	100 kin	37.40	50.49
	5. Other	ad val.	30%	
232	Cartridges, loaded with explosives :			
	1. With bullets or shots :			

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	A. Of metal shells	100 kin including inner packings	48.80	65.88
	B. Other	"	27.10	36.58
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
233	Projectiles, loaded with explosives	"	30%	
	GROUP VII			
	Dyes, Pigments, Coatings, and Filling matters			
236	Indigo, natural :			
	1. Dry	100 kin	33.70	45.49
	2. In liquid or paste	ad val.	20%	
240	Logwood extract	100 kin	1.85	2.49
242	Artificial indigo	"	40.00	54.00
243	Synthetic colours, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Basic colours	"	155.00	209.25
	2. Direct cotton colours	"	107.00	144.45
	3. Acid colours	"	135.00	182.25
	4. Mordant colours and acid mordant colours	"	108.00	145.80
	5. Sulphide colours	"	78.00	105.30
	6. Vat colours	"	188.00	253.80
	7. Oil soluble colours	"	100.00	135.00
	8. Other	ad val.	35%	
249	White lead, red lead and litharge	100 kin	2.80	3.78
255	Carbon black	"	3.40	
256	Lacquer	"	6.80	9.18
257	Varnishes	"	19.40	26.19
258–2	Coal-tar		free	
259	Pitch and asphalt	"	0.40	
259–2	Manufactures of coal-tar, of pitch or of asphalt for construction or repair of road	"	0.40	
260	Shoe polishes	100 kin including receptacles	13.60	18.36
261	Pencils :			
	1. Not cased (slender strips of graphite or of colours)	ad val.	20%	
	2. Other, excluding those with metal sheaths :			
	A. Cased with wood or paper	1 gross	1.45	1.95
	B. Other	ad val.	25%	
262	Inks :			
	1. For copying or writing	100 kin including receptacles	8.35	11.27

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	2. For printing :			
	A. In liquid or paste :			
	A-1. In barrel :			
	a. Black	100 kin	3.45	4.65
	b. Other	ad val.	25%	
	A-2. Other	100 kin including receptacles	21.50	29.02
	B. Solid	100 kin	111.00	149.85
	3. Other	ad val.	25%	
266	Paints :			
	1. Copper paints, international compositions, anticorrosive paints, and similar ship's bottom paints	100 kin	7.45	10.05
	GROUP VIII			
	Yarns, Threads, Twines, Cordages, and Materials thereof			
271	Cotton in the seed or ginned, including carded or combed cotton		free	
272	Cotton yarns (excluding special cotton yarns, otherwise provided for):			
	1. Single or two fold :			
	A. Gray, including gassed yarns :			
	a. Not exceeding No. 24 English	100 kin	3.75	5.06
	b. Not exceeding No. 42 English	"	4.15	5.60
	c. Not exceeding No. 60 English	"	6.15	8.30
	d. Not exceeding No. 80 English	"	7.15	9.65
	e. Other	"	7.35	9.92
	B. Bleached simply	Duty on gray yarn with an addition of 1 yen per 100 kin**		
	C. Other	Duty on gray yarn with an addition of 3 yen per 100 kin**		

* The specific duty on articles under these two headings is equal to the sum of the general tariff for "Gray" and the additional amount respectively mentioned above, multiplied by 135 per cent. in accordance with Law No. 4 of 1932. In assessing the duty, all fractional amounts less than one sen shall be discarded.

** The specific duty on articles under these two headings is equal to the sum of the general tariff for "Undyed or unprinted" and the additional amount respectively mentioned above, multiplied by 135 per cent. in accordance with Law No. 4 of 1932. In assessing the duty, all fractional amounts less than one sen shall be discarded.

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	2. Other :			
	A. Gray, including gassed yarns	100 kin	39.20	52.92
	B. Other	"	41.20	55.62
272–2	Special cotton yarns :			
	1. Unusually twisted yarns, including voile yarns, crape yarns exceeding No. 42 English, etc.		free	
	2. Mule cop yarns, single		free	
	3. Yarns exceeding No. 100 English		free	
273	Cotton twines not exceeding 8 grammes per 10 metres, and cotton threads :			
	1. In skein, gray	100 kin	39.20	52.92
	2. Reeled on wooden spool	100 kin including spools	7.10	94.63
	3. Other	ad val.	30%	
274	Flax, China-graas, ramie, hemp, jute, and other vegetable fibres not otherwise provided for		free	
275	Linen yarns :			
	1. Single :			
	A. Gray	100 kin	10.75	14.51
	B. Other	"	11.40	15.39
	2. Other :			
	A. Gray	"	40.90	55.21
	B. Other	"	44.90	60.61
279	Hemp yarns	ad val.	10%	
280	Jute yarns	"	10%	
282	Sheep's wool, goat's hair and camel's hair :			
	1. Carded or combed	100 kin	14.50	19.57
	2. Other :		free	
283	Woollen or worsted yarns :			
	1. Undyed or unprinted :			
	A. Yarns made by twisting woollen and worsted yarns together	100 kin	33.10	44.68
	B. Yarns made by twisting those of different number together and loop yarns	"	33.10	44.68
	C. Other :			
	C–1. Worsted :			
	a. Not exceeding No. 32 metric	"	27.70	37.39
	b. Other	"	32.40	43.74
	C–2. Woollen	"	22.50	30.37
	2. Other	Duty on undyed or unprinted yarns with an addition of 2.50 yen per 100 kin		

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
284	Mixed yarns of cotton and wool :			
	1. Undyed or unprinted	100 kin	17.50	23.62
	2. Other	Duty on undyed or unprinted yarns with an addition of 3.00 yen per 100 kin		
287	Raw silk, including thrown silk :			
	1. Wild silk		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
288	Spun silk yarns :			
	1. Of wild silk		free	
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
289	Silk threads	"	30%	
290	Artificial silk	100 kin	75.00	101.25
	GROUP IX			
	Tissues and Manufactures thereof			
298	Tissues of cotton :			
	1. Velvets, plushes and other pile tissues, piles cut or uncut	100 kin	83.10	112.18
	2. Tissues woven with chenille threads	ad val.	20%	
	3. Flannels and other raised tissues	100 kin	29.50	39.82
	4. Crêpes	ad val.	20%	
	5. Gauze tissues	"	20%	
	6. Tissues interwoven with laces	"	20%	
*301	Tissues of wool, and mixed tissues of wool and cotton, of wool and silk, or of wool, cotton and silk :			
	1. Velvets, plushes and other pile tissues, with piles, cut or uncut :			
	A. Partly of silk	100 kin	180.00	243.00
	B. Other	"	50.00	67.50
	2. Other			
	A. Of wool			
	b. Weighing not more than 200 grammes per square metre	"	97.50	131.62
	c. Weighing not more than 500 grammes per square metre		90.00	121.50
	B. Of wool and cotton :			
	b. Weighing not more than 200 grammes per square metre	"	52.50	70.87

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	c. Weighing not more than 500 grammes per square metre	100 kin	60.40	81.54
*303	Silk tissues, and silk mixed tissues : 1—A Of silk	"	520.00—	702.00—
*305	Stockinet and similar knitted tissues, raised or not :			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	45%	
307	Felts :			
	1. Of wool, or wool and cotton	100 kin	90.50	122.17
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
*308	Embroidered tissues	"	40%	
309	Bookbinders' cloth	100 kin	34.00	45.90
314	Leather cloth or oil cloth	"	44.00	59.40
315	Oil cloth for floor, or linoleum	"	11.40	15.39
318	Emery cloth, including glass cloth	"	7.85	10.59
*319	Waterproof tissues coated or inserted with india rubber :			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	40%	
	2. Other	100 kin	58.20	78.57
323	Typewriter ribbons	ad val.	25%	
*324	Handkerchiefs, single :			
	1. Of cotton	100 doz.	48.70	65.74
	2. Of flax	"	83.70	112.99
	3. Of flax and cotton	ad val.	25%	
	4. Wholly or partly of silk	"	50%	
	5. Other	"	25%	
325	Towels, single :			
	1. Of cotton	100 kin	78.10	105.43
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
326	Blankets, single	100 kin	49.20	66.42
*327	Travelling rugs, single :			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	"	232.00	313.20
	2. Other	"	139.00	187.65
332	Mosquito nets	ad val.	35%	
337	Woven belting for machinery and woven hoses :			
	1. Of cotton	100 kin	47.50	64.12
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
339	Gunny bags	100 kin	2.55	3.44
341	Rags		free	
	GROUP X			
	Clothing and Accessories thereof			
*344	Raincoats :			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	2. Other	100 kin	312.00	421.20
*345	Shirts, fronts, collars and cuffs	"	134.00	180.90
*346	Undershirts and drawers :			

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	1. Knitted :	100 kin	166.00	224.10
	A. Of cotton	ad val.	25%	
	B. Of wool, or wool and cotton	"	50%	
	C. Wholly or partly of silk	"	25%	
	D. Other			
	2. Other :	"	50%	
	A. Wholly or partly of silk	"	35%	
	B. Other			
*347	Gloves :			
	1. Of leather	100 kin	450.00	607.50
	2. Of leather and other materials except silk	"	179.00	241.65
	3. Of cotton, of flax, of cotton and flax, of wool or of wool and cotton	"	226.00	305.10
	4. Wholly or partly of silk	"	949.00	1,281.15
	5. Of india rubber	ad val.	25%	
	6. Other	"	40%	
*348	Stockings and socks :			
	1. Of cotton, of wool or of wool and cotton	100 kin	232.00	313.20
	2. Of flax or of cotton and flax	"	138.00	186.30
	3. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	4. Other	"	40%	
*349	Shawls, comforters and mufflers :			
	1. Mufflers :			
	A. Of silk	100 kin	853.00	1,151.55
	B. Partly of silk	"	530.00	715.50
	C. Other	ad val.	40%	
	2. Other :			
	A. Of cotton, of flax, of China grass, of wool or of wool and cotton	100 kin	159.00	214.65
	B. Of silk	"	750.00	1,012.50
	C. Partly of silk excluding those combined with furs or feathers	"	400.00	540.00
	D. Wholly or partly of furs or feathers	ad val.	50%	
	E. Other	"	40%	
*350	Neckties :			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	1 kin	11.40	15.39
	2. Other	"	3.55	4.79
*354	Hats and hat bodies, caps, bonnets and hoods :			
	A–a. Silk hats and opera hats			
	B–1. Felt Hats	1 doz.	28.80	38.88
	a. Of sheep's wool	"	7.50	10.12
	b. Other	"	15.80	21.33
*355	Boots, shoes, slippers, sandals, clogs, and the like :			
	1. Boots :			

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932
			Yen	Yen
	A. Of leather	100 kin	134.00	180.90
	B. Of india-rubber	"	65.70	88.69
	C. Other	ad val.	40%	
	2. Shoes :			
	A. Of leather	100 kin	135.00	182.25
	B. Of canvas or duck :			
	a. With leather sole	"	86.70	117.04
	b. Other	"	57.80	78.03
	C. Wholly or partly of silk	ad val.	50%	
	D. Other	"	40%	
	5. Slippers :			
	A. Of leather	"	119.00	160.65
	B. Of tissues :			
	B-1. Wholly or partly of silk	"	50%	
	B-2. Of felt :			
	a. With leather sole	100 kin	76.40	103.14
	b. Other	ad val.	40%	
	B-3. Other	"	40%	
	C. Other	"	40%	
357	Buttons, excluding those made of or combined with precious metals, metals coated with precious metals precious stones, semi-precious stones, pearls, corals, elephant's ivory or tortoise shells :			
	1. Buttons for cuffs or shirts	"	35%	
	2. Other :			
	A. Covered	100 kin including inner packings	137.00	184.95
	B. Of metal	"	54.50	73.57
	C. Of porcelain or glass	ad val.	35%	
	D. Of ivory nut, including imitations	"	35%	
	E. Of bone or horn	"	35%	
	F. Other	"	35%	
•359	Jewellery for personal adornment	ad val.	50%	

GROUP XI

Pulp for paper making, Papers, Paper manufactures, Books, and Pictures

361	Pulp for paper making :			
	1. Mechanical pulp	100 kin	0.22	0.29
	2. Other	"	0.27	0.36
362	Printing paper :			
	1. Art paper	"	6.60	8.91
	2. Other :			

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	A. Coloured in the paste	100 kin	1.55	2.09
	B. Other :			
	a. Weighing not more than 58 grammes per square metre	"	1.00	
	b. Other	"	2.20	2.97
363	Writing paper	"	4.55	6.14
364	Drawing paper	"	7.50	10.12
365	Blotting paper	"	4.90	6.61
367	Packing paper and match paper, excluding tissue paper	"	2.40	3.24
370	Pasteboard or cardboard	"	1.75	2.36
372	Imitation Japanese paper and tissue paper	"	3.25	4.38
373	Imitation parchment, paraffin paper and wax paper			
	1. Covered with, or with application of metal foil or metal powder, embossed or printed	"	3.85	5.19
	2. Other	"	3.20	4.32
382	Note paper in box	100 kin including boxes	30.30	40.90
383	Envelopes :			
	1. In box, including those accompanying note paper	100 kin including boxes	31.60	42.66
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
386	Baryta paper, albuminized paper and sensitized papers for photograph :			
	1. Baryta paper	100 kin including inner packings	8.55	11.54
	2. Albuminized paper	"	85.60	115.56
	3. Bromide paper and platinum paper	"	134.00	180.90
	4. Other	ad val.	40%	
387	Carbon paper	100 kin	27.30	36.85
*390	Playing cards[1]	"	113.00	152.55
391	Photographs	ad val.	50%	
393	Card calendars and block calendars	"	50%	
*394	Picture post-cards	100 kin	52.40	70.74
*395	Christmas cards and the like	ad val.	50%	

GROUP XII

Minerals and Manufactures thereof

405–2	Carborundum, alundum and similar artificial mineral sub-			

1 Playing cards are subject to a further tax of fifty sen per set according to the Playing Cards Tax Law.

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	stances for grinding or polishing	100 kin	2.10	2.83
408	Grindstones or whetstones :			
	1. Artificial	"	21.50	29.02
	2–B. Other	ad val.	10%	
*412	Precious stones (amended by Law No. 37, 1935)			
	1. Precious stones specifically shaped for use in machines or for engineering purposes	ad val.	5%	
	2. Others	" "	10%	
*413	Semi-precious stones, and manufactures thereof not otherwise provided for :	"	5–50%	
418	Asbestos, and manufactures thereof not otherwise provided for :			
	1. In lump, powder or fibre		free	
	2. Yarn	100 kin	15.00	
	3. Board :			
	A. Mixed with india-rubber	"	15.00	
	B. Other	"	4.05	5.46
	4. Other	"	30.00	
429	Coal		free	
430	Cokes	10,000 kin	5.65	7.62
432	Portland cement, Roman cement, puzzolana cement, and similar hydraulic cements	100 kin	0.15	0.20
433	Manufactures of cement :			
	1. Board, for roofing or wall (including tiles)	ad val.	30%	
	2. Other :			
	A. Unpolished, uncoated or uncoloured	"	30%	
	B. Other	"	35%	
	GROUP XIII			
	Potteries, Glass and Glass Manufactures			
436	Bricks, excluding cement bricks :			
	1. Fire bricks	100 kin	0.45	0.60
	2. Other :			
	A. Glazed or coloured	ad val.	20%	
	B. Other :			
	a. Perforated	"	15%	
	b. Other	"	15%	
437–2	Alundum tiles and the like	"	20%	

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932
			Yen	Yen
443	Glass rods and glass tubes :			
	1. Of fused silica	ad val.	15%	
	2. Other	100 kin	18.00	24.30
444	Plate or sheet glass :	100 sq. metres	11.80–220.00	15.93–297.00
445	Plate glass having inlaid metal wire or net	"	55.20	74.52
448	Spectacle glass, cast or cut	ad val.	30%	
449	Optical lenses or prisms, without frames or handles :			
	1. Unpolished	"	20%	
	2. Other	"	30%	
452	Dry plates for photographs :			
	1. Undeveloped	100 kin including inner packings	33.00	44.55
	2. Other	ad val.	30%	
*453	Spectacles and eyeglasses :		35–50%	
*454	Looking glasses or mirrors :		35–50%	

GROUP XIV

Ores and Metals

458	Ores (including those calcined), matte, bottom and slag		free
459	Platinum, iridium, osmium, palladium, rhodium, indium and ruthenium		free
460	Gold :		
	I. Ingots, slabs, grains, plates, sheets and bands		free
	2. Tubes and wire	ad val.	20%
	3. Foils	"	25%
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free
461	Silver :		
	1. Ingots, slabs, plates, sheets and bands		free
	2. Tubes and wire	ad val.	20%
	3. Foils	"	25%
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free
462	Iron (excluding special steel, otherwise provited for):		
	1. In lumps, ingots, blooms, billets and slabs :		
	A. Pig iron	100 kin	0.36
	B. Spiegeleisen, ferro-manganese and other non-malleable iron alloys	ad val.	10%
	C. Other :		

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	C–1. Sheet bars, including tinplate bars	100 kin	0.50	0.67
	C–2. Other	ad val.	15%	
	2. Bars or rods, including those having such a shape, as T, angle, etc.	100 kin	1.10	1.48
	3. Rails (including fish-plates)	"	0.95	1.28
	4. Wire rods, in coils	"	1.30	
	5. Plates and sheets :			
	A. Not coated with metals :			
	A–1. Not exceeding 0.7 millimetre in thickness :			
	a. Silicon steel sheets, containing not less than 1% by weight of silicon	"	0.30	0.40
	b. Other	"	1.95	2.63
	A–2. Not exceeding 3 millimetres in thickness	"	1.40	1.89
	A–3. Other	"	1.10	1.48
	B. Coated with base metals :			
	B–1. Tinned (tinned iron sheets and tinned steel sheets)	"	0.70	0.94
	B–2. Galvanized	"	2.85	3.84
	B–3. Other	ad val.	20%	
	6. Wires, coated or not with base metals	"	25%	
	11. Wire ropes and twisted wires, coated or not with base metals	100 kin	5.50	7.42
	13. Pipes and tubes, not otherwise provided for :			
	A. Not coated with metals :			
	A–1. Elbows and joints	ad val.	18%	
	A–2. Other :			
	a. Cast	100 kin	1.00	1.35
	b. Other :			
	b–1. Not exceeding 150 millimetres in inner diameter	ad val.	18%	
	b–2. Other	"	15%	
	B. Coated with base metals	ad val.	20%	
	14. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
462–2	Special steel :	"	18%	
462–3	Pipes and tubes, of iron		free	
463	Aluminium :			
	1. Ingots, slabs and grains	100 kin	3.20	4.32

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	2. Bars or rods, plates and sheets	100 kin	18.50	24.97
	3. Wires and tubes	ad val.	20%	
	4. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing	"	5%	
463–2	Magnesium and magnecium alloy	100 kin	49.50	
464	Copper	"	7.00–21.20	9.45–28.62
		ad val.	30%	
465	Lead :			
	Ingots and slabs	100 kin	0.40	0.54
466	Tin :			
	Ingots and slabs	"	3.75	5.06
467	Zinc :			
	Ingots, slabs and grains	"	3.00	4.05
468	Nickel :			
	Ingots and grains		free	
471	Brass and bronze :			
	Ingots and slabs	"	7.00	9.45
476	Aforementioned metals having a form not otherwise provided for, and metals not otherwise provided for :			
	5. Waste or old, fit only for re-manufacturing	ad val.	10%	

GROUP XV

Metal Manufactures

477	Nails, wood screws, bolts, nuts, rivets, and the like, excluding those made of, or combined or coated with precious metals :			
	1. Iron nails :			
	Not coated with metals	100 kin	2.40	3.24
	3. Iron wood screws	"	5.85	7.89
	4. Brass wood screws and bronze wood screws	"	31.80	42.93
	5. Iron bolts, iron nuts and iron washers	"	3.70	4.99
	6. Iron rivets	"	3.65	4.92
477-2	Bearing balls	"	20.00	27.00
479	Metal nets or nettings	"	5.85–74.90	7.89–101.11
482	Materials for railway construction, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Tie-plates and sleepers	100 kin	2.15	2.90
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
483	Posts and other materials for suspending electric lines, not otherwise provided for :			

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	1. Posts and parts thereof	ad val.	18%	
	2. Other :			
	A. Of iron	100 kin	12.40	16.74
	B. Other	"	29.20	39.42
484	Materials for construction of buildings, bridges, vessels, docks, etc., not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Solely of iron including those coated with base metals	"	3.60	4.86
	2. Other	ad val.	25%	
485–2	Iron cylinders for filling compressed gases	100 kin	4.25	5.73
*491	Chains for watches, spectacles, eyeglasses or other personal adornment :			
	1. Of gold or platinum	"	50%	
	2. Gilt	1 kin	18.00	24.30
	3. Other	ad val.	50%	
496	Mechanics' tools, agricultural implements and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for :	100 kin	4.75–44.30	6.41–59.80
497	Drills, bits, reamers and screw taps, not having handles or frames	ad val.	24%	
*499	Cutlery, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Made of, or combined or coated with precious metals			
	2. Other :	ad val.	50%	
	A. Pocket knives :			
	a. With handles made of or combined with elephant's ivory, mother of pearl or tortoise shells, or enamelled	100 pieces	20.90	28.21
	b. Other	"	15.10	20.38
	B. Table knives :			
	a. With handles made of or combined with elephant's ivory, mother of pearl or tortoise shells, or enamelled	"	47.40	63.99
	b. Other	"	15.20	20.52
	C. Razors :			
	a. With handles	"	40.40	54.54
	b. Other :			
	b–1. Safety-razor blades	"	1.00	
	b–2. Other	ad val.	35%	
	D. Other	"	35%	

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
*500	Table forks or spoons :			
	1. Made of, or combined or coated with precious metals	ad val.	50%	
	2. Other :			
	A. Forks	100 pieces	12.90	17.41
	B. Spoons	100 kin	158.00	213.30
505	Sewing or knitting needles, and pins, excluding those for personal adornment :			
	1. Hand-sewing needles	100 kin	191.00	257.85
	2. Sewing machine needles	"	464.00	626.40
	3. Knitting machine needles	"	249.00	336.15
	4. Other	ad val.	30%	
506	Pens :			
	1. Of gold	1 doz.	6.70	9.04
	2. Other	1 gross	0.25	0.33
515	Electric stoves, electric smoothing iron and similar electric heaters	ad val.	35%	
517	Bedsteads and parts thereof	100 kin	15.80	21.33
518	Safes and cash boxes	ad val.	35%	
522	Manufactures of copper, brass or bronze, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Coated with base metals	"	35%	
	2. Other	100 kin	127.00	171.45
524	Iron manufactures, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Enamelled	"	23.00	31.05
	2. Coated with base metals	ad val.	35%	
	3. Other :			
	A. Cast :			
	a. Each weighing not more than 5 kilogrammes	100 kin	19.60	26.46
	b. Each weighing not more than 50 kilogrammes	"	10.20	13.77
	c. Other	"	7.80	10.53
	B. Other :			
	a. Each weighing not more than 5 kilogrammes	"	45.10	60.88
	b. Each weighing not more than 50 kilogrammes	"	20.70	27.94
	c. Other	"	14.00	18.90

GROUP XVI

Clocks, Watches, Scientific instruments, Fire arms, Vehicles, Vessels and Machinery

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932
			Yen	Yen
*526	Watches	1 piece	1.05–15.90	1.75–21.46
527	Parts of watches			
	1. Cases, including those having glasses	1 piece	0.40–15.00	0.54–20.25
*533	Binoculars and monoculars	1 kin	15.00–3.00	
534	Telescopes	"	3.10	4.18
		ad val.	20%	
535	Microscopes and parts thereof	"	20%	
537	Balances, with weights or not :			
	1. Platform balances	"	15%	
	2. Other	"	20%	
541	Thermometers :			
	1. Clinical thermometers, in case or not :			
	A. With enclosed scale	1 kin including cases	2.30	3.10
	B. Other	"	6.60	8.91
	2. Other	ad val.	20%	
542	Barometers :			
	1. Barographs	"	20%	
	2. Aneroid barometers	100 kin	107.00	144.45
	3. Other	ad val.	20%	
550–3	Typewriters and parts thereof	100 kin	94.00	126.90
551	Philosophical instruments and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	20%	
552	Magic lanterns, cinematograph projectors and parts thereof	ad val.	40%	
*553	Photographic instruments :			
	1. For cinematographs	"	40%	
	2. For microscopes or aircraft	"	20%	
	3. Other	"	50%	
*554	Parts of photographic instruments :			
	1. Lenses	"	30%	
	2. Cameras :			
	A. For cinematographs	"	40%	
	B. For microscopes or aircraft	"	20%	
	C. Other	"	50%	
	3. Screens for half-tone process	"	20%	
	4. Other	"	50%	
*555	Phonographs, gramophones and other talking machines	"	50%	
*556	Parts and accessories of phonographs, gramophones and other talking machines :			
	1. Discs or cylinders for music:			
	A. With music record thereon	100 kin	74.30	100.30

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff		
		Units	Rates of Duty	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932
			Yen	Yen
	B. Other	100 kin	57.40	77.49
	2. Other	ad val.	50%	
557	Musical instruments :			
	1. Pianos :			
	A. Grand	100 kin	86.70	117.04
	B. Other	"	60.90	82.21
	2. Organs	"	57.40	77.49
	3. Harmonicas	100 pieces	25.00	33.75
	4. Other	ad val.	40%	
559	Telegraphic or telephonic instruments and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Radio receiving sets and parts thereof	"	40%	
	2. Other	"	20%	
560	Fire-arms and parts thereof :			
	1. Rifles and sporting guns	ad val.	40%	
	2. Pistols or revolvers	1 piece	5.35	7.22
	3. Other	ad val.	40%	
561	Railway carriages and other vehicles, running on rails, not otherwise provided for	"	30%	
563	Automobiles	"	50%	
564	Parts of automobiles, excluding motive machinery	"	42%	
565	Cycles :			
	1. Motor-cycles :			
	A. With motive machinery	1 piece	93.60	126.36
	B. Other	"	77.60	104.76
	2. Other	"	25.80	34.83
567	Vehicles and parts thereof, not otherwise provided for	ad val.	35%	
568	Vessels :			
	1. Propelled by mechanical power or sails, excluding those whose capacity is not to be measured by tonnage:			
	A. Not exceeding 20 years of ship's age	1 gross ton	15.00	20.25
	B. Other	"	20.00	27.00
	2. Other	ad val.	15%	
569	Steam boilers (mechanical stokers are subject to the rate under No. 571):			
	1. Of cast iron	100 kin	5.00	6.75
	2. Other	"	8.00	10.80
571	Mechanical stokers	"	6.10	8.23
571-2	Fuel economizers	"	3.35	4.52
573	Locomotives and tenders, running on rails :			
	1. Locomotives :			
	A. Propelled by steam power	"	12.00	16.20

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
	B. Other	100 kin	15.90	21.46
	2. Tenders	ad val.	20%	
574	Steam locomotives not running on rails and portable steam engines	100 kin	10.40	14.04
577	Internal combustion engines : For automobiles and cycles	ad val.	35%	
579	Dynamos, electric motors, rotary converters, frequency changers, rotary phase converters and armatures	100 kin	15.80–42.40	21.33–57.24
579–2	Transformers	"	7.00–	9.45–
		"	25.00	35.10
588	Sewing machines : 1. Without stands, including tops of sewing machines	"	16.30	22.00
	2. Other	"	11.10	14.98
591	Pumps, not otherwise provided for :	"	10.10–18.70	13.63–25.24
596	Metal or wood working machinery, not otherwise provided for, including rolling machines, drawing machines, nail-making machines, moulding machines, flanging machines, revetting machines, etc.	"	8.00–	10.80–
597	Spinning machines, preparatory machines for spinning or weaving, and yarn finishing or twisting machines, including ginning machines, scouring machines, bundling machines, etc.	"	84.40	113.94
		"	6.90	9.31
598	Weaving looms : 1. Of metal	"	5.85	7.89
	2. Other	ad val.	15%	
599	Tissue finishing machines	100 kin	10.70	14.44
600	Knitting machines : 1. Each weighing not more than 500 kilogrammes	100 kin	43.80	59.13
	2. Other	"	25.60	34.56
602	Paper making machines and preparatory machines for paper making	ad val.	20%	
603	Printing machines : 1. Each weighing not more than 250 kilogrammes	"	20%	
	2. Other	100 kin	16.50	22.27

GROUP XVII

Miscellaneous Articles

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
*612	Wood :			
	A–2. Tagayasan (Baryxylum rufum, Lour), red or rose wood, red sandal wood and ebony wood (excluding ebony wood with white streaks)	100 kin	0.50	0.67
	D. Mahogany	ad val.	5%	
	E. Oak	"	5%	
	F. Pine, fir, cedar, and other conifers :			
	F–2. Chamæcyparis (white cedar, yellow cedar, etc.)	1 cubic metre	5.40–9.85	7.29–13.29
	F–3. Thuja (red cedar, etc.) and Tsuga (hemlock, etc.)	"	3.30–	4.45–
		"	6.25	8.43
	F–4. Abies (todomatsu, etc.), Picea (ezomatsu, spruce, etc.), Pinus (benimatsu, etc.), and Larix (karamatsu, etc.)	"	2.70–	3.64–
		"	4.45	6.00
	F–5. Other (Douglas fir, etc.)	"	6.90–free	
619	Carbon for electrical use, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. In powder or granule	100 kin	8.30	11.20
	2. Other :			
	A. Each weighing not more than 300 grammes	ad val.	20%	
	B. Other	100 kin	8.30	11.20
*624	Umbrella sticks, walking sticks, whips and their handles	ad val.	40–50%	
*625	Umbrellas and parasols :			
	1. Wholly or partly of silk	"	50%	
	2. Of paper	100 pieces	12.20	16.47
	3. Other	ad val.	35%	
630	Waste or old india-rubber and gutta-percha, fit only for re-manufacturing		free	
632	Celluloid and manufactures thereof, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. In lumps, bands, bars, or rods, plates, sheets, tubes, etc.	100 kin	56.00	75.60
	2. Combs	100 kin including inner packings	355.00	479.25
	3. Other	ad val.	35%	

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Nos.	ARTICLES	General Tariff Units	Rates of Duty Yen	Specific Duty by Law No. 4, 1932 Yen
632–2	Waste or old celluloid, fit only for re-manufacturing	100 kin	56.00	
*634	Brushes and brooms :	ad val.	50–35%	
635	Lamps, lanterns and parts thereof	"	40–20%	
*636	Films for photographs :			
	1. Sensitized	1 kin including inner packings	1.00	1.35
	2. Developed	"	8.25	11.13
	3. Other	ad val.	40%	
*640	Articles for billiards, tennis, cricket, chess and other games, and accessories thereof :			
	1. Articles for tennis, baseball, football and other outdoor exercises and accessories thereof	"	25%	
	2. Other	"	50%	
*641	Toys	"	50%	
643	Fodder		free	
644	Wheat bran		free	
646	Manures, including oil cakes, uneatable dried fish, bone dust, dried blood, guano, superphosphate of lime, calcium cyanamide, etc.		free	
647	Articles, not otherwise provided for :			
	1. Raw	ad val.	10%	
	2. Other			
	A.	"	50%	
	B.	"	35%	

LIST OF CLUBS, SOCIETIES, ASSOCIATIONS, ETC.

POLITICAL AND MILITARY

CHOSEN JIJO KENKYUKAI (The Korean Affairs Association). Established in 1921; Junryo Ushimaru, president. The Association aims to inform Koreans the home affairs through its organ paper "Chosen Chugai Jiho" (Korean Times for Home and Abroad). Address: 34 Wakakusa-machi, Seoul, Chosen.

DAI ASIA KYOKAI Kazunobu Kanokogi and others are directors. The society works for the unification of Asiatic countries. Issues "Dai Asia Shugi" (Great Asianism). Address: Osaka Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIBOGIKAI (The Coastal Defence Volunteers' Association). Established in 1922; Otojiro Ito, president; membership 3,200. The object of the association is to study matters in connection with the coastal defence of Japan. Address: Shisei Kaikan, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIGUN KYOKAI (The Navy Association). Established in 1926; Viscount Makoto Saito, president. The Association is trying to spread a knowledge of the navy of Japan. Address: Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIKOSHA (Military Club). Established in 1877; General Senjuro Hayashi, president. The purpose is to keep friendly relations among army officers as well as to cultivate the spirit

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of patriotism. Address: 2 Iidamachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKUMIN BOKU KYOKAI (The National Aerial Defence Association). Address: 775 Sendagaya, Tokyo.

KOKUMIN SOZEI KYOKAI (The National Tax-Payers' Association). Established in 1923; Nihei Otani, president; membership 7,500. The object is to spread knowledge of taxation in Japan. Address: 7 Nishi-Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

OSAKA TOSHI KYOKAI (The Association for the Study of Municipal Problems of Osaka). Established in 1925; Takéo Kagami, president; membership 3,000. The aim is to study every problem pertaining to cities. Address: Osaka City Hall, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

SUIKOSHA (The Naval Club). Established in 1876; Admiral Minéo Osumi, president; membership 11,500. The purpose of the club is to study marine affairs and keep mutual friendship among members. Address: 13 Saekicho, Shiba, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU ZAIGO GUNJINKAI (The Ex-service Men Association). Etablisshed in 1907; General Soroku Suzuki, president; membership 3,000,000. The purpose is to keep up the spirit of the Japanese soldiery. Address: 1 Kudan, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO SHISEI KYOKAI (The Tokyo Municipal Administration Society). Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president. Address: 2 Uchi-yamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOSHI KYOKAI (The Association for the Study of Municipal Problems). Established in 1917; Fumio Goto, president; membership about 5,000. Address: 1 Otemachi, Koji-machi, Tokyo.

YOYOKAI Established in 1923; Saburo Momotaké, director. Social friendship among naval officers is the aim of the society. Address: Care of Sagawa, 23 Kasumicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

YUSHUKAI Established in 1925; Admiral Ryokitsu Arima, president. The purpose of the Society is to study various problems of the Japanese navy.

ZENKOKU CHOSONCHO KAI (The All-Japan Town and Village Masters' Society). Tsutomu Okazaki, president. The aim of the society is to study every problem concerning town and village administration. Address: 8 Sankocho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

INTERNATIONAL AND DIPLOMATIC

BERUGI KYOKAI (La Société Belgo-Japonaise). Estalished in 1912; Baron Sumizo Otera, president; membership 200. The purpose is to keep friendship between Japan and Belgium. Address: 60 2-chomé, Nagatacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

EIKOKU KYOKAI (The British Society). Established in 1928; Prince Chichibu, president; membership 275. Address: 1 Enokimachi, Akasaka, Tokyo.

JAPANO-SIAM KYOKAI Katsutaro Inahata, president. The object is to promote the commercial development between two countries. Address: The Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Kitaku, Osaka.

KAIGAI IJU KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Emigration Associations). Established in 1927; membership 32 local associations; Hachisaburo Hirao, president. The aim is to serve as a means of connection among member associations, giving aids to promote their aspiration. Address: 7 Otemachi 1 chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAIGAI JIJO KENKYUKAI (The Overseas Affairs Research Association). Established in 1927; Masao Kanda, president; membership 2,500. Address: 1367 Shimoochiai 3-chomé, Yodobashi, Tokyo.

KAIGAI KYOKAI CHUOKAI (The Central Board of Overseas Associations). Established in 1923: Gosuké Imai, president; membership 27 local associations. The object is to encourage emigration. Address: The Sanshi Kaikan, Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KANSAI NICHI-FUTSU KAIKAN (L'Institut Franco-Japonaise du Kansai). H. E. the Ambassador of France, president. Address: Ebisudani, Higashiyama, Kyoto

KINTO BOEKI KYOKAI (The Near-East Trade Association). Established in 1925; Katsutaro Inahata, president; membership 130. The society aims at the development of trade between Japan and Turkey. Address: The Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Kitaku, Osaka.

KOBE NICHIBEI KYOKAI (The Kobé Japano-American Association). Established in 1920; Sadao Miyakawa, director; membership about 220. The aim is to bring the Japanese and the Americans into closer relations. Address: 8 Akasaka-dori, Nadaku, Kobé.

KOKUSAI BUNKA SHINKOKAI (The Society for International Cultural Relations). Established in 1934; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president. The aim is to introduce Japanese and Oriental culture to foreign countries. Address: Meiji-Seimeikan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

MANSHU BUNKA KYOKAI (The Manchurian Culture Society). Established in 1920; Count Yasuya Uchida, president; membership 2,500. Publishes "Mammo" (Manchuria and Mongolia) and others. Address: 91 Kiimachi, Dairen.

NANYO-KYOKAI (The South Sea Association). Established in 1915; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 1,400. The Society makes a study of the South Sea Islands and gives information about it. Address: 10 Maru-

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nouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-BEI KYOKAI (The America-Japan Society). Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president. The Society aims at the promotion of friendly relations between the peoples of Japan and of the United States of America. Address: Imperial Hotel, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-BOKU KYOKAI (La Sociedad Mexico Japonesa). Established in 1924; Keizaburo Moriyama, president; membership 280. Address: 80 Yochomachi, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

NICHI-DOKU BUNKA KYOKAI (Das Japan-Deutsche Kultur-Institut). Established in 1927; Marquis Toshitaké Okubo, president; membership 100. Address: The Shisei Kaikan, Hibiya Park, Tokyo.

NICHI-DOKU KYOKAI (Der Deutsch-Japanische Verein). Established in 1921; Dr. Aihiko Sata, president; membership 280. The Association aims at contributing towards promotion of culture and industries in both countries. Address: Hamadori, Dojima, Osaka.

NICHI-EI KYOKAI (The Japan-British Society), H. E. the British Ambassador, president; membership 280. Address: British Embassy, Gobancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-FUTSU GAKKAN (La Maison Franco-Japonaise). Established in 1927; French Ambassador, president; membership 100. The object is to bring the cultures of both countries into a closer touch. Address: Kujoyama, Yamashina, Kyoto.

NICHI-FUTSU KAIKAN (La Maison Franco-Japonaise). Established in 1924; Baron Seisho Tomii, president; membership 405. The Institute aims at the development of the Japanese and the French cultures. Address: 3 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NICHI-FUTSU KYOKAI (The Japano-French Society). Viscount Sukekuni Soga, president. Address: 3 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NICHI-GO KYOKAI (The Australia-Japan Society). Established in 1914; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 120. The object is the promotion of the friendly relations and welfare of the two countries. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NICHI-HAKU KYOKAI (Associaçaõ Nippon-Brazileira). Established in 1926; Takesuké Shiranè, president; membership 860. The Association serves to promote friendship between the two countries and acts as go-between in the matter of mutual understanding. Address: 1-chome, Kaigan-dori, Kobé.

NICHI-I BUNKA KYOKAI (The Japano-Italian Culture Association). Established in 1931; membership 382. The aim is the exchange of Japanese and Italian cultures. Address: 29 Fujimicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-IN KYOKAI (The Indo-Japanese Association). Established in 1903; Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president; membership 1,000. The object is to promote the friendship between Japan and British India, Straits Settlements, Dutch East Indies, Siam, French Indo-China and the Philippines. Address: 1 Uchisaiwaicho 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI-RO KYOKAI (The Japan Soviet Society). Established in 1906; Viscount Makoto Saito, president; membership 378. The object is to promote friendship and learning of the two countries. Issues reports. Address: 17 Uchisaiwaicho, 1-chome, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIKKA GAKKAI (The Japanese and Chinese Educational Association). Established in 1918; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president; membership 100. The purpose is to help the Chinese students in their studies in Japan. Address: 31 Nakasarugakucho, 1 chome, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIKKA KYOKAI (The Japan-Canada Society). Established in 1930; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 100. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAIJI KYOKAI (The Foreign Affairs Association of Japan). Established in 1931; Katsuji Inahara, director. The work of the association is to introduce Japanese affairs through a quarterly magazine in English, "Contemporary Japan", and foreign affairs to Japanese public through a monthly in Japanese, "Kokusai Hyoron" (International Review). It also publishes "The Japan Year Book" in English. Address: Osaka Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON IMIN KYOKAI (The Japan Emigration Society). Established in 1914; Shunji Miyao, president; membership 700. The object is to make general researches about matters concerning emigration and give such informations as may be needed by people. Address: 30 Maruyamacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKUSAI KYOKAI (The International Association of Japan). Established in 1920; Viscount Kikujiro Ishii, president; membership 11,800. Issues "Kokusai Chishiki" (International Knowledge) and "Sekai to Warera" (World and We). Address: 12 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON LATIN-AMERICAN ASSOCIATION (La Société Japonaise en Amérique Latine). Established in 1910; Prince Sanetaka Ichijo, president; membership 275. The purpose is to study the conditions of the North, Central, and South American countries. Address: 2 Nakadori 3-chomé, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON-SWEDEN KYOKAI (The Japan-Sweden Society). Established in 1929; Ginjiro Fujiwara, president; membership 222. Address: The Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NICHI-RO TSUSHINSHA (The Japan-Soviet Trad-

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ing Agency). Established in 1918; Moriji Uyeda, director. Publication, "Nichiro Tsushin" (Japano-Russian Correspondence). Address: Nijuichi-go Kan of Mitsubishi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NISSO BUNKA KYOKAI (The Japano-Soviet Culture Association). Mantaro Hasegawa, director. Address: Sangen Building, Ginza 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

OSAKA HAN TAIHEIYO CLUB (The Osaka Pan-Pacific Club). Established in 1927; the Governor of Osaka-fu, president; membership 100. The purpose is to cultivate international friendships among the countries around the Pacific.

OSAKA NICHI-RO BOEKI KYOKAI (The Osaka Japano-Russian Trading Association). Katsutaro Inahata, president. Address: The Osaka Municipal Office, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

SHAMU KYOKAI (The Siam Society). Established in 1913; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 110. Address: 11 Kojimachi 5-chomé, Tokyo.

TAIHEIYO MONDAI CHOSAKAI (The Japanese Council, Institute of Pacific relations). Established in 1925; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 170. The object is to study the problems relative to the Pacific coastwise nations. Address: The Shisei Kaikan, Hibiya Park, Tokyo.

TOKYO HAN TAIHEIYO CLUB (The Tokyo Pan-Pacific Club). Viscount Kyoshiro Inouyé, president. Address: The House of Peers, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOYO KYOKAI (The Oriental Society). Rentaro Mizuno, president. Address: The Osaka Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

LEGAL

AIKOKU HOSO RENMEI (The Patriotic Lawyers' Association). Tomonaga Kadooka, director. Address: 6 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

HOSOKAI (The Association of Legal Circles). Established in 1891; Kojiro Isoya, director; membership 15,000. Issues a journal. Address: Nishihibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIYU HOSO DAN (The Free-Legal Circles). Kesaya Yamazaki, director; membership 60. The purpose is to safeguard the rights of lower class peoples by dint of their cooperative actions. Address: 19 Shinsakurada, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON BENGOSHI KYOKAI (The Japan Lawyers' Association). Established in 1921; 50 directors in charge of presidency; membership 4,000. The object is to facilitate cooperative work of lawyers. Address: 1 Nishi-Hibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BENGOSHIKAI (The Imperial Lawyers' Association). Ichizo Hiramatsu, director. Address: Nishi-Hibiya, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO BENGOSHI KAI (The Tokyo Lawyers' Association). Koitsu Sakuma, director. Address: 6 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

COMMERCIAL, INDUSTRIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL

BOEKI SHOREI KAI (The Trade Promotion Society). Established in 1927; Baron Takashi Masuda, president. Address: 1 Honcho 2-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

CHOCHIKU GINKO KYOKAI (The Association of Saving Banks). Kuniso Hara, president. Address: 8 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

CHUO CHIKUSAN KAI (The Central Live-stock Breeding Association). Established in 1915; Ryoji Iwazumi, director; membership 6,000. Issues "Chikusan" (Live-stock Breeding) Address: 1 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

CHUO DENKI CLUB (The Central Electric Enterprisers' Club). Yonejiro Hiratsuka, director. Address: The Department of Home Affairs, Otemachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BEIKOKU KAI (The Japan Rice Association). Established in 1907; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 10,500. Issues "Beikoku" (Rice). Address: 30 Sagacho 1-chomé, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BOSEKI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Spinning Industrial Associations of Japan). Established in 1882; Fusajiro Abé, president; membership 68 companies. Address: Mengyo Kaikan, Bingomachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

DAINIPPON KATSUDO SHASHIN KYOKAI (The Japan Cinematographic Association). Koichi Negishi, director. Address: The Department of Home Affairs, Otemachi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON ORIMONO KYOKAI (The Japan Textile Industry Association). Established in 1885; Saiichiro Shibata, president; membership 2,500. The Association aims at the progress of dyeing and textile industry. Issues "Senshoku Jiho" (Dyeing and Weaving Times). Address: 2 Kyobashi 1-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON RENGO KASAI HOKEN KYOKAI (The Federation of Japan Fire Insurance Associations). Kenkichi Kagami, director. Address: 6 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SANRIN KAI (The Japan Forestry Association). Established in 1882; Zentaro Kawasé, president; membership 6,000. The object is to improve forestry enterprises in Japan. Publishes "San Rin" (Forestry). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SANSHI KAI (The Japan Silk-Yarn Industry Association). Established in 1892; Viscount Tadaatsu Makino, president; membership 298,000. The object is to improve silk industry in Japan. Issues "Sanshi Kaiho" (Silk World Review). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

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DAINIPPON SUISAN KAI (The Japan Marine Products Association). Established in 1882; Ichijiro Itani, president; membership 4,000. Publishes "Suisan Kai" (Marine World). Address: Sankaido, Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON YOGYO KYOKAI (The Japan Ceramic Industry Association). Established in 1891; Kinji Abé, president; membership 1,400. Publishes a journal. Address: 4 Hamacho 3-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

DENKI FUKYU KAI (The Association for the Propagation of Electric Knowledge). Count Keigo Kiyoura, president. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI KYOKAI (The Electric Enterprising Association). Toshio Homma, director. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUMIN KYOKAI Established in 1927; Minoru Oka, president. The object is to improve agricultural methods and encourage farming. Publishes reports. Address: Hagoromo, Takashi, in the suburbs of Osaka City.

JINZO HIRYO RENGOKAI (The Federation of the Artificial Fertilizer Associations). Eihachiro Tanaka, director. Address: 8 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIYU TSUSHO KYOKAI (The Free-Trade Association). Tetsujiro Shidachi, director. The purpose is to advocate free trade. Address: 7 Nishi Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KAGAKU KOGYO KYOKAI (The Chemical Industry Association). Established in 1917; Morio Nakamatsu, president; membership 780. Publishes a magazine, "Kagaku Kogyo" (Chemical Industry). Address: 2 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KANTO SANGYO DANTAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Kanto Industrial Associations). Established in 1931; Ginjiro Fujiwara, president; membership 30 associations. Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KANTO SHOHI KUMIAI RENMEI (The Federation of Eastern Japan Consumers' Trade Unions). Rikichi Okamoto, director. Address: Oshimamachi, Joto, Tokyo.

KASAI HOKEN CLUB (The Fire Insurance Men's Club). Takashi Isaka, director. Address: 6 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOWAN KYOKAI (The Port Problems Research Association). Rentaro Mizuno, director. Address: 2 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOZAN KONWAKAI (The Minerals Traders' Club). Hisahiro Naito, director. Address: Nippon Kogyo Club, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

METRE JIKKOKAI (The Association for Practising Metre Rule). Taheiji Imamura, director. Address: 1 Yamamotocho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NANYO BOEKI SHINKOKAI (The Society for the Promotion of South Seas' Trade). Kamekichi Yamazaki, director. Address: Tokyo Shokoshoreikan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIKKA JITSUGYO KYOKAI (The Japano-Chinese Businessmen's Association). Established in 1920; Kenji Kodama, president; membership 200. Address: Naka 6, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON BOEKI KYOKAI (The Foreign Trade Association of Japan). Baron Ichizaemon Morimura, director. Address: 3 Nishi-Ginza 7-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHUO SANSHIKAI (The Japan Central Sericultural Society). Established in 1932; Viscount Tadaatsu Makino, president; membership 8 organizations. Address: 1 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

NIPPON DORYOKO KYOKAI (The Japan Metrological Society). Eitaro Okamura, president. The purpose is to unify weights and measures available in Japan. Address: 8 Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON JINKEN RENGOKAI (The Japan Rayon Industry Association). Established in 1927; Fukuryo Takagi, president: Address: Daido Building, Tosabori, Nishiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KANZUME KYOKAI (The Japan Packing Industry Association). Established in 1922; Bokushin Maki, president. Address: 1 Yedobashi 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEIZAI RENMEIKAI (The Federation of Japan Commercial Associations). Baron Seinosuké Go, president. Address: Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KENCHIKU KYOKAI (The Japan Architecture Association). Established in 1917; Yasushi Kataoka, president; membership 1,300. Issues "Kenchiku to Shakai" (Architecture and Society). Address: Daido Building, Tosabori, Nishiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KOGYO KAI (The Japan Mining Association). Established in 1885; Viscount Kyoshiro Inouyé, president; membership 1,667. Publishes a journal. Address: 7 Nishi-Ginza 8-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOJIN CLUB (The Japan Engineers' Club). Established in 1920; eight directors in charge; membership 5,148. Issues "Kojin" (Engineer). Address: 12 Nishikicho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKOKU CLUB (The Japan Advertising Club). Shigeto Tsumura, director. Address: 6 Nishi-Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOTSU KYOKAI (The Japan Communication Society). Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president. Address: The Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOZAN KYOKAI (The Japan Mineral Industry Association). Established in 1927; Shinji Yoshino, president; membership 500. Issues reports. Address: 5 Kobikicho, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON MENKA DOGYO KUMIAI (The Japan

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Cotton Dealers' Association). Established in 1898; Shichirobei Nosé, president. Address: 2 Nakanoshima-machi, Kitaku, Osaka.

NIPPON SANGYO KYOKAI (The Japan Industry Association). Established in 1921; Seki Hoshino, president. The purpose is to inquire into various industrial subjects. Address: 1 Uchiyamashitacho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEISHI RENGOKAI (The League of Paper Manufacturers of Japan). Kikujiro Takashima, president. Address: 10 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON SENSHU KYOKAI (The Japan Ship-Owners' Association). Established in 1894; Shinjiro Kurokawa, president; membership 136. Issues a monthly report. Address: 32 Akashimachi, Kobé.

NIPPON SHIKKO KAI (The Japan Lacquer Ware Industry Association). Established in 1890; Chiyokichi Tetsuka, president; membership 800. Issues "Urushi to Kogei" (Lacquer and Industrial Arts). Address: 16 Matsudacho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SOKOGYO RENGOKAI (The Federation of Japan Warehousing Associations). Address: Mitsubishi Soko Kabushiki Kaisha, 1 Yedobashi 1-chomé, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TEKKO KYOKAI (The Japan Iron and Steel Industry Association). Kuniichi Tawara, president. The object is to make a scientific study of iron and steel as well as of working-up techniques of manufacturing. Address: 2 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YOMO KOGYOKAI (The Japan Wool Industry Association). Established in 1920; Seibei Kawanishi, president. Address: 1 Marunouchi, 2-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON YUSHUTSU MEN-ORIMONO KOGYO KUMIAI (The Association of Cotton Fabrics Export of Japan). Tsunejiro Miwa, president. Address: 2 Kyobashi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

NOJI DENKA KYOKAI (The Association for the Electrification of Agriculture). Established in 1923; Viscount Dr. Masatoshi Ogochi, president; membership 1,000. Issues "Noji Denka" (Electrification of Agriculture). Address: 3 Yuraku-cho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OSAKA BOEKI DOMEIKAI (The Federation of Osaka Foreign Trade Associations). Nisaburo Nikawa, president. Address: 54 Kanzakimachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA BOEKI KYOKAI (The Osaka Foreign Trade Association). Hikoé Kishimoto, director. Address: the Osaka Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

OSAKA JITSUGYOKUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of the Osaka Commercial Societies). Heibei Mori, director. Address: Jitsugyokaikan, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA JITSUGYO KYOKAI, (The Osaka Businessmen's Society). Established in 1903; membership 500. Address: 15 Kitadori 1-chomé, Nagahori, Nishiku, Osaka.

OSAKA KASHO SHOKAI (The Chinese Merchants' Association of Osaka). Masuzo Cho, director. Address: 211 Nibancho, Honda, Nishiku, Osaka.

OSAKA SANGYO CHOSAKAI (The Osaka Industrial Research Society). Shinobu Agata, director. Address: Kogyo Shoreikan, Osaka.

OSAKA YUSHUTSU KYOKAI (The Osaka Exporters' Association). Takéo Kagami, president. Address: Osaka Municipal Office, Kitaku, Osaka.

RORYO SUISAN KUMIAI (The Russian Waters Fishery Association). Established in 1908; Sukehidé Kabayama, president; membership 121. Address: Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

SANGYO CHOSAKAI (The Industrial Research Society). Established in 1930; Usaburo Yanagitani, president; membership 26 organizations. The Association aims to investigate the business condition and management. Address: Kaijo Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

SANGYO FUKURI KYOKAI (The Industrial Welfare Association). Established in 1929; membership 900. Publishes "Sangyo Fukuri" (Industrial Welfare). Address: The Social Welfare Bureau, Department of Home Affairs, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SEIMEI HOKEN KAISHA KYOKAI (The Life Insurance Companies Association). Established in 1908; Suketaro Hirosé, president; membership 35 companies. Address: 4 Marunouchi, 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SEKITAN KOGYO RENGOKAI (The Federation of Coal Mining Associations). Established in 1921; Kenjiro Matsumoto, president; membership 68. Issues "Sekitan Jiho" (Coal Miner's Times). Address: Kogyo Club, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KAIJI KYOKAI (The Imperial Marine Affairs Association). Established in 1899; Baron Chuzaburo Shiba, president; membership 63,274. Issues a ship directory. Address: 6 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BAHITSU KYOKAI (The Imperial Horse-breeding Association). Established in 1926; Count Yorihisa Matsudaira, president; membership 353. Address: Toyo Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU GAS KYOKAI (The Imperial Gas-work Society). Established in 1912; Seishichi Iwasaki, president; membership 900. Address: 2 Marunouchi, 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU JIDOSHA KYOKAI (The Imperial Automobile Association). Established in 1931; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president. Address: Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU NOKAI (The Imperial Agricultural Association). Established in 1910; Viscount

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Tadaatsu Makino, president; membership 47 agricultural organizations. The object is to encourage agricultural pursuits. Address: 1 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SHINRINKAI (The Imperial Forestry Association). Established in 1919; Dr. Seiroku Honda, president; membership 136. Address: 1 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SUISAN KAI (The Imperial Aquatic Institute). Established in 1922; Viscount Masuzo Nomura, president; membership 42 organizations. Issues "Teisui" (Imperial Fishery). Address: Toyo Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU TETSUDO KYOKAI (The Imperial Railway Association). Established in 1898; Dr. Sakajiro Furukawa, president; membership 2,550. Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU UNSO KYOKAI (The Imperial Transport Society). Established in 1919; Kinjiro Nakano, president; membership 2,500. The object is to unify the transport business in Japan. Address: Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TETSUDO DOSHIKAI (The Railway Men's Association). Established in 1913; Kaichiro Nezu, president; membership 310 organizations. Issues reports. Address: 4 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOA KEIZAI CHOSA KYOKU (The East-Asiatic Economic Investigation Bureau). Yoshiaki Hatta, president. Issues "To-a" (East Asia) and "Manchurian Year Book." Address: 1 Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKO KAI (The Light House Keepers' Association). Established in 1924; Toyoki Nagakawa, president; membership 569. Publishes "Toko" (Light). Address: Care of the Bureau of Light House, Yokohama.

TOKYO-FU SHOTEN RENMEI (The League of Tokyo Merchants). Established in 1931; Keizo Nakahara, president; membership 342 organizations. Address: Care of the Department of Commerce and Industry, Tokyo Prefectural Office, Tokyo.

TOKYO GINKO CLUB (The Tokyo Bankers' Club). Established in 1899; Dr. Eiichi Baba, president. The purpose is to exchange banking knowledge among members. Address: 8 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TOKYO JITSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The Federation of Tokyo Businessmen's Societies). Seki Hoshino, director. Address: 33 Motofunecho, Kanda, Tokyo.

TOKYO JIYU TSUSHO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Free-trade Association) Tetsujiro Shidachi, president. Address: 7 Nishi-Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

TOKYO KOJO KONWAKAI (The Friendly Association of Factories in Tokyo). Established in 1920; the Governor of Tokyo-Fu, president; membership 200. Address: Care of the Bureau of Commerce and Industry of the Tokyo Prefectural Office.

TOKYO KOJO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Factory Association). Established in 1930. The Superintendent General of the Metropolitan Police is in charge of presidency. The object is to improve factory administration. Address: the Metropolitan Police Office, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA BOEKI KYOKAI (The Yokohama Foreign Trade Association). Established in 1898; Nobuhiro Joko, president; membership 150 houses. The object is to promote foreign trade. Address: 1 Kaigandori, Nakaku, Yokohama.

YUSHUTSU MENSHIFU DOGYO KAI (The Cotton Goods Exporters' Association). Established in 1921; Chubei Ito, president; membership 19. Issues a monthly. Address: Kosho Building, Nakanoshima, Osaka.

ZENKOKU BEIKOKU HANBAI KOBAI KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Sale and Purchase Associations of Rice). Established in 1931; Yoshio Udo, president; membership 51 organizations. Issues a daily paper. Address: Care of the Central Board of the Federation of Industrial Associations, 21 Agebacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU KEIZAI CHOSAKIKAN RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Economic Research Institutes). Established in 1920; Teijiro Sato, president; membership 126 organizations. Issues reports. Address: Toyo Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU INSATSUGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The All-Japan Federation of Printers' Associations). Established in 1921; Keiseki Hikima, president; membership 4,500. Address: 1 Kita-Jimbocho, Kanda, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU YOSANGYO KUMIAI RENGOKAI (The National Sericultural Society). Established in 1921; Sanji Kuroki, president; membership 10,000 local guilds. Issues a journal. Address: 1 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZOSEN KYOKAI (The Ship-building Industry Association). Established in 1897; Dr. Hampei Fujishima, president; membership 1,939. The object is to make researches of ship-building and technical arts thereof. Issues reports. Address: 8 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

MORAL AND EDUCATIONAL

BUNGEIKA KYOKAI (Literary Men's Association). Tomokichi Tsuji, Secretary. The purpose is to promote friendship among members and protect their rights. Address: 5 Kobikicho, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

CHUO NOGIKAI (The Central "Nogi" Society). Established in 1913; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 25,000. The purpose of

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the organization is to ennoble the spirit of General Nogi. Address: 63 Shin-Sakamachi, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BUMMEI KYOKAI Nobutsuné Okuma, president. The institute aims at the study of various problems of civilization. Publishes books. Address: 34 Wasedacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON BYORI GAKKAI (The Japan Pathological Society). Dr. Tomosaburo Ogata, president. Address: the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KISHO GAKKAI (The Japan Meteorological Society). Established in 1882; Dr. Takemasa Okada, president; membership 444. Publishes weather reports. Address: the Chuo-Kishodai, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KOKUSHI KAI (The Japan Historical Association). Established in 1931; Iichiro (Soho) Tokutomi, president; membership 650. The purpose of the Association is to study Japanese history and guide the thoughts of the nation. Address: The Aoyama Kaikan, Aoyama, Akasaka, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON KYOFUKAI (The Japan Temperance Society). The Society aims at the guidance and enlightenment of people in their thoughts and life. Issues "Kyofu" (Moral Reform). Hisakichi Yamazaki, president; membership 1,000. Address: 2 Hayashicho, Honjo, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON RENGO SEINENDAN (The Japanese Young Men's Association). Established in 1924; Fumio Goto, president; membership local associations. Issues "Seinen Shinbun" (Young men's News). Address: Kasumigaoka, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

DAITO BUNKA KYOKAI (The Greater Oriental Culture Association). Established in 1923; Teijiro Yamamoto, president. The purpose is to advance the Oriental culture and publishes "Nippon Shinron" (Neo-Review of Japan). Address: 16 Fujimicho 6-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENKI GAKKAI (The Electrological Society). Established in 1888; Dr. Iwaichi Notomi, president; membership 7,597. Address: 3 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DENSHIN-DENWA GAKKAI (The Telegraph and Telephone Society). Established in 1917; Genichiro Ohata, president; membership 3,880. Issues a magazine. Address: 2 Atagocho, Shiba, Tokyo.

DOBOKU GAKKAI (The Civil-Engineering Society). Established in 1915; Dr. Hidekichi Sanada, president; membership 3,500. Issues "Doboku Gakkai." Address: 6 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

EISEI KOGYO KYOKAI (The Sanitary Industry Association). Established in 1927; Shigemoto Kitaura, president; membership 850. The purpose of the Association is to make researches of foodstuffs. Issues "Eisei Kogyo" (Sanitary Industry). Address: Kenchiku Kaikan, 1 Ginza 3-chomé, Tokyo.

GAKUSHI KAI (The Allumini Association of the Imperial University) Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president. Address: 1 Nishikicho, Kanda, Tokyo.

GAN KENKYUKAI (The Cancer Research Association). Established in 1908: Dr. Mataro Nagayo, president; membership 319. The Association makes a study of cancer and issues a magazine "Gan" (Cancer). Address: 2 Motofujicho, Hongo, Tokyo.

HOGAKU KYOKAI (The Legal Research Society). Baron Dr. Shigeto Hozumi, president. Address: the Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

HOKEN GAKKAI (The Insurance Association). Established in 1906; Dr. Seiryo Awazu, president; membership 450. The object is to study the theory and practice of insurance and publish "Hoken Gaku" (Insurance). Address: 759 Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ISHIN SHIRYO HENSANKAI (The Editorial Office of the Restoration Period Materials). Kentaro Kaneko president. Address: Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAGAKU CHISHIKI FUKYUKAI (The Association for the Propagation of Scientific Knowledge). Established in 1921; Dr. Toyokichi Takamatsu, president. The Association issues "Kagaku Chishiki" (Scientific Knowledge). Address: 6 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KAHEI GAKKAI (Seminary for Research on Fire Arms). Dr. Tamotsu Aoki, president. Address: Zoheigaku Kyoshitsu, the Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KEIDAI KEIZAI GAKKAI (The Economics Institute of the Kyoto Imperial University). Dr. Masao Kanbé, supervisor. Address: the Kyoto Imperial University, Kujoyama, Kyoto.

KENCHIKU GAKKAI (The Architecture Institute). Yoshikuni Okuma, president; membership 7,900. Issues a magazine, "Kenchiku Zasshi" (Architecture). Address: 1 Ginza Nishi 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KIKAI GAKKAI (The Mechanics Research Institute). Established in 1897; Dr, Masao Kamo, president; membership 5,000. Issues "Kikai Gakkai" (Mechanics). Address: Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOGYO KAGAKUKAI (The Industrial Chemistry Institute). Established in 1898; Dr. Mototaro Matsui, president; membership 4,000. Publishes "Kogyo Kagaku" (Industrial Chemistry). Address: Yurakukan, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKKA GAKKAI (The Statecraft Society). Established in 1869; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 2,000. Address: Sem-

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imary-room of the College of Law, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUGO KYOKAI (The Japanese Language Research Society). Established in 1930; Prince Fumimaro Konoyé, president; membership 180. Address: 29 Shiroganecho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

KOKUMIN SEIRIGAKU KENKYUKAI (The Institute of National Physiology). Established in 1914; Dr. Hidetsurumaru Ishikawa, president; membership 1,800. Publishes "Seirigaku" (Physiology). Address: Kaguraoka Yoshidamachi, Kyoto.

KOKURITSUKOYEN KYOKAI (The National Park Association). Established in 1927; Marquis Moritatsu Hosokawa, president. Issues "Kokuritsu Koyen" (National Parks). Address: Care of the Bureau of Public Health, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

KOKUSAIHO GAKKAI (The Institute of International Law). Established in 1897; Dr. Sakutaro Tachi, president; membership 300. Address: the Seminary-room of the College of Law, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUSHI KAIKO KAI (The National History Retrospection Society). Established in 1929; Marquis Nobutsuné Okuma, president; membership 210. Issues "Kokushi Kaiko" (National History Retrospection). Address: Care of Marquis Okuma, Aoyama 9-chomé, Tokyo.

KOMIN KYOIKU KAI (The Civil Education Society). Established in 1925; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 25,000. Issues "Komin" (Civics): Address: Yurakukan, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KOSEIKAI (The Industrial Policy Association). Established in 1918; Aikitsu Tanakadaté, president; membership 3,500. Issues "Kosei" (Industrial Policy). Address: Yurakukan, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOTEN KOKYUSHO (The Institute for the Japanese Classic Literature). Established in 1882; Prince Kuniyuki Tokugawa, president; membership 1,300. Issues an organ paper. Address: the Kyoto Imperial University, Kyoto.

MEIJI SEITOKU KINEN GAKKAI (The Memorial Institute of the Emperor Meiji). Count Hirotaro Hayashi, president. Address: 2 Maruyamacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

MINZOKU GAKKAI (The Institute for the Study of Ancient Customs and Manners). Dr. Mikinosuké Ishida, president. Address: 8 Surugadai 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

MITSUBISHI KEIZAI KENKYUSHO (The Mitsubishi Economics Research Institute). Kikuo Aoki, president. Issues reports. Address: 8 Marunouchi 3-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

MOKUZAI KOGEI GAKUKAI (The Woodwork-craft Association). Established in 1919; Joichi Koguré, president; membership 1,000. The object is to study general woodwork craft. Issues "Shitsunai Kogei" (Interior Decorative Arts). Address: 14 Shimo-negishi, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NAKAYAMA BUNKA KENKYUSHO (The Nakayama Cultural Research Institute). Dr. Yu Fujikawa, president. Address: Toyo Building, Uchiyamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAWA KONCHU KENKYUSHO (The Nawa Entomological Institute). Umekichi Nawa, president. Address: 2 Omiyamachi, Gifu prefecture.

NENRYO KYOKAI (The Fuel Association). Established in 1927. Baron Toshiatsu Sakamoto, president; membership 2,500. The Association aims at the progress of fuel-power industries in Japan. Issues "Nenryo Kyokai," association paper. Address: Fuel Experimental Station, Kawaguchi-machi, Saitama prefecture.

NIPPON CHIKUSAN GAKKAI (The Japan Livestock Breeding Society). Ryoji Iwazumi, president. Address: the Seminary-room of Agriculture, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON CHIRI GAKKAI (The Japan Geographical Society). Dr. Takeo Kato, president. Address: the Seminary-room of Geography, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON DORYOKU KYOKAI (The Japan Motive Power Society). Established in 1927; Keizaburo Hashimoto, president; membership 120 organizations. Issues "Doryoku" (Motive Power). Address: 3 Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON EISEIKAI (The Japan Sanitation Society). Tatsujiro Oshima, president. Address: 60 Otemachi, 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ESPERANTO GAKKAI (The Japan Esperanto Society). Established in 1919; Wasaburo Oishi, president; membership 1,650. Issues a magazine. Address: 1 Motomachi, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAKUJITSU KYOKAI Established in 1924; Kenzo Nakagawa, president; membership 2,000. The Association aims at the advancement of every branch of sciences in Japan. Issues reports. Address: Care of the College of Medicine, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON GAKUSEI KOKU RENMEI (The Japan Students' Association of Aeronautics). Established in 1930; Bukichi Matsunaga, president; membership 350. Address: Tokyo Asahi Shimbun, Tokyo.

NIPPON HAKUBUTSUKAN KYOKAI (The Japanese Association of Museums). Address: Shakai Kyoikuka, the Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON INSATSU GAKKAI (Institution of Printing Technology of Japan). Established in 1928 in Tokyo; Dr. Michiya Yano, president; membership 410. The institution has as its object study of printing technique, support the in-

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terest of printing industry by lectures and publications. Address: c/o The Tokyo Higher Industrial Art School, Shinshibacho, Shibaku, Tokyo.

NIPPON ISHIKAI (The Japan Physicians' Society). Dr. Taichi Kitajima, president. Address: 5 Surugadai 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON JIDO GAKKAI (The Japan Puericulture Association). Established in 1897; Kuniyoshi Katayama, president; membership 1,000. Publishes "Jido Kenkyu" (Study on Children). Address: 25 Muramatsucho, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAGAKU KAI (The Japan Chemisty Society). Dr. Motooki Matsui, president. Address: Science Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAGAKU KENKYUKAI (The Japan Chemistry Association). Established in 1926; Dr. Toshiyuki Majima, president; membership 1,200. Issues "Nippon Kagaku" (Japanese Chemistry). Address: Nakanoshimadori, Komegafukuro, Sendai.

NIPPON KAIHO KAI (The Japan Marine Law Society). Dr. Niichiro Matsunami, president. Address: Nakamachi, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAZAN GAKKAI (The Japan Volcanological Society). Established in 1932; Ichizo Yajima, president; membership 1,200. Issues reports. Address: 6 Omoté Jimbocho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEKKAKUBYO GAKKAI (The Tuberculosis Research Association of Japan). Established in 1928; Dr. Tokio Mito, president; membership 1,600. Issues a periodical "Kekkaku" (Tuberculosis). Address: Tokyo City Tuberculosis Hospital, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGAKU KAI (The Japanese Engineering Association). Established in 1881; Dr. Chuzaburo Shiba, president; membership 12 associations. Address: 2 Marunouchi 1-chomé, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOTSU KYOKAI (The Japanese Traffic Association). Established in 1929; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 200 companies. The object is to provide means for the connection and unification of traffic organs in Japan. Publishes Association reports. Address: The Yusen Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON MINZOKU EISEI GAKKAI (The Japan Race-Hygienics Society). Dr. Sen Nagai, president. Address: Medical Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON NOGYO KAGAKUKAI (The Japan Agricultural Chemistry Association). Address: Agricultural Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON RAJIO ASSOCIATION (The Japanese Radio Association). Established in 1925; Tatsuji Nakayama, president; membership 500. The purpose of the Association is to spread a knowledge of electric wave and that of the appliciation of it. Its organ is "Rajio no Nippon" (Japanese Radio). Address: Care of the Electric Club, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ROMAJIKAI (The Japan Roman Letters Society). Established in 1926; Dr. Aikitsu Tanakadaté, president; membership 6,000. Publishes a periodical "Romaji Sekai" (Roman Letters World). Address: Mitsukashi Building, 1 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SAKUMOTSU GAKKAI (The Japan Agricultural Products Society). Suketeru Yoshikawa, president. Address: Agricultural Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHAKAIGAKU KAI (The Japan Sociological Society). Dr. Teizo Toda, president. Address: the Seminary-room of sociology, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tykyo.

NIPPON SHASHIN GAKKAI (The Society of Scientific Photography of Japan). Established in 1933; Lieutenant-General Hitoshi Omura, president; membership 318. The Society has its object study of the theory and practice of photography. Address: c/o The Tokyo Higher Industrial Art School, Shinshibacho, Shibaku, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUGAKU BUTSURI GAKKAI (The Japan Mathematics and Physics Association). Established in 1877; Dr. Kanichi Terazawa, president; membership 1,000. Publishes reports. Address: Science Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON TOSHOKAN KYOKAI (The Japan Library Association). Established in 1892; Kiichi Matsumoto, president; membership 1,403. Publishes "Toshokan" (Library). Address: the Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YAKUZAISHIKAI (The Japan Pharmacologists' Society). Kametaro Kawai, president. Address: Kojunsha Building, 4 Ginza 6-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ZOEN GAKKAI (The Japan Gardening Society). Established in 1925; Dr. Keiji Uyehara, president; membership 200. Issues "Zoen Geijutsu" (Art of Garden Building). Address: 6 Kami-meguro, Meguro, Tokyo.

NOGYO DOBOKU GAKKAI (The Agricultural Engineering Society). Teiji Tanaka, president. Address: Agricultural Department, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

NOGYOKEIZAI GAKKAI (The Agricultural Economics Society). Dr. Hiroshi Nasu, president. Agricultural Department the Tokyo Imperial University, Tokyo.

NOJI DENKA GAKKAI (The Agricultural Electrification Society). Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president. Address: Denki Club, Yu-

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rakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

OHARA SHAKAI MONDAI KENKYUSHO (The Ohara Institute for Research in Social Problems). Established in 1919; Iwasaburo Takano, president. Issues journal. Address: Reijinmachi Tennoji, Osaka.

RAI YOBO KYOKAI (The Leprosy Prevention Society). Established in 1931; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president. Address: Care of the Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

RIKAGAKU KENKYUSHO (The Institute of Physics and Chemistry). Established in 1917; Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Okochi, president; membership 200. Publishes bulletins. Address: Kamifujimayecho, Komagomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

SHAKAI KEIZAI KENKYUSHO (The Social and Economic Problems Institute). Iwasaburo Takano, president. Address: Tameiké Building, Akasaka, Tokyo.

SHIGAKKAI (The History Research Institute). Established in 1889; Dr. Kumazo Tsuboi, president; membership 1,400. Publishes a magazine. Address: the Office of Historical Materials, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

SHOMEI GAKKAI (The Illumination Research Institute). Established in 1916; Tsunetaro Kujirai, president; membership 1,700. Publishes "Shomei Gakkai", a periodical. Address: 8 Yurakucho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KYOIKU KAI (The Japanese Educational Association). Established in 1893; Hidejiro Nagata, president. Address: Hitotsubashidori, Kanda, Tokyo.

TEIYU RINRI KAI (The Society for the Study of Ethics). Established in 1897; Masanori Oshima, president: membership 51. Address: Sendagimachi, Komagomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

TETSUGAKU KAI (The Philosophy Research Society). Dr. Tetsujiro Inouyé, president; membership 960. Address: Care of the Department of Literature, the Tokyo Imperial University, Hongo, Tokyo.

TOA DOBUNKAI Established in 1898; Count Nobuaki Makino, president; membership 3,000. The purpose is to promote mutual friendship and culture between Japan and China. Address: Sannencho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO TOKEI KYOKAI (The Tokyo Statistics Association). Established in 1922; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership 350. Publishes an organ magazine. Address: 8 Nishi-Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL MOVEMENT

DAI NIPPON KOKUSUIKAI SOHONBU (The Headquarters of Japan Nationalistic Association). Keisaburo Moriyama, director. Address: 342, Kitashinagawa 6-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SEIGIDAN (The League for the Political Justice of Japan). Eizo Sakai, director. Address: Minamicho, Takanawa, Shiba, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SEISANTO Established in 1917; Ryohei Uchida, president. The purpose of the party is to build an economically strong foundation for the nation. Address: 68 Nagata-cho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON SHONENDAN RENMEI (The Japanese Boy Scouts Association). Count Yoshinori Futara, president; membership 90,000. Issues "Shonendan Kenkyu" (Study of Boy Scouts). Address: Department of Education, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KENKOKUKAI Bin Akao, president. The purpose of the organization is to work for the exaltation of Japanese nationality. Address: 75 Nenokami, Mikawajima, Tokyo.

KOKUHONSHA Established in 1924; Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, president. The object of the organization is to lead the nation in sane nationalism. Address: 5 Hirakawacho, 6-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KOKURYU KAI Ryohei Uchida, president. The Association has a spirit of nationalism as its principle. Address: 7 Shinmachi 5-chomé, Akasaka, Tokyo.

KOKUSUI TAISHU TO (The Nationalistic Democratic Party). Ryoichi Sasagawa, president. Address: 28, Kitahama, 1-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KOKUMIN KINSHU DOMEI (The National Temperance League). Hanpei Nagao, president. Issues "Abstinent Japan" and others. Address: Omotesarugakucho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON SHOHI KUMIAI DOMEI (The Japan Consumers' Unions). Nisaburo Totsu, director. Address: 2 Oshimamachi, Joto, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUIHEISHA Established in 1922; Umekichi Minami, director. The organization works for the social emancipation of "Eta people" and the general improvement of their status. Address: Takano Kitamachi, Kamikyoku, Kyoto.

SHICHISEI GIDAN Dr. Arata Ninakawa, president. The Society aims at the political justice as well as the exaltation of nationalism. Address: Araijuku, Omori, Tokyo.

SHUYODAN Established in 1906; Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, president; membership 200,000. The purpose of the Society is to do political reform work. Issues "Kojo" (Advancement) and two others. Address: Sendagayamachi, Shibuya, Tokyo.

TAIKA KAI Established in 1920; Fumio Iwata, president. The object of the organization is to work for political reform, upholding the nationalistic spirit. Address: 5 Kagacho 2-chomé, Ichigaya, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

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YAMATO MINRO KAI Established in 1921; Banzan Fujishiro, president; membership 880,000. The purpose is to lead the public thought. Issues "Minro Horitsu Sekai" (Law of People and of Labour). Address: 571 Kami-Meguro, Meguro, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU SUIHEI SHA (The Federation of the Suiheisha). Jiichiro Matsumoto, director. Address: 22 Sakaecho 4-chomé, Naniwaku, Osaka.

LABOUR UNIONS

CHUO RODO KUMIAI DOMEI (The Central Federation of Labour Unions). Senjiro Tsuboi, director. Address: c/o Wago Club, Imairicho, Shiba, Tokyo.

JIYU RODO DOMEI (The Free Labour Union). Noboru Kato, director. Address: 1 Nishi Azumamachi, Mukojima, Tokyo.

JUN RODOSHA KUMIAI DOMEI (The Federation of the Genuine Labourers' Unions). Isamu Okubo, director. Address: Kuramayé, Mifuné, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

KAIGUN RODO KUMIAI RENMEI (The Federation of the Naval Workers' Unions). Ryuji Yamamoto, director. Address: 15 Hondori 12, Kure.

KAIIN KYOKAI (The Seamen's Union). Hidekichi Koizumi, director. Address: 8 Shimo Yamatedori, Kobeku, Kobé.

KANGYO RODO SODOMEI (The Federation of the Government Employees Labour Unions). Ukichi Nishiura, director. Address: 860 Echumachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

NIPPON KAIIN KUMIAI (The Japan Seamen's (lower) Society). Choei Horiuchi, director. Address: Kaigandori, Kobé.

NIPPON KOTSU RODO SORENMEI (The Federation of the Japan Transportation Workers' Unions). Suematsu Nohira, director. Address: 8 Tsukiji 3-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOWAN JUGYOIN KUMIAI RENMEI (The Federation of the Japan Port Workers' Unions). Kunitaro Hamada, director. Address: 3 Kaigandori, Kobeku, Kobé.

NIPPON NOMIN KUMIAI (The Japan Farmers' Unions). Rikizo Hirano, director. Address: Tamuracho 1-chomé, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO SODOMEI (The Federation of the Japan Labour Unions). Komakichi Matsuoka, director. Address: Shikokumachi, Mita, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON RODO SORENMEI (The Federation of the Japan Labourers' Union). Shinichi Yagi, director. Address: 73 Aioicho, Kitaku, Osaka.

NIPPON ZOSEN RODO KUMIAI (The Japan Shipbuilding Labourers' Union). Kumazo Ishii, director. Address: Tsukiji Shinmachi, Uragamachi, Kanagawa prefecture.

SHIN NIPPON KAIIN KUMIAI (The New Japan Seamen's (lower) Society. Sotaro Monji, director. Established in June, 1935. Address: Sakaemachi, Kobé.

TEIYU DOSHIKAI (The Transportation and Communication Workers' Union). Takayuki Urayama, director. Address: 15 Imairicho, Shiba, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU NOMIN KUMIAI (The All-Japan Farmers' Union). Motojiro Sugiyama, director. Address: 663 Morikoji, Asahiku, Osaka.

ZENKOKU RODO KUMIAI DOMEI (The Federation of All-Japan Labourers' Unions). Mitsu Kono, director. Address: Higashi Fukudamachi, Kanda, Tokyo.

SOCIAL WORK

ASAHI SHIMBUN SHAKAIJIGYODAN (The Social Work Department of the "Asahi" Newspaper Office). Address: 3 Nakanoshima, Kitaku, Osaka.

CHUO SHAKAI JIGYO KYOKAI (The Central Social Work Association). Established in 1908; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 863. The purpose is to unify all social work institutions in Japan. Issues "Shakai Jigyo" (Social Works). Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

CHUO YUWA JIGYO KYOKAI Established in 1925; Baron Kiichiro Hiranuma, president. The purpose is to work for the harmonization of different classes of people, giving lectures from time to time. Issues "Yuwa Jigyo" (Harmonization Works). Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON BUKKYO JIZEN KAI (The Buddhist Charity Association of Japan). Established in 1901; Zuisho Shiba, president; membership 450,000. The works of the Association are to give free medical treatment to the poor. Address: Hanayamachi, Horikawadori, Shimokyo-ku, Kyoto.

DOJUN KAI (The Mutually Benefitting Society). Established in 1924; Kogoro Miyazawa, president. The purpose is to build and rent houses and so on. Issues "Dojun Kai." Address: 2 Uchisaiwaicho, 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUKUDEN-KAI. Established in 1879; Count Hideo Yamada, director; membership 2,000. The society has an end in view to protect children and runs a kindergarten to carry out its purpose. Issues "Fuku Den" (Benevolence). Address: Miyashirocho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

HAKU JUJIKAI (The White-Cross Society). Chuichi Ariyoshi, president. The society aims at the extermination of tuberculosis. Address: 1 Ogawamachi 2-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

HOMEN IIN RENMEI (The League of the District Committee). Established in 1931; Count Keigo Kiyoura, president. The purpose is to keep connection among the District Committees

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for social relief works. Address: 7 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

HOSEI KAI. Established in 1914; Kisaburo Suzuki, president; membership local organizations. The purpose of the society is to aid, protect and culture ex-convicts. Issues "Hogo Jiho" (Protection Times). Address: 37 Kami-Rokubancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

JIDO AIGO KAI (The Association for the Love and Protection of Children). Established in 1926; Aijiro Tomita, president. The purpose is to bring up and protect the children of weak constitution. Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

KAKUSEI KAI Established in 1911; Isoo Abé, president; membership 11,200. The object is to encourage moral and social movements, aiming at the prohibition of licensed prostitution. Issues a journal "Kakusei" (Purification). Address: Otsuka Nakamachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

KEI FUKU KAI. Established in 1924; Asaji Akagi, president. The purpose of the organization is to give aid to private social work enterprises. Address: Care of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

KIRISUTOKYO FUJIN KYOFU KAI (The Christian Women's Temperance Society). Established in 1894; Mrs. Chiyo Kozaki, president; membership 109. The object is to reform bad manners at home and in society. Issues "Fujin Shimpo" (Women's News). Address: 5 Horaicho 1-chomé, Yokohama.

KYUSEIGUN HONYEI (The Headquarters of the Salvation Army). Established in 1898; Yasoo Segawa, acting commander; membership 13,000. Issues "Toki no Koé" (Voice of the Times). Address: 5 Hitotsubashidori, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KAIIN EKISAI KAI (The Japanese Seamen's Association for Mutual Aid). Established in 1880; Rentaro Mizuno, president; membership 170,000. The purpose of the Association is to give aid to seamen and protect them. Issues "Umi no Sekai" (World of Seas). Address: 51 Akashimachi, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KEKKAKU YOBO KYOKAI (The Anti-Tuberculosis Association of Japan). Established in 1918; Prince Kuniyuki Tokugawa, president; membership 156. Issues "Jinsei Kofuku" (Human Happiness). Address: 5 Otemachi 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEKIJUJI SHA (The Red Cross Society of Japan). Established in 1877; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 2,800,000. The work of the Society is relief work, prevention of diseases, etc. Issues "Haku Ai" (Universal Love). Address: Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

OSAKA MAINICHI SHIMBUN JIZENDAN (The Social Work Department of the "Mainichi" News Paper Office). Address: 2 Dojimauyé, Kitaku, Osaka.

RAIBYO YOBO KYOKAI (The Anti-Leprosy Society). Established in 1931; Viscount Keigo Kiyoura, president; membership 28,560. The purpose of the Association is to prevent and eradicate leprosy. Address: Care of the Bureau of Public Health, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

SAISEI KAI Established in 1911; Eitaro Mabuchi, director; membership 49,832. The purpose of the organization is to treat patients gratis. Issues "Sai Sei" (Saving Lives). Address: 1 Akabanecho, Shiba, Tokyo.

SAN IKU KAI Established in 1926; membership 240. Itsuo Fujita, director. The purpose of the organization is to give assistance to mothers in the matter of bringing up children. Issues "San Iku," a journal. Address: 19 Taiheimachi 3-chomé, Honjo, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU HAIHEIIN (The Imperial Society for Disabled Soldiers). Address: Sugamo, Toshima, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU SUINAN KYUSAI KAI (The Imperial Sea-Disaster Relief Society). Established in 1889; Count Yorihisa Matsudaira, president; membership 145,400. Issues "Umi" (Sea). Address: 1 Sagacho 1-chomé, Fukagawa, Tokyo.

TOKYO TEIDAI SETTLEMENT (The Tokyo Imperial University Settlement). Established in 1923; Dr. Itsutaro Suehiro, president; membership 400. There are several departments; such as, Legal Advisory, Dispensary, Day Nursery, Night School, and Social Study, etc. The students call their work "University Extension Movement." Address: 44 Motomachi, Yanagishima, Honjo, Tokyo.

YOKU FU KAI Established in 1925; Seizaburo Fukuwara, president. The work of the organization is to succour aged people who have no body to depend on. Issues reports. Address: Kami-Takaido, Suginami, Tokyo.

RELIGIOUS

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO REMMEI (The National Christian Council of Japan). Dr. Yugoro Chiba, president. Address: 5 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO SEINEN DOMEI (The Japan Christian Young Men's Union). Yoshimuné Abé, president. Address: Omotesarugakucho, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON NICHIYOGAKKO KYOKAI (The National Sunday School Association of Japan). Dr. Tadaoki Yamamoto, president. Address: Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

ZENKOKU SHINSHOKU KAI (The All-Japan Shinto Union). Rentaro Mizuno, president. Address: Wakagicho, Shibuya, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON BUKKYO SEINENKAI REMMEI (The

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League of Buddhist Y.M.A. of Japan). Haruki Yoshimura, president. Address: 10 Hitotsubashidori, Kanda, Tokyo.

FINE ARTS

KOKUMIN BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The National Art Association). Established in 1931; Dr. Viscount Masatoshi Ohkochi, president; membership 189. The object of the Association is to study and promote every style of fine arts. Issues "Kokumin Bijutsu" (National Art). Address: 51 Kiridoshisaka-machi, Hongo, Tokyo.

KOKUSAI BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The International Art Association). Established in 1927; Marquis Teruhisa Komatsu, president; membership 1,350. The object of the Association is to exchange art works internationally. Address: 29 Fujimicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NICHI FUTSU GEIJUTSU SHA (The Franco-Japanese Art Association). Established in 1924; secretaries in charge. The object is to exchange art works between Japan and France. Address: 12 Tameiké, Akasaka, Tokyo.

NIKA KAI. Established in 1914; Shintaro Yamashita, president; membership 23. The object is to promote the production of new style fine arts. Address: 17 Banshumachi, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BIJUTSU IN (The Institute of Japanese Art). Established in 1914; Taikan Yokoyama, president; membership 179. The purpose is to study Japanese fine arts and hold general exhibitions for the works prepared by those interested. Issues reports occasionally. Address: Kami-misaki-minamicho, Yanaka, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BIJUTSU KYOKAI (The Japan Institute of Fine Arts). Established in 1879; Count Kentaro Kaneko, president; membership 1,100. The object is to study fine arts and hold art exhibitions for the works prepared by members. Issues reports. Address: Ueno Park, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGEI BIJUTSU KAI (The Japan Applied Arts Association). Established in 1926; membership 250. The purpose of the Association is to aid the advancement of applied arts in Japan. Issues reports. Address: 16 Yanaka Tennoji, Shitaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON JIYU GADAN (The Free Painting Society of Japan). Established in 1920; secretaries in charge by turn; membership 10. Address: Care of Ishii, Fuyamachi-higashi, Oshikoji, Kyoto.

NIPPON MANGA KAI (The Cartoonists' Association). Itto Ushijima, president. Address: 17 Honchodori 4-chomé, Nakano, Tokyo.

NIPPON NANGA IN (The Japan Academy of Southern-School Painting). Established in 1921; Suiun Komuro, president; membership 16. The purpose is to study the Southern-School painting in Japan. Address: 40 Nakarokubancho Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SOGAKA KYOKAI (The Japan Illustrators' Association). Established in 1928; Seiko Unno, president; membership 73. Issues reports. Address: 180 Kogaimachi, Asabu, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUISAIGA KAI (The Water-Colour Painting Society of Japan). Established in 1913; secretaries in charge; membership 135. Issues Misué (Water-Colour Painting). Address: Care of Mochizuki, 166 Komagomé Dozakamachi, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON UKIYOÉ KYOKAI (The Japan Ukiyoé Association). Established in 1922; Marquis Yorisada Tokugawa, president; membership 300. Issues "Ukiyoé No Kenkyu" (Study of Ukiyoé). Address: Care of Ochiai, 9 Fujimicho 5-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

SHUNYO KAI Established in 1922; Genichiro Adachi, president; membership 22. Issues reports. Address: c/o Mr. Adachi, 422 Denenchofu, Omori, Tokyo.

SUIKO KAI Established in 1924; secretaries in charge; membership 8. The purpose is to study and protect old art works. Issues "Ezuroku" (Art Records). Address: Care of Matsuda, Osaki Chojamaru, Shinagawa, Tokyo.

TAIHEIYO GA KAI (The Pacific Art Society). Established in 1902; secretaries in charge; membership 53. The object is to study the Occidental art and sculpture. Address: 1 Yanaka Mashimacho, Shitaya, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU BIJUTSU IN (The Imperial Academy of Fine Arts). Established in 1875; Coru Shimizu, president. The Academy aims to help the advancement of fine arts in Japan by holding general exhibitions. Care of the Department of Education, Tokyo.

TODAI HOGA KAI Established in 1925; Somei Yuki, president; membership 260. This organization exists for the study of Japanese art. Address: Care of Kano, 68 Kanasugi Hamamachi, Shiba, Tokyo.

MUSIC

BUKKYO ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Buddhistic Music Association). Established in 1928; Ryuai Shijo, president; membership Buddhist Associations. Address: Care of the Bureau of Religion, the Department of Home Affairs, Tokyo.

DAINIPPON SAKKYOKUKA KYOKAI (The Japan Composers' Association). Rentaro Mizuno, president. Address: c/o Mr. Komatsu, 435 Asagaya 3-chomé, Suginami, Tokyo.

DOSEI KAI (The "Dosei-Kai" Music Society). Established in 1894; Kaju Norisugi, membership 1,275. Issues reports. Address: Ueno Park, Shitaya, Tokyo.

DOYO ONGAKU DAN (The Juvenile Music Association). Established in 1924; Kingetsu Murosaki, leader. The purpose is to spread juvenile

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songs and plays. Address: Mashimacho, Shitaya, Tokyo.

GAGAKU FUKYU KAI (The Society for the Propagation of the Classical Ceremonial Music of Japan). Wataro Togi, president; membership 50. The object is to propagate ancient ritual music. Address: 12 Tansumachi, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

HOSHO KAI (The Hosho Association). Established in 1911; Count Yoritoshi Matsudaira, president; membership 1,400. The purpose of the Association is to encourage the Hosho School of "No". Address: 1 Motomachi, Hongo, Tokyo.

KAIGUN GUNGAKU TAI (The Japanese Navy Band). Established in 1908; Shimpei Asano, head; membership 60. Address: Minami-Odawaracho, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KANZE KAI Established in 1900; Sakon Kanzé, president; membership 800. The purpose of this organization is to study the Kanzé school "No" music. Issues a journal "Kanzé." Address: 10 Shin-Ogawacho 2-chomé, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

KISARAGI SHA (The Kisaragi Society). Established in 1910; Chosei Motoori, head; membership 60. The purpose is to study music in general. Address: Care of Motoori, 838 Meguro, Tokyo.

KIYOMOTO KAI Established in 1914; Enju Tayu, head. The object is to study "Kiyomotobushi." Address: 48 Takanawa, Shiba, Tokyo.

NAGAUTA FUYOKAI Established in 1912; Sakichi Kineya, head; membership 800. The purpose is to study the music of this school. Address: 9 Hirakawacho, 4 chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOKYO ONGAKU KYOKAI (Japan Symphony Association). Established in 1920; Kosaku Yamada, leader; membership 50. The purpose is to promote and propagate symphony. Issues "Kokyogaku" (Symphony). Address: 29 Gobancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KYOIKU ONGAKU KYOKAI (The Educational Music Association of Japan). Established in 1927; Kaju Norisugi, president; membership 8,500. The purpose is to promote educational music. Issues "Kyoiku Ongaku" (Educational Music). Address: Ueno Park, Shitaya, Tokyo.

SHIN KOKYO GAKUDAN (The New Symphonic Association). Established in 1926; Viscount Hidemaro Konoyé, head; membership 1,000. The object is to study and propagate Occidental symphony. Issues pamphlets. Address: 1154 Nakanobu, Shinagawa, Tokyo.

SHOKYOKU KYOKAI (The Koto Music Association). Established in 1917; Keimatsu Imai, president; membership 500. The purpose is to study and propagate "koto" music. Issues "Sankyoku" (Three Instruments). Address: 11 Ichibancho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU JOSHI KANGEN GAKUDAN (The Imperial Girls' Instrument Association). Established in 1924; Yuko Yamasaki, head; membership 20. Address: Care of Imperial Theatre, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

TOIN KAI Lead by Shizué Fujikagé. The purpose of the Society is to establish a new school of "Buyo" (Japanese dance) and to promote this school. The Society issues pamphlets. Address: 6 Kasumicho, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOKIWAZU KENKYU KAI (The "Tokiwazu" Performance Association). Matsuo Tayu, president. The purpose is to give recitals. Address: 1013 Nishigahara, Takinogawa, Tokyo.

TOKYO MANDOLIN CLUB. Established in 1914; Shingi Miyayama, head; membership 20. The purpose is to study mandolin and guitar. Issues "Ongaku Shimbun" (Music News). Address: 20 Tansumachi, Azabu, Tokyo.

TOKYO ORATORIO KYOKAI (The Tokyo Oratorio Association). Established in 1925; membership 40. The purpose is to promote and propagate religious music. Address: Care of the Sunday School Association, Nishikicho, Kanda, Tokyo.

TOKYO SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA ASSOCIATION. Established in 1919; Gen Uchida, leader; membership 205. The object is to study music, especially symphony orchestra. Issues "Ongaku Junrei" (Musical Pilgrims). Address: 1229 Higashiyama, Kamimeguro, Meguro, Tokyo.

TOYAMA GAKKO GUNGAKUTAI (The Military Band of the Toyama School). Established in 1896; Kuniichi Okada, 2nd class music officer, leader; membership 120. Address: Toyamacho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

UTAZAWA KAI Established in 1922; Shibakin Utazawa, president; membership 100. The Association aims at the practice and study of "Utazawa." Address: 3 Kobikicho 6 chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

YOKYOKU KENKYU KAI (The "Yokyoku" Study Association). Established in 1913; Shin-ami Nakamura, president; membership 763. The object is to study and propagate the Kanzé School "Utai." Issues Yokyoku Shimpo (Yokyoku News). Address: 24 Daibancho, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON HARMONICA RENMEI (All-Japan Harmonica League). Established 1927; Taiko Mano, head; membership 800. The purpose is to study harmonica music. Issues "Harmonica News". Address: 853 Nippori, Nippori, Tokyo.

SOCIAL FRIENDSHIP

DENKI CLUB (The Electric Enterprisers' Club). Established in 1922; Keijiro Inouyé, president. Address: 8 Yurakucho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUKUOKA ROTARY CLUB Sueo Nonaka, president. Address: Hakata Shoko Kaigisho, Nishi,

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Nakasu, Fukuoka.

KAZOKU KAIKAN (The Peers' Hall). Established in 1874; Prince Nobusuké Takatsukasa, president; membership 1,255. Address: 5 Marunouchi, 2-chomé, Tokyo.

KOBE ROTARY CLUB The aim is to improve civic service and to advance international good-will. Hiroshi Hayashi, president. Address: Oriental Hotel, Kaigandori, Kobé.

KOJUNSHA Established in 1879; Dr. Kiriku Hayashi, president; membership 1,645. Address: 4 Ginza 6-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

KYOTO ROTARY CLUB Yoshijiro Ishikawa, president. Address: Kyoto Hotel, Kawaramachi, Kyoto.

MARUNOUCHI CLUB Senichiro Horié, president. Address: Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NAGOYA ROTARY CLUB Ryusei Watanabé, president. Address: Nagoya Shoko Kaigisho, Nakaku, Nagoya.

NIHON (NIPPON) CLUB Established in 1898; Prince Iyesato Tokugawa, president; membership 468. Address: 12 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON KOGYO CLUB (The Industrial Club of Japan). Established in 1917; Kusuyata Kimura, president; membership 1,030. Issues reports. Address: 2 Marunouchi, Tokyo.

OSAKA CLUB Hanji Iijima, president. Address: 5 Imabashi, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA ROTARY CLUB Junkichi Satomi, president. Address: 6 Imabashi 4-chomé, Higashiku, Osaka.

TAIWAN CLUB Yukisuké Sakai, president. Address: Showa Building, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO CLUB Address: Sannencho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

TOKYO ROTARY CLUB Selichi Kashima, president. Address: Marunouchi Building, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA ROTARY CLUB Shinkichi Yamada, president. Address: 1 Hayashicho, Kanagawaku, Yokohama.

SPORTS AND ATHLETICS

DAI NIPPON BUTOKU KAI. Established in 1908; General Soroku Suzuki, president; membership 2,500,000. The purpose of this organization is to study and encourage martial arts. Issues a journal. Address: Okazaki Park, Kyoto.

DAI NIPPON SUMO KYOKAI (The Wrestling Association of Japan). Established in 1925; Masanori Hirosé, president; membership 1,000. Issues "Kaku-do" (Art of Wrestling). Address: 25 Motomachi, Honjo, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON TAIIKU KYOKAI (The Japan Amateur Athletic Association). Established in 1907; Ryozo Hiranuma, Acting-president; membership 13 organizations. The object is to encourage and guide athletics and physical culture. Issues a journal. Address: Yaesu Building, 16 Marunouchi 2-chomé, Tokyo.

KODO KAN Established in 1909; Jigoro Kano, president; membership about 100,000. The purpose is to train body and mind by means of Jujutsu. Issues "Judo" and one more magazine. Address: Otsuka-Sakashitamachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

MEIJI JINGU TAIIKU KAI (The Meiji Jingu Physical Culture Association). Established in 1926; Baron Yoshio Sakatani, president; membership, all the organizations of physical culture. The object is to hold general athletic meeting in honour of the Meiji Shrine. Address: Care of Nippon Seinen Kaikan, Yotsuya, Tokyo.

NIPPON BABA KYOKAI (The Japan Horse-Riding Association). Established in 1878; Count Yorihisa Matsudaira, president; membership 82 organizations. Issues reports. Address: Toyo Building, Uchi-Yamashitacho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOSHI SPORTS REMMEI (Japan Women's Sporting League). Established in 1882; Tosaku Kinoshita, president. The League has an object in view to take part in international female athletic meetings. Address: Care of the Osaka Mainichi Shimbun, Osaka.

NIPPON RUGBY ASSOCIATION. Established in 1927; Kikan Takagi, president; members 305. Issues a journal. Address: Kogyo Building 52 Ginza, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SANGAKU KAI (Japan Alpine Association). Established in 1906; Kyuta Kojima, president; membership 1,000. Issues "Sangaku" (Mountains). Address: Fujiya Building, Kotohiracho, Shiba, Tokyo.

NIPPON SUIJOKYOGI REMMEI (The Japan Aquatic Sporting League). Established in 1880; Dr. Itsutaro Suehiro, president; membership 119 organizations. Issues reports. Address: 807 Marunouchi Building, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

NIPPON TEIKYU KYOKAI (The Japan Tennis Association). Established in 1922; Count Masatsuné Hotta, president; membership local organizations. Issues reports. Address: Ando Shippo Building, 4 Ginza 5-chomé, Kyobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON YUEI REMMEI (The Japan Swimming League). Count Yoshinori Futara, president; members are local associations. Address: 1 Edogawacho, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

TEIKOKU KEIBA KYOKAI (The Imperial Horse-Race Association). Established in 1921; Count Yorihisa Matsudaira, president; membership 11 organizations. Address: 22 Shinsakuradamachi, Shiba, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON AMATEUR KENTO REMMEI (The All Japan Amateur Pugilists' League). Established in 1924; Lieut. General Bunjiro Horiuchi,

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n resident; membership 5 organizations. Address: Nippo Building, Uchisaiwaicho, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON RIKUJO KYOGI REMMEI (The All Japan Athletic League). Established in 1925; Ryozo Hiranuma, president; membership 26 organizations. Issues a monthly. Address: 6th Building, Nakadori, Marunouchi, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON SKII REMMEI (The All Japan Ski League). Established in 1925; Masaué Inada, president; membership 7,110. Issues Ski Year Book. Address: Care of Ogawa, 808 Komagomé Shinmeicho, Hongo, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON TAIIKU DANSU REMMEI (The All Japan Physical Culture Dance League). Established in 1931; Baron Ken Yamakawa, president. Address: Care of the Department of Education, Tokyo.

ZEN NIPPON TAISO REMMEI (The All Japan Physical Exercise League). Established in 1930; Ryozo Hiranuma, president; membership 1,200. The purpose is to encourage physical exercises and unify physical culture associations in Japan. Issues "Taiso" (Physical Exercises). Address: Care of the Department of Educationi Tokyo.

WOMEN

AIKOKU FUJIN KAI (The Patriotic Women's Association). Established in 1901; Hisako Motono, president; membership 1,530,000. The purpose is to succour the bereaved families of disabled soldiers. Issues "Aikoku Fujin" (Patriotic Women). Address: 5 Kudan 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

CHUO FUJIN KAI (The Central Women's Association). Established in 1927; Kaiei Masuko, president; membership 20,000. The purpose is to keep connections among various women's associations in Japan. Issues "Eikyu" (Permanence). Address: 1919 Nagasaki Minamimachi, Toshima, Tokyo.

DAI NIPPON RENGO FUJIN KAI (The Federation of Women's Associations of Japan). Established in 1930; Haruko Shimazu, president; membership local associations. The purpose is to promote home education. Issues "Katei" (Home). Address: 4 Urakasumigaseki, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUJIN SANSEI DOMEI (The Women Suffrage Union). Established in 1923; Aiko Kawaguchi, president; membership 700. The object of the Union is to carry out woman suffrage movements. Issues reports. Address: 6 Uchisaiwaicho 1-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

FUJIN SETTLEMENT (The Women's Settlement). Established in 1931; Mumeo Oku, president. The purpose of the Settlement is to protect children and improve living conditions. Issues reports: 78 Hayashicho, Honjo, Tokyo.

FUJIN SHISEI KENKYU KAI (The Women's Municipal Adminstrative Association). Established in 1923; Aiko Kawai, president; membership 500. The purpose is to educate women for self-government. Issues an annal. Address: Kobinatadaimachi, Koishikawa, Tokyo.

FUSEN KAKUTOKU DOMEI (The Union for Obtaining Woman Suffrage). Established in 1924; Fusae Ichikawa, president; membership 1,596. Issues "Fusen" (Woman Suffrage). Address: 13 Kojimachi 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

KIRISUTOKYO JOSHI SEINENKAI NIPPON DOMEI (The League of Y.W.C.A. of Japan). Established in 1895; Matsuko Tsuji, president; membership 6,000. Issues "Joshi Seinen Kai" (Y.W.C.A.). Address: 13 Nishikicho 1-chomé, Kanda, Tokyo.

NIPPON JOI KAI (The Medical-Women's Association of Japan). Established in 1902; Dr. Yayoi Yoshioka, president; membership 1,700. Issues reports. Hongo 2-chomé, Hongo, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIRISUTOKYO FUJIN KYOFU KAI (Japan Christian Women's Temperance Society). Established in 1886; Chiyo Ozaki, president; membership 7,200. The purpose is to promote abstinence, moral and religious education. Issues "Fujin Shimpo" (Women's News). Address: 360 Hyakuninmachi, Okubo, Yodobashi, Tokyo.

NIPPON SEKIJUJI SHA TOKUSHI KANGOFU KAI (The Japanese Red-Cross Volunteer Nurses Association). Established in 1887; Eiko Nabeshima, president; membership 22,400. Issues "Haku Ai" (Universal Love). Address: Shiba Park, Shiba, Tokyo.

RIKUKAIGUN SHOKO FUJINKAI (The Association of Military and Naval Officers' Wives). Momoko Kuroki, president. The purpose is the discipline of woman's virtues. Issues "Misao" (Chastity). Address: 11 Wakamatsucho, Ushigomé, Tokyo.

SENTO HIRUTA YOKO HOME (St. Hilda's Home). Established in 1891; in care of Sister Superior. The purpose is to help the children of the poor and encourage home industry. Address: 358 Shirokané Sankocho, Shiba, Tokyo.

TRAVELLING, SIGHT-SEEING, AMUSEMENT, ETC.

JAPAN TOURIST BUREAU (Nippon Ryoko Kyokai). Established in 1912. The purpose is to provide various facilities for foreign travellers. Issues "Tourist," a monthly. Address: Tokyo Station, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

KOKUSAI KANKO KYOKAI (The Japan Travel Publicity Association). Established in 1931; Shinya Uchida, president; membership 81. The purpose is to invite foreign tourists and propagate abroad fine scenery. Address: Care of the Department of Railways, Marunouchi, Tokyo.

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NIPPON INU HOZON KAI (The Association for the Preservation of Japanese Dogs). Established in 1928; Hiroshi Saito, president; membership 250. The object is to make researches of Japanese dogs. Issues "Nippon Inu" (Japanese Dogs). Address: 633 Daita, Setagaya, Tokyo.

NIPPON KIIN (The Japan "Go" Association). Viscount Nobuaki Makino, president. The purpose is to promote interest in "Go" playing. Issues "Kido" (the way of "Go"). Address: 1 Nagatacho 2-chomé, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

NIPPON ONSEN KYOKAI (The Hot Spring Association). Established in 1930; Sanetaka Ichijo, president; membership 1,480. The purpose is to invite foreign tourists. Issues "Onsen" (Hot Spring). Address: Care of the Japan Tourist Bureau, Tokyo.

NIPPON TORI KENKYU KAI (The Association for the Study of Japanese Birds). The purpose is to study birds. Address: Care of the Bird Co., Kudansakaué, Kojimachi, Tokyo.

EXCHANGES

CHOSEN STOCK EXCHANGE Hatsutaro Arai, director. Capital ¥6,599,000. Address: Koganecho, Keijo (Seoul).

DAIREN STOCK AND MERCHANDISE EXCHANGE Tatsuo Sakurauchi, director. Capital ¥5,000,000. Address: Shikishimamachi, Dairen.

DAIREN STOCK EXCHANGE Yozo Tamura, director. Capital ¥12,000,000. Address: Yamagatadori, Dairen.

KOBE STOCK EXCHANGE Gisaku Takigawa, director. Capital ¥3,500,000. Address: 7 Kusunokimachi, Higashiku, Kobé.

KYOTO STOCK EXCHANGE Sakutaro Sono, director. Capital ¥5,000,000. Address: Todoindori, Chukyoku, Kyoto.

NAGOYA RICE AND GRAIN EXCHANGE Masahiko Takahashi, director. Capital ¥1,300,000. Address: Komehamacho, Nakaku, Nagoya.

NAGOYA STOCK EXCHANGE Yoshio Shimodé, director. Capital ¥6,000,000. Address: 1 Minamiisecho, Nakaku, Nagoya.

OSAKA DOJIMA RICE AND GRAIN EXCHANGE Masao Saneyoshi, director. Capital ¥6,000,000. Address: Dojima-hamadori, Kitaku, Osaka.

OSAKA STOCK EXCHANGE Sadakichi Hamazaki, director. Capital ¥45,000,000. Address: 2 Kitahama, Higashiku, Osaka.

OSAKA SAMPIN (COTTON) EXCHANGE Risaburo Nakamura, director. Capital ¥5,000,000. Address: 3 Kitakyutaromachi, Higashiku, Osaka.

TOKYO GRAIN AND MERCHANDISE EXCHANGE Yoshitaro Hayakawa, director. Capital ¥7,760,000. Address: 1 Kakigaracho, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

TOKYO STOCK EXCHANGE Chuji Kajiwara, director. Capital ¥47,000,000. Address: Kabutocho, Nihonbashi, Tokyo.

YOKOHAMA STOCK EXCHANGE Yeisuke Fukuda, director. Capital ¥6,500,000. Address: 3 Minamimakadori, Nakaku, Yokohama.

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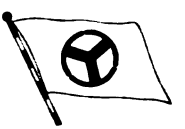

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CAPITAL PAID UP - - - - - -	19,750,000
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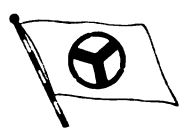

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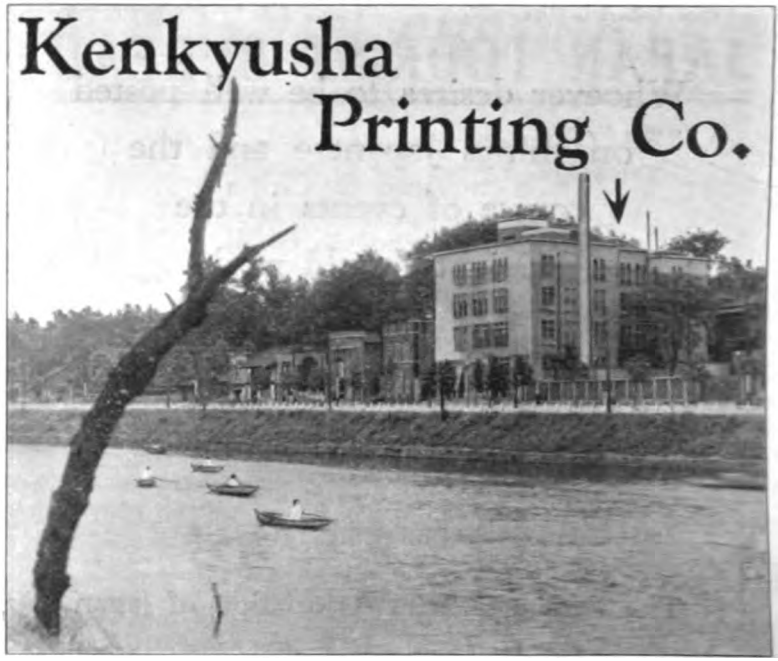

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